# Metabolic roles of uncultivated bacterioplankton lineages in the northern Gulf of Mexico "Dead Zone"

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**Abstract**

Marine regions that have seasonal to long-term low dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations, sometimes called 'dead zones,' are increasing in number and severity around the globe with deleterious effects on ecology and economics. One of the largest of these coastal dead zones occurs on the continental shelf of the northern Gulf of Mexico (nGOM), which results from eutrophication-enhanced bacterioplankton respiration and strong seasonal stratification. Previous research in this dead zone revealed the presence of multiple cosmopolitan bacterioplankton lineages that have eluded cultivation, and thus their metabolic roles in this ecosystem remain unknown. We used a coupled shotgun metagenomic and metatranscriptomic approach to determine the metabolic potential of Marine Group II Euryarchaeota, SAR406, and SAR202. We recovered multiple high-quality, nearly complete genomes from all three groups as well as near-complete genomes belonging to Candidate Phyla usually associated with anoxic environments-Parcubacteria (OD1) and Peregrinibacteria. Two additional groups with putative assignments to ACD39 and PAUC34f supplement the metabolic contributions by uncultivated taxa. Our results indicate active metabolism in all groups, including prevalent aerobic respiration, with concurrent expression of genes for nitrate reduction in SAR406 and SAR202, and dissimilatory nitrite reduction to ammonia and sulfur reduction by SAR406. We also report a variety of active heterotrophic carbon processing mechanisms, including degradation of complex carbohydrate compounds by SAR406, SAR202, ACD39, and PAUC34f. Together, these data help constrain the metabolic contributions from uncultivated groups in the nGOM during periods of low DO and suggest roles for these organisms in the breakdown of recalcitrant organic matter.

**Importance**

Dead zones receive their name primarily from the reduction of eukaryotic macrobiota (demersal fish, shrimp, etc.) that are also key coastal fisheries. Excess nutrients contributed from anthropogenic activity such as fertilizer runoff result in algal blooms and therefore ample new carbon for aerobic microbial metabolism. Combined with strong stratification, microbial respiration reduces oxygen in shelf bottom waters to levels unfit for many animals (termed hypoxia). The nGOM shelf remains one of the largest eutrophication-driven hypoxic zones in the world, yet despite its potential as a model study system, the microbial metabolisms underlying and resulting from this phenomenon—many of which occur in bacterioplankton from poorly understood lineages—have received only preliminary study. Our work details the metabolic potential and gene expression activity for uncultivated lineages across several low DO sites in the nGOM, improving our understanding of the active biogeochemical cycling mediated by these "microbial dark matter" taxa during hypoxia.

## Introduction

Hypoxia (dissolved oxygen [DO] below 2 $mg \cdot L^{-1}$/~62.5 $\mu mol \cdot kg^{-1}$) becomes dangerous or lethal to a wide variety of marine life, including organisms of economic importance (1). Hypoxia results from oxygen consumption by aerobic microbial metabolism combined with strong stratification that prevents reoxygeneation of bottom waters. These taxa are fueled primarily by autochthonous organic matter generated from phytoplankton responding to nitrogen input (1). Hypoxic zones have become more widespread globally through the proliferation of nitrogen-based fertilizers and the resulting increases in transport to coastal oceans via runoff (2). In the nGOM, nitrogen runoff from the Mississippi and Atchafalaya Rivers leads to one of the world's largest seasonal regions of coastal hypoxia, with bottom water hypoxia that can extend over 20,000 $km^2$ (1). Action plans to mitigate nGOM hypoxia have stressed that removing continued uncertainties and increasing our "understanding of nutrient cycling and transformations" remain vital for plan implementation (3). These needs motivated our current study of the engines of hypoxic zone nutrient transformation: microorganisms.

Much of our current knowledge regarding microbial contributions to regions of low DO comes from numerous studies investigating naturally occurring, deep-water oxygen minimum zones (OMZs), such as those in the Eastern Tropical North and South Pacific, the Saanich Inlet, and the Arabian, Baltic, and Black Seas (4-11). In many of these systems, continual nutrient supply generates permanent or semi-permanent decreases in oxygen, sometimes to the point of complete anoxia (4). During these conditions, anaerobic metabolisms, such as nitrate and sulfate reduction and anaerobic ammonia oxidation, become prevalent (5, 9, 11-13). In contrast, nGOM hypoxia is distinguished by a seasonal pattern of formation, persistence, and dissolution (1); benthic contributions to bottom water oxygen consumption (14, 15); and a shallow shelf that places much of the water column within the euphotic zone (16). While parts of the nGOM hypoxic zone can become anoxic (1, 17), many areas maintain low oxygen concentrations even during peak hypoxia while the upper water column remains oxygenated (18-20).

The first studies of bacterioplankton assemblages during nGOM hypoxia showed nitrifying Thaumarchaea dominated (21) and could be highly active (22), suggesting a major role for these taxa in nGOM nitrogen cycling. However, many more poorly understood organisms from cosmopolitan, but still uncultivated lineages, such as Marine Group II Euryarchaeota (MGII), SAR406, and SAR202, also occurred in abundance (21, 22). While the likely functions of some of these groups have become clearer recently, all of them contain multiple sublineages that may have distinct metabolic roles. For example, the SAR202 lineage of Chloroflexi contains at least five subclades with distinct ecological profiles (23, 24), and the best understood examples have been examined in the context of complex carbon degradation in the deep ocean (24). Likewise, SAR406 represents a distinct phylum with numerous sublineages, and the bulk of metabolic inference comes from taxa in deep water OMZs (25-28).

None of these groups have been studied in detail in the shallow coastal waters, particularly in the context of seasonal hypoxia. Thus, we pursued a combined metagenomic/metatranscriptomic approach to i) elucidate the specific contributions of these

111 uncultivated lineages to biogeochemical cycling in the nGOM during hypoxia, ii) evaluate the
112 relative similarity of these organisms to their counterparts elsewhere, and iii) determine if other
113 uncultivated lineages had eluded previous microbial characterization in the region due to primer
114 bias (29),16S rRNA gene introns (30), or low abundance. Metagenomic binning recovered 20
115 genomes across seven uncultivated lineages including MGII, SAR406, and SAR202, and also
116 from Candidate Phyla previously uncharacterized in the nGOM: Parcubacteria (28),
117 Peregrinibacteria (31), and possibly PAUC34f (32) and ACD39 (33). Our results provide the first
118 information on the likely potential function and activity of these taxa during hypoxia in the
119 shallow nGOM and suggest novel roles for some of these groups that possibly reflect sublineage-
120 specific adaptations.
121
122 **Results**
123
124 ***Study area***
125 Our previous work used 16S rRNA gene amplicon data and qPCR to examine correlations
126 between whole microbial communities, nutrients, and DO across the geographic range of the
127 2013 seasonal hypoxia (21). Here we selected six of those samples from offshore of the region
128 between Atchafalaya Bay and Terrebonne Bay (D', D, and E transects). These sites ranged
129 considerably in DO concentration (~2.2 – 132 $\mu mol \cdot kg^{-1}$), and we chose them to facilitate a
130 detailed investigation of the metabolic repertoire of individual taxa across the span of suboxic (1-
131 20 $\mu mol \cdot kg^{-1}$ DO) to oxic (> 90 $\mu mol \cdot kg^{-1}$ DO) (5) water. Microbial samples from these sites
132 were collected at the oxygen minimum near the bottom. Site depth ranged from 8 – 30 m, with
133 the hypoxic (< 2 $mg \cdot L^{-1}$/62.5 $\mu mol \cdot kg^{-1}$) layer (at sites D2, D3, E2A, and E4) extending up to
134 ~5 m off the bottom (Table S1).
135
136 ***Metagenomic assembly yielded high quality genomes from multiple uncultivated lineages***
137 Our initial assembly and binning efforts recovered 76 genomes. Using a concatenated ribosomal
138 protein tree that included members of the Candidate Phylum Radiation (CPR)(34) (Fig. S1),
139 CheckM (35) (Fig. S2), 16S rRNA genes and other single copy markers where available, and
140 analyses of individual gene taxonomy (Fig. S3), we assigned 20 genomes to uncultivated
141 "microbial dark matter" groups. These were six Marine Group II Euryarchaeota (MGII), five
142 Marinimicrobia (SAR406), three in the SAR202 clade of Chloroflexi, and within Candidate
143 Phyla (CP), one Parcubacteria (OD1), two Peregrinibacteria, and putatively, one ACD39 and two
144 PAUC34f (Table 1). All genomes, with the exception of the Parcubacteria Bin 40, had estimated
145 contamination of less than 6%, and in the majority of cases, less than 2%. Four of the six MGII
146 genomes had estimated completeness (via CheckM) of greater than 61%, four of the five
147 SAR406 greater than 73%, and all three SAR202 genomes were estimated to be greater than
148 83% complete. All CP lineages had at least one genome estimated to be greater than 71%
149 complete (Table 1).

150 The six MGII genomes spanned a range of GC content from 41-62%, which may indicate
151 the presence of sublineages, although their clustering within the ribosomal protein tree did not
152 correspond with GC content (Fig. S1). Average amino acid identity (AAI) supported a close
153 relationship between Bins 14, 17-1, and 18, congruent with the ribosomal phylogeny (Table S1).
154 Expected complete genome sizes, based on estimated completion percentages, were between 1.7
155 and 3.2 Mbp (Table 1). Within SAR406, GC content groupings did correspond to phylogenetic
156 inference. A low GC group (Group A) made up of Bins 51-1, and 51 with 39% and 41% GC,
157 respectively, and a higher GC group (Group B) with Bins 45-2, 45, and 45-1 having 46%, 47%,
158 and 49% GC, respectively. This pattern matched the ribosomal protein tree phylogeny where
159 Bins 45-1 and 45-2 were sister and separated by large branch lengths from Bin 51-1 (Fig. S1).
160 Bins 45 and 51 could not be included in the tree because of missing ribosomal proteins, but they
161 were grouped with SAR406 through 16S rRNA genes, markers on other contigs like the RNA
162 polymerase in Bin 45, similar patterns of protein family expansions (see below), based on their
163 bin of origin, and via AAI calculations (Table S1). During quality control, Bin 51-1 was
164 separated out of Bin 51, and Bins 45-1 and 45-2 out of Bin 45. The pairwise identities of the 16S
165 rRNA genes between bins also support the 45/45-1 and 51/51-1 groupings, as does AAI, where
166 Group A were more similar to each other than Group B, and vice versa (Table S1). The
167 aggregate data therefore supported Bins 45 and 51 as SAR406. Based on 16S rRNA gene
168 phylogeny (Fig. S4), Group A are sister to the Arctic96B-7 clade, and Group B form a
169 monophyletic group with the early diverging SHBH1141 clade identified by Wright and
170 colleagues (26). Expected genome sizes for SAR406 Group A were 2.6-2.7 Mbp and for Group
171 B, 2.8-3.5 Mbp (Table 1). The three SAR202 genomes had very similar GC content (52-53%),
172 were tightly grouped on the ribosomal protein tree on their own branch as early diverging
173 members of the Chloroflexi (Fig. S1), and closely related- possibly at the level of Genus- based
174 on AAI (36) (Table S1). We classified these genomes as subclade I based on 16S rRNA gene
175 phylogeny (Fig. S5), which distinguishes them from the subclade III and V genomes recently
176 reported (24). Estimated complete genome sizes were between 2.2-3.0 Mbp (Table 1). These
177 genomes also had the lowest coding density of all the groups: 88-91% (Table S1).
178 CP lineages had fewer representative genomes. A single genome from Parcubacteria had
179 a GC content of 52% and the two Perigrinibacteria genomes had 39 and 45% GC content. Both
180 of these groups had well-supported positions in the ribosomal protein tree (Fig. S1) that were
181 corroborated by BLASTP-derived annotation of encoded proteins against the NCBI nr database
182 (Fig. S3). We estimated complete genome sizes for Parcubacteria and Perigrinibacteria at near
183 1.5 Mbp (Table 1). Bins 50 and 48 grouped with WS3 bacteria in the ribosomal protein tree,
184 although their relative positions inside the clade were poorly supported at the internal nodes.
185 AAI generally supports the designation of these two bins in the same phylum (37) (Table S1), as
186 does their relationship in the ribosomal protein tree. However, the nearly complete Bin 50 16S
187 rRNA gene sequence had best blast hits to the PAUC34f CP in the GreenGenes database. 16S
188 rRNA gene phylogenetic inference grouped Bin 50 with other PAUC34f sequences sister to the
189 entire WS3 clade (Fig. S6), in conflict with the ribosomal protein phylogeny. The lack of

190 PAUC34f genomes makes it possible that the ribosomal protein tree grouping of Bins 50 and 48
191 occurred simply due to inadequate taxon selection, as these are nearby clades in the 16S rRNA
192 gene tree. Although a rare group, PAUC34f was more abundant than WS3 in the amplicon
193 dataset and we detected 18 PAUC34f operational taxonomic units (OTUs) compared to three
194 assigned to WS3 (21), so reconstruction of PAUC34f genomes was more likely than WS3. Bin
195 13 grouped with genomes designated as ACD39, a group previously identified in an aquifer (33),
196 however Bin 13 was on a long branch and the relationship was poorly supported (Fig. S1). For
197 the Bin 13 and PAUC34f genomes, blast-based identification via best hit annotation did not
198 return clear results- hit annotations included a wide variety of taxa. These results are consistent
199 with what we would expect from novel genomes that have few or no members in the database,
200 however this analysis did not directly corroborate either the ribosomal protein tree phylogeny for
201 all three bins, or the 16S rRNA gene phylogeny for Bin 50. We therefore consider the
202 designation of Bins 50/48 as PAUC34f, and Bin 13 as ACD39, putative. Bins 50 and 48 had 58
203 and 55% GC content, and larger estimated complete genomes than the others at 6.3 and 4.9 Mbp,
204 respectively. Bin 13 also had a large expected genome size at 4.8 Mbp, and GC content of 47%.
205
206 ***Unique roles for the ubiquitous MGII, SAR406, and SAR202 lineages in nGOM hypoxia***
207 Marine group II (MGII) is a broadly distributed archaeal clade, with members found in different
208 marine (38, 39), and sedimentary (40), environments. Previous work during 2012 and 2013
209 hypoxia indicated a proliferation of archaeal taxa in both the Thaumarchaea and MGII phyla (21,
210 22). MGII comprised over 10% of the total community in some samples from 2013, and one
211 MGII OTU also had a strong negative correlation with DO during 2013 hypoxia (21). Within the
212 metagenomics dataset herein, MGII were more abundant in lower oxygen samples than in fully
213 oxic ones, and the most abundant of the lineages reported here (Fig. S7). The majority encoded
214 for aerobic, chemoheterotrophic metabolism, with no predicted genes for nitrogen or sulfur
215 respiration except for a putative nitrite reductase (*nirK*) in a single genome- Bin 15 (Fig.1, Table
216 S1). Abundance of MGII genomic abundance correlated well with transcriptional abundance in
217 most samples (Fig. 3), and we specifically found MGII cytochrome c oxidase expression
218 throughout, though the levels and patterns differed depending on the gene and the source genome
219 (Fig. 4, Table S1). Expression of the *nirK* gene occurred in the D2 and E2A samples- both
220 suboxic. All but the most incomplete genome encoded for ammonia assimilation, making this a
221 likely nitrogen source. Aggregate metabolic construction also indicated a complete TCA cycle,
222 glycolysis via the pentose phosphate pathway, and gluconeogenesis (Fig. 1). Carbohydrate active
223 enzyme (CAZy) genes can provide critical information on the relationships between microbes
224 and possible carbon sources (41). We found few and these were largely restricted to
225 glycosyltransferases (GT) in families 2 and 4, with activities related to cellular synthesis. In
226 general, CAZy expression occurred for at least one gene in every genome and we detected
227 expression of GT cellular synthesis genes in the E2A sample (Fig. 5), likely indicating actively
228 growing cells.

229 Another cosmopolitan group found in our samples was SAR406 or Marine Group A.
230 These organisms were discovered over 20 years ago (27, 42), and the clade has recently been
231 proposed as the phylum "Marinimicrobia" (28). SAR406 occur in numerous marine (5, 25, 27,
232 28, 43), sedimentary (28), and even oil reservoir (44) environments. They are prevalent in deeper
233 ocean waters (27, 43, 45) and prefer lower oxygen concentrations in OMZs (5, 25, 46). SAR406
234 represented over 5% of the population in some locations during hypoxia in 2013, and one
235 abundant OTU was negatively correlated with DO (21). Metagenomic read recruitment to the
236 SAR406 bins confirmed this trend, with greater recruitment in the suboxic samples relative to
237 dysoxic or oxic (Fig. S7). Total RNA recruitment was strongest to Bins 45 and 51-1, though
238 most bins showed a positive RNA to DNA recruitment ratio in at least one sample, indicating
239 these taxa were likely active (Fig. 3).
240 Despite their affinity for low oxygen environments, the SAR406 genomes encoded a
241 predicted capacity for aerobic respiration (Fig. 1), and we found expression of cytochrome c
242 oxidases in even the lowest oxygen samples (Fig. 4). The Group B genomes encoded both high
243 and low-affinity cytochrome c oxidases (47), whereas the high affinity ($cbb_3$-type) oxidases were
244 not recovered in the Group A genomes (Table S1), which may indicate sublineage-specific
245 optimization for different oxygen regimes. Sublineage variation also appeared in genes for the
246 nitrogen and sulfur cycles. Group B genomes all contained predicted nitrous oxide reductases
247 (*nosZ*) and *nrfAH* genes for dissimilatory nitrite reduction to ammonium (defined here as DNRA,
248 although this acronym frequently refers to nitrate, even though that is a misnomer (48)). The
249 *nrfA* genes formed a monophyletic group with *Anaeromyxobacter dehalogenans* 2CP-1, an
250 organism with demonstrated DNRA activity (48) (Fig. S8). The genes also contained conserved
251 motifs diagnostic of the *nrfA* gene (48) (Fig. S9). We observed expression of *nrfAH* and *nosZ* at
252 the sites with the lowest DO concentrations (D2, E2A, and E4) and expression appeared to have
253 a negative relationship with DO concentration (Fig. 4). The Bin 51-1 Group A genome contained
254 predicted *narHI* genes for dissimilatory nitrate reduction, which we did not find in the Group B
255 genomes. We observed expression of SAR406 *narHI* only in the lowest DO sample from station
256 E2A (Fig. 4). Two Group B SAR406 genomes had predicted *phsA* genes for thiosulfate reduction
257 to sulfide (and/or polysulfide reduction (49)), as previously described from fosmid sequences
258 (26). We detected transcripts for these genes only in samples E2A and E4, the two lowest DO
259 samples (Fig. 4). Interestingly, many of the anaerobic respiratory genes were co-expressed with
260 cytochrome c oxidases, indicating a potential for either co-reduction of these alternative terminal
261 electron acceptors or poising of these organisms for rapid switching between aerobic and
262 anaerobic metabolism (50).
263 All SAR406 genomes had numerous genes for heterotrophy. We found CAZy genes in
264 all major categories except polysaccharide lyases, and expression for most of these genes in both
265 Group A and Group B genomes in one or more samples (Fig. 5). Notable carbohydrate
266 compounds for which degradation capacity was predicted include cellulose (glycoside hydrolase
267 (GH) families GH3, GH5; carbohydrate binding module (CBM) family CBM6), starch (GH13),
268 agar and other sulfated galactans (GH2, GH16), chitin (GH18), xylan (GH30, CBM9), and

269 peptidoglycan (GH23, GH103, CBM50). The genomes contained putative transporters for a
270 variety of dissolved organic matter (DOM) components including nucleosides, amino and fatty
271 acids, and oligopeptides (Table S1). We also found numerous outer membrane transporters,
272 including cation symporters; Outer Membrane Receptors (OMR- TonB-dependent), which play
273 important roles in transport of metals, vitamins, colicins, and other compounds; Outer Membrane
274 Factors (OMF); and most genomes also had large numbers of duplicated genes (24 in Bin 45-2),
275 identified via hidden Markov model searches against the SFam database (51), annotated as "Por
276 secretion system C-terminal sorting domain-containing protein," some of which were associated
277 with GH16. These genes likely play a role in sorting C-terminal tags of proteins targeted for
278 secretion via the Por system, which is essential for gliding motility and chitinase secretion in
279 some Bacteroidetes (52). The extensive gene duplication may indicate expanded and/or
280 specialized sorting functionality, and suggests an emphasis on protein secretion in this group.
281 Expression of a membrane-bound lytic murein transglycosylase D (GH23) involved in
282 membrane remodeling, also supports the idea of active and growing cells from Group A in all
283 samples (Table S1). Thus, SAR406 likely perform chemoorganoheterotrophic metabolism,
284 possibly degrading extracellular material, with flexibility in terminal electron accepting
285 processes that implicate them in nitrogen and sulfur cycling in the lowest suboxic DO samples.
286 Members of the SAR202 clade of Chloroflexi also inhabit a wide variety of marine
287 environments (23), frequently in deeper waters (23, 43, 45, 53, 54), and remain functionally
288 understudied, although recent work on subclades III and V has suggested roles in degrading
289 recalcitrant DOM in the mesopelagic (24). We detected Chloroflexi 16S rRNA gene sequences
290 during 2013 hypoxia at up to 5% of the community (21). In contrast to the single-cell genomes
291 examined by Landry et al. (24), the three SAR202 genomes that we recovered belong to subclade
292 I (23) (Fig. S5). Although present at lower abundance than MGII and SAR406 (Fig. S7), these
293 genomes showed relatively high activity in some samples (Fig. 3). Like subclade III and V,
294 subclade I organisms likely respire oxygen, however we also found *napAB* and *nosZ* genes for
295 nitrate and nitrous oxide reduction, respectively (Fig. 1). As in SAR406, we detected concurrent
296 expression of these genes with cytochrome c oxidases in the lowest DO samples (Fig. 4) (Fig. 4,
297 Table S1).
298 The SAR202 genomes have numerous transporters with predicted roles in organic matter
299 transport, which supports previous observations of DOM uptake (53). In particular, SAR202
300 genomes also had considerably more Major Facilitator Superfamily (MFS) transporters than the
301 other genomes in this study (Table S1) and those of the subclade III genomes (24), and SFam
302 searches revealed a the majority of these shared annotation as a "Predicted arabinose efflux
303 permease" (SFam 346742). MFS genes transport numerous diverse substrates, such as sugars and
304 amino acids, through coupling with an ion gradient, and can be associated with either uptake or
305 export of compounds (55). SAR202 genomes also had between 53 and 66 predicted ABC
306 transporters. The largest gene family expansion that we observed in SAR202 was associated with
307 SFam 6706, with between 46 and 48 genes in this family encoded in each genome. Most of these
308 (121/142) were annotated as either a "galactonate dehydratase" or a "L-alanine-DL-glutamate

309 epimerase." Galactonate dehydratase catalyzes the first step of the pathway to utilize D-
310 galactonate in central carbon metabolism via the pentose phosphate pathway. The large number
311 of genes in these categories likely indicate some divergence for alternative roles as this group
312 belongs broadly to the COG4948 "L-alanine-DL-glutamate epimerase or related enzyme of
313 enolase superfamily." All genomes also had numerous dehydrogenases as reported for the
314 subclade III genomes (24). Specifically, SFams 346640 and 1639 were the third and fourth most
315 abundant, with 16-18 and 13-15 genes in each family, respectively, across the three genomes.
316 Genes in these families were annotated as "short-chain alcohol dehydrogenase family," "3-alpha
317 (or 20-beta)-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase," "meso-butanediol dehydrogenase," and others.
318 These match the annotations of the subclade III genomes, and suggest a similar role in
319 conversion of alcohols to ketones (24). The SAR202 genomes have comparatively few CAZy
320 genes relative to the other genomes. GH15 and GH63 suggest starch degradation, and GH105
321 pectin degradation, and we detected expression of multiple genes in these categories across
322 samples (Fig. 5, Table S1).
323
324 ***Other Candidate Phyla organisms in nGOM hypoxia***
325 In contrast to the abundant and cosmopolitan MGII, SAR406, and SAR202 clades, we also
326 recovered genomes from several groups that were either previously undetected in the nGOM or
327 very rare. Although these taxa likely do not contribute the biomass of more populous clades,
328 their genomes provide important insight into their functional potential during hypoxia. The Bin
329 13 genome (possibly ACD39) also had the highest relative activity compared to all the other
330 genomes in our study (Fig. 3), underlining the point that low abundance does not automatically
331 equate to low metabolic impact. Bin 13 had predicted aerobic respiration with both high and low-
332 affinity cytochrome c oxidases (Fig. 2), however, the low affinity oxidases contributed more
333 reads in the samples where we could detect expression (Table S1). The genome contained
334 numerous predicted CAZy genes in the glycosyltransferase and glycoside hydrolase categories,
335 spread across numerous families in each (Table S1). Notable degradation capacity included
336 starch (GH13) and peptidoglycan (GH23, GH103, GH104).
337 Bin 13 had ~ 80 ABC transporter genes, and similarly to the SAR406 genomes,
338 numerous outer membrane transporters, including the OMR and OMF families. We predict
339 complete glycolysis/gluconeogenesis pathways and a TCA cycle. We recovered paralogous pilus
340 subunit genes, chemotaxis genes, and a partial flagellar assembly. Furthermore we detected
341 relatively high expression of the *flgLN* flagellin genes in samples D2, D3, E2A, and E4 (Table
342 S1) suggesting active motility in these environments. Several other Bin 13 genes were among the
343 most highly expressed in all samples, but could only be classified as hypothetical (Table S1).
344 Similarly, the three most populous SFams in Bin 13, according to number of genes (n=16, 15,
345 and 13) also linked to genes annotated as hypothetical proteins with either tetratricopeptide,
346 HEAT, TPR, or Sel1 repeats. Although currently obscure, these and the highly expressed
347 hypothetical genes represent important targets for future research into the function of this group.
348 The organism likely leads an aerobic heterotrophic lifestyle, with substantial capacity for

349 interacting with the environment through numerous transporters and possible surface attachment
350 via multiple motility genes.
351 Bins 50 and 48 were lower in abundance than SAR202 genomes, with no observable
352 trend associated with oxygen levels (Fig. S7). These genomes encoded flagellar motility, aerobic
353 respiration, glycolysis via the pentose-phosphate pathway, gluconeogenesis, assimilatory sulfate
354 reduction, and DNRA (Fig. 2). The *nrfA* subunit from both genomes grouped in the same
355 monophyletic clade as those from SAR406 (Fig. S8), and had similar conserved motifs (Fig. S9).
356 However, we note that the *nrfAH* gene sets for Bins 50 and 48 occurred on relatively short
357 contigs (5650 and 5890 bp, respectively), so the metabolic assignment cannot be corroborated as
358 definitively as that for SAR406. The Bin 50 genome was among the more active in our analysis
359 (Fig. 3), and we detected highest expression of cytochrome c oxidase components in samples
360 E2A and E4 (Fig. 4). DNRA gene expression was low but observable in the same samples. We
361 also recovered a partial gene for the ribulose-bisphosphate carboxylase (RuBisCO) large subunit,
362 however this fragment was on a very short contig (3954 bp), and we did not detect expression in
363 any of our samples, so we cannot rule out that this gene occurred on a contaminating contig.
364 These genomes had abundant CAZy genes in all categories, suggesting a highly flexible
365 metabolic repertoire for carbon acquisition. They contain possible capacity for breakdown of
366 starch (GH13, CBM48), peptidoglycan (GH23, CBM50), fructose-based oligosaccharides
367 (GH32), and hemicellulose (GH2, GH3, GH43). Notably these genomes were the only ones with
368 predicted polysaccharide lyases (PL) among those compared (with the exception of a single
369 predicted PL gene in SAR406- Table S1). PL genes cleave uronic-acid containing
370 polysaccharides (56). These organisms seem particularly adapted for pectin (PL1, PL2, PL9,
371 PL10, PL11, PL22, GH78) and alginate (PL15, PL17) degradation- both compounds are
372 common cell wall components of green and brown algae, respectively. In line with the algal cell
373 wall degradation ability, we detected a large expansion (102 genes in Bin 50) of sulfatase genes
374 in SFam 1534, annotated predominantly as either "arylsulfatase A" or "choline-sulfatase."
375 Arylsulfatases cleave sulfate esters, usually to supply microbes with a source of sulfur, and can
376 be located intracellularly or in membranes (57). Choline-sulfatases cleave choline sulfate to
377 choline and sulfate, with downstream use for the former as a carbon source or osmoprotectant
378 and the latter as a sulfur source (58). Given the predicted assimilatory sulfate reduction pathway
379 in Bins 50 and 48, this is a logical means to obtain sulfur for the group. We observed large
380 expansions in galactonate and other dehydratases (as in SAR202, above- SFam 6706 n=42 in Bin
381 50), as well as numerous ABC transporter permeases (SFam 4442), which match the transporter
382 prediction via IMG: 117 predicted genes for ABC transporters in all. These genomes also had
383 numerous OMF and OMR transporter genes (Table S1). The large number of transporters and
384 protein family expansions correspond to the relatively large expected genome sizes (between 5
385 and 6 Mbp). Thus, we expect these organisms to have an aerobic, potentially facultatively
386 anaerobic, multifaceted chemoorganoheterotrophic metabolism with roles in complex carbon
387 compound degradation (like that of algal cell walls) and the nitrogen cycle.

388 We also recovered genomes associated with CPR taxa usually associated with anoxic
389 environments: two Peregrinibacteria and one from the Uhrbacteria subclade of the Parcubacteria
390 (formerly OD1). All three genomes could be assigned taxonomically with high confidence based
391 on their positions in the ribosomal protein tree (Fig. S1) and via gene annotations (Fig. S3). We
392 note that although the Peregrinibacteria bins (16 and 39) had very low predicted contamination,
393 the Parcubacteria Bin 40 has 15% predicted contamination (75% of which we attribute to strain
394 heterogeneity in the bin) (Table 1). Recovery of Parcubacteria from a coastal marine system is
395 unusual, but not unprecedented. Parcubacteria single-cell genomes have been identified in
396 marine and brackish sources (28), and we previously identified 26 rare OTUs assigned to the
397 phylum in nGOM hypoxia (21). That number of low abundance OTUs may explain why we have
398 20 single copy marker genes present in two copies in Bin 40 (Table S1). In contrast to
399 Parcubacteria, Peregrinibacteria have thus far only been found in terrestrial subsurface aquifers
400 (31, 33, 59, 60), and remained undetected in our amplicon survey (21). Both groups occurred in
401 low relative abundance to the other taxa in this study, and showed the lowest activity (Fig. 3).
402 Consistent with previous reports of obligate fermentative metabolism by Parcubacteria and
403 Peregrinibacteria (28, 30, 31, 59), we identified no respiratory pathways for these taxa (Fig. 2)
404 and they trended towards greater abundances in the lowest DO samples (Fig. S7). In spite of
405 relatively high predicted genome completion, we found very few CAZy genes, and those were
406 mostly restricted to glycosyltransferases (Table S1), hence probably involved in capsular
407 polysaccharide synthesis. While these organisms had low relative abundance to the other groups
408 (Fig. S7), we did observe activity in some samples (E2, E2A, D1), suggesting these organisms
409 are either insensitive to oxygen or occupy microanoxic niches (Fig. 3).
410
411 **Discussion**
412 This work provides the first reconstruction of multiple nearly complete genomes from
413 uncultivated bacterioplankton during nGOM hypoxia. Although we define roles for MGII,
414 SAR406, SAR202, Bin 13 and Bins 50/48 as aerobic heterotrophs, we also observed concurrent
415 expression of genes associated with anaerobic metabolism in SAR406 (nitrate reduction, DNRA,
416 nitrous oxide reduction, and sulfur reduction), SAR202 (nitrate and nitrous oxide reduction),
417 MGII (nitrite reduction), and Bins 50/48 (DNRA) in suboxic samples with the lowest measured
418 DO concentrations. Simultaneous utilization of multiple electron acceptors with different redox
419 potentials likely indicates an abundant supply of electron donors (61), may denote niche
420 partitioning within group sublineages at a finer level of taxonomic resolution than we observed,
421 or indicate poising of taxa for rapidly changing chemical gradients (50). An organism's set of
422 carbohydrate active enzyme (CAZy) genes often gives insights into its biology, in particular into
423 nutrient sensing and acquisition. All taxa examined in this study had predicted
424 chemoorganoheterotrophic metabolism, and the CAZy genes found in these genomes suggest
425 that SAR406, SAR202, Bin 13, and Bins 50/48 participate in the degradation of complex organic
426 matter resulting from the detritus of larger organisms. This matches the general model of
427 hypoxic zone oxygen consumption resulting from sinking organic matter provided by algal

428 blooms in surface waters (1). The observed activity of obligate fermentative groups
429 Parcubacteria and Peregrinibacteria also suggests that anoxic pockets occur in the water column
430 where these organisms can thrive.
431 The prevalence of MGII among lower oxygen samples in the hypoxic zone is somewhat
432 surprising, considering that they are commonly associated with aerobic environments (39).
433 However, oxygen was still present in even the lowest DO samples, and MGII success likely had
434 more to do with the carbon content than oxygen levels. These nGOM MGII appear to be
435 metabolically similar to those described in previous work: MGII have been shown to be
436 dominant in water column environments associated with blooms in productivity, for example at
437 deep-sea hydrothermal plumes (38). Thus, the increased availability of organic matter (proteins
438 and carbohydrates), thought to be preferred substrates for MGII (62, 63), probably explains their
439 abundance.
440 Members of the SAR406 clade have frequently been observed in OMZs (5, 25), and our
441 data now define roles for them in the eutrophication-driven hypoxia of the nGOM. Our genomes
442 had larger estimated genome sizes- 2.6-2.7 Mbp (Group A) and 2.8-3.5 Mbp (Group B)-
443 compared to 1.1-2.4 Mbp from single-cell genomes (28). Overall GC content, however, was in
444 the range of the 30-48% reported for fosmids (26) and single-cell genomes (28). The lower GC
445 Group A genomes specifically had a similar GC content to the Arctic96B-7 fosmids, matching
446 their predicted phylogenetic affiliation (see below) (26). Previous metabolic reconstructions of
447 SAR406 predicted aerobic metabolism (28) and sulfur reduction (26), which our data confirm,
448 although the sulfur reduction genes were only found in Group B organisms (Table S1). Our
449 genomes now also suggest multiple nitrogen cycling roles that appear to be organized by
450 sublineages within the phylum, and sublineage specific presence of both high and low affinity
451 cytochrome c oxidases. Specifically, Group B organisms contained both types of cytochrome c
452 oxidases, *nosZ* and *nrfAH* genes, whereas Group A organisms contained the low affinity
453 cytochrome c oxidases only, and additionally *narHI* genes not found in Group B. The unique
454 roles predicted for these taxa is not surprising given the diversity of the SAR406 clade and the
455 genetic distances between Group A and B (Fig. S4). Group A organisms were sister to the
456 Arctic96B-7 clade. Previous fosmids associated with this clade contained genes for oxidative
457 stress and sulfur reduction, although we only found sulfur reduction genes in the distantly related
458 Group B genomes. The ArcticB96-7 clade may be diverse enough to encompass differing
459 metabolic strategies, however the variable presence of *phsA* genes in this group may simply be
460 due to incomplete genomes (herein) and fosmids (26). The Group B organisms group with the
461 early diverging SBH1141 clade (26), for which no previous genome data exist. In addition to
462 sublineage-specific respiratory characteristics, our results also generate specific hypotheses about
463 organic matter metabolism in SAR406: likely degradation capacity for cellulose, starch, agar,
464 xylan, and peptidoglycan; transport of nucleosides, amino and fatty acids, and oligopeptides; and
465 substantial gene duplication associated with protein secretion for possible extracellular
466 metabolism. Together these data suggest that during nGOM hypoxia SAR406 members degrade

467 complex carbohydrates fueled by aerobic respiration, and supplemented with facultative
468 anaerobic respiration of nitrate, nitrite, or sulfur compounds.
469 Genome data for SAR202 have been lacking until recently. Landry and colleagues have
470 recently described the properties for several single-cell genomes representing subclades III and V
471 of SAR202 recovered from the mesopelagic (24). Our genomes have generally higher GC
472 content and much lower expected genome sizes than those predicted by Landry et al., although
473 these calculations are likely complicated by the relative incompleteness of the genomes (8-47%).
474 Their genomes indicated a role for SAR202 in the oxidation of recalcitrant dissolved organic
475 matter, and specifically cyclic alkanes, via flavin mononucleotide monooxygenases (FMNOs)
476 and different dehydrogenases that occurred in paralogous groups (24). We observed many of the
477 same gene expansions, namely that of MFS transporters and short-chain dehydrogenases (and
478 related genes), but we did not recover any FMNOs of SFams 4832 or 4965, suggesting subclade
479 and/or niche-specific adaptations. Furthermore, we observed *napAB* and *nosZ* genes for nitrate
480 and nitrous oxide reduction (and expression of these genes), which were not reported for
481 subclade III or V. The nGOM hypoxia SAR202 genomes had CAZy genes implicating them in
482 degradation of complex compounds such as chitin and pectin. The emerging picture of these taxa
483 from both shallow hypoxic waters and the mesopelagic is one of recalcitrant carbon degraders,
484 with overlapping suites of paralogous genes, but that may be specialized for specific compounds
485 more commonly available in their respective habitats.
486 This study has also developed roles for CP taxa in a shallow marine water column during
487 hypoxia. The most active organism in our survey based on the ratio of RNA to DNA reads
488 recruited, Bin 13, putatively belongs to a group with little genomic data- ACD39. The original
489 ACD39 genome was reconstructed from an aquifer community (33). Although this was only a
490 partial genome, it shared some features with our putative ACD39 member, namely pilin and
491 chemotaxis genes, those containing TPR and tetratricopeptide repeats, and CAZy genes for
492 degradation of complex compounds such as starch (33). Our study provides evidence that these
493 taxa have relatively large genomes (~4.8 Mbp), are active aerobes in nGOM hypoxia, and have
494 chemotaxis and motility genes that could facilitate scavenging and surface attachment. However,
495 most of the highly expressed genes in this organism were annotated as hypothetical proteins, so
496 much of the function of these organisms remains to be uncovered.
497 Bins 50 and 48 provide novel genome data for bacterioplankton in nGOM hypoxia,
498 although the exact taxonomic position of these bins remains in conflict. The ribosomal protein
499 tree provides evidence that these taxa belong to the Latescibacteria (WS3) (Fig. S1), but 16S
500 rRNA genes (Fig. S6) and our amplicon data point toward membership in the more poorly
501 understood PAUC34f clade. Since no previous genome data exist for PAUC34f, we cannot rule
502 out erroneous assignment in the ribosomal protein tree due to insufficient taxon selection. Bins
503 50 and 48 represented the largest genomes of the study, with estimated complete sizes of ~5-6
504 Mbp, and numerous genes suggesting degradation of a wider suite of complex organic matter
505 than any of the other genomes examined. For example, they were the only genomes with
506 numerous polysaccharide lyase genes, and these likely facilitate breakdown of algal cell wall

507 components like pectin and alginate. The Bin 50 genome was among the most active across all
508 samples (Fig. 3), and we detected expression of cytochrome c oxidase genes, and those for
509 DNRA, in both the Bin 50 and 48 genomes. Thus we expect these organisms to play a role in the
510 breakdown of algal detritus through respiration of oxygen, with nitrite as an alternative electron
511 sink.
512 If these bins belong to PAUC34f, they represent the first genomic data for the group.
513 Although originally discovered, and commonly found, in marine sponges (32, 64-66), this
514 putative bacterial phylum (via GreenGenes/SILVA) has been detected as a rare group in other
515 marine invertebrates (67) and stream sediment (68), and we identified 18 distinct but rare
516 PAUC34f OTUs in nGOM hypoxia, compared to just three from WS3 (21). Although the
517 majority of studies suggest an endosymbiotic lifestyle for PAUC34f, our representative genome
518 data point towards a free-living existence with multiple terminal electron accepting processes,
519 motility genes for seeking more favorable conditions, and a large metabolic repertoire for
520 degradation of complex compounds. On the other hand, if these genomes represent WS3, the
521 sister clade to PAUC34f (Fig. S6), they have many similarities to the lifestyles inferred from
522 recent metagenomic investigations (69, 70). Specifically, while this group was previously
523 considered anaerobic (69), new data have supported an aerobic lifestyle for some members (59),
524 and revealed complete electron transport chains and both high and low affinity cytochrome c
525 oxidases (70). The Bin 50 and 48 genomes predict aerobic metabolism as well, although only
526 with low affinity cytochrome c oxidases. Farag et al. also found little evidence of these taxa in
527 host-associated environments, contrary to PAUC34f sequence data (70). The enrichment of PL
528 family genes in Bins 50 and 48, polysaccharide degradation capability in general, and specific
529 genes for degradation of cell wall components, all corroborate previous findings on WS3 as well
530 (70). Bin 50 had 78 annotated peptidases, nearly double that in all other genomes in the study
531 (Bin 48 had 46), which also concurs with metagenomic predictions for WS3 (70). Our genomes
532 differed from WS3 metagenomes principally in the predicted DNRA metabolism and the
533 dramatic expansion of sulfatases. Although sulfatases were observed in WS3 metagenomes (70),
534 they were not present in the numbers associated with Bin 50 (n=102). A large cadre of sulfatases
535 has been previously reported for *Lentisphaera* (n=267) and *Pirellula* (n=110) genomes (71, 72)
536 and suggests specialization for degradation of sulfate-esters to satisfy carbon and/or sulfur
537 requirements.
538 Although Parcubacteria and Peregrinibacteria occurred in low abundance and we detected
539 activity in only a few samples, their recovery in the hypoxic zone is notable because these
540 organisms have generally been associated with anoxic environments. Our predicted genome sizes
541 (~1.5 Mbp) corroborate previous reports of these organisms having small genomes (31, 59). We
542 did not observe any genes associated with nitrogen or sulfur redox transitions, although we
543 cannot rule these capabilities entirely due to incomplete genomes. Regardless, we can
544 hypothesize that Parcubacteria and Peregrinibacteria persist as members of the rare biosphere
545 until they can take advantage of microanoxic niches in the water column where they participate
546 in carbon cycling as obligately fermentative organisms.

547
548 ***Conclusions***
549 Our study helps define the metabolism for many of the most enigmatic organisms observed in
550 cultivation-independent studies during nGOM hypoxia. We also provide new information about
551 sublineage specific attributes for the important cosmopolitan marine clades SAR406 and
552 SAR202, for which previous metabolic information has been limited. Notably, although
553 Parcubacteria and Peregrinibacteria likely subsist via an obligate anaerobic lifestyle, the
554 remaining uncultivated groups in the nGOM hypoxic zone had one or more genomes that
555 encoded cytochrome c oxidases (and other electron transport chain components) for respiring
556 oxygen, making these taxa likely only facultative anaerobes. Pervasive aerobic metabolism in an
557 oxygen-depleted water column may seem counterintuitive, yet despite DO being as low as 2.2
558 $\mu$mol $kg^{-1}$ in the E2A sample, oxygen probably remained high enough to sustain aerobic
559 microbes. As little as ~0.3 $\mu$mol $kg^{-1}$ oxygen inhibited denitrification in OMZ populations by
560 50% (73), and even *Eschericia coli* K-12 could grow aerobically at oxygen concentrations as low
561 as 3 nM (74). Thus, for many organisms, active aerobic respiration likely persists even in
562 suboxic waters. Nevertheless, our data also suggests pervasive co-reduction of alternative
563 terminal electron acceptors (oxygen, nitrate, nitrite, nitrous oxide, and sulfur), sometimes within
564 the same organism (Fig. 4). Co-reduction of electron acceptors with different redox potentials
565 across a community could indicate microniches and/or aggregates in the water column where DO
566 concentrations drop below bulk values (50). Alternatively this can occur with an abundance of
567 electron donor, and overlapping redox processes have been reported in multiple environments,
568 including aquatic ones (61, 75). Concurrent expression of genes for multiple terminal electron
569 accepting processes within a single organism has been proposed as a means of improved
570 readiness for dynamic conditions, albeit at the cost of lower productivity (50). Given that many
571 uncultivated taxa likely perform multiple terminal electron accepting processes (and possibly do
572 so simultaneously), and we found a comparative cornucopia of genes for degradation of
573 chemoorganohetrotrophic energy sources, we hypothesize that niche differentiation within
574 uncultivated hypoxic zone bacterioplankton occurs predominantly via specialization for different
575 oxidizable substrates rather than for distinct roles in the canonical redox cascade (4, 5).
576 Importantly, many of the active uncultivated taxa also appeared adapted for degradation of
577 complex carbon substrates. Such compounds might comprise the bulk of available organic matter
578 during the later stages of hypoxia after initial oxygen depletion by microorganisms feeding on
579 more labile carbon sources. Selection for chemoorganotrophic microbes adapted to utilize
580 recalcitrant organic matter could also explain why organisms that do not require an exogenous
581 carbon source, such as the chemolithoautotrophic *Nitrosopumilus*, proliferate during hypoxia
582 (21, 22) compared to their levels during spring before DO decreases (76, 77). Temporal data on
583 the relative abundance and activity of these organisms, and of organic matter composition in the
584 water column, will be critical to more fully understand the relationship of bacterioplankton to the
585 creation, maintenance, and dissolution of nGOM hypoxia.
586

587
588 **Materials and Methods**
589 *Sample selection and nucleic acid processing.* Six samples representing hypoxic (n=4) and oxic
590 (n=2) DO concentrations were picked from among those previously reported (21) at stations D1,
591 D2, D3, E2, E2A, and E4 (Table S1). DO, and nutrient collection information is detailed in
592 Gillies et al., 2015. Nucleic acids were collected as follows: At these six stations 10 L of
593 seawater was collected and filtered with a peristaltic pump. A 2.7 µM Whatman GF/D pre-filter
594 was used and samples were concentrated on 0.22 µM Sterivex filters (EMD Millipore). Sterivex
595 filters were immediately sparged, filled with RNAlater, and placed at -20˚C, at which they were
596 maintained until extraction. DNA and RNA were extracted directly off of the filter by placing
597 half of the Sterivex filter in a Lysing matrix E (LME) glass/zirconia/silica beads Tube (MP
598 Biomedicals, Santa Ana, CA) using the protocol described in Gillies *et al.* (2015) which
599 combines phenol:chloroform:isoamyalcohol (25:24:1) and bead beating. Genomic DNA and
600 RNA were stored at -80°C until purified. DNA and RNA were purified using QIAGEN
601 (Valencia, CA) AllPrep DNA/RNA Kit. DNA quantity was determined using a Qubit2.0
602 Fluorometer (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY). RNA with an RNA integrity number (RIN)
603 (16S/23S rRNA ratio determined with the Agilent TapeStation) ≥ 8 (on a scale of 1-10, with 1
604 being degraded and 10 being undegraded RNA) was selected for metatranscriptomic sequencing.
605 Using a Ribo-Zero kit (Illumina) rRNA was subtracted from total RNA. Subsequently, mRNA
606 was reverse transcribed to cDNA as described in Mason *et al.* (2012) (78).
607
608 *Sequencing, assembly, and binning.* DNA and RNA were sequenced separately, six samples per
609 lane, with Illumina HiSeq 2000 chemistry to generate 100 bp, paired-end reads (180 bp insert
610 size) at the Argonne National Laboratory Next Generation Sequencing facility. The data are
611 available at the NCBI SRA repository under the BioSample accession numbers
612 SAMN05791315-SAMN05791320 (DNA) and SAMN05791321-SAMN05791326 (RNA).
613 DNA sequencing resulted in a total of 416,924,120 reads that were quality trimmed to
614 413,094,662 reads after adaptors were removed using Scythe
615 (https://github.com/vsbuffalo/scythe), and low-quality reads (Q < 30) were trimmed with Sickle
616 (https://github.com/najoshi/sickle). Reads with three or more Ns or with average quality score of
617 less than Q20 and a length < 50 bps were removed. Genomes were reconstructed using two
618 rounds of assembly. Metagenomic reads from all six samples were pooled, assembled, and
619 binned using previously described methods (79, 80). Briefly, quality filtered reads were
620 assembled with IDBA-UD (81) on a 1TB RAM, 40-core node at the LSU High Performance
621 Computing cluster SuperMikeII, using the following settings: -mink 65 –maxk 105 –step 10 –
622 pre_correction –seed_kmer 55. Initial binning of the assembled fragments was performed using
623 tetra-nucleotide frequency signatures using 5 kbp fragments of the contigs. Emergent self-
624 organizing maps (ESOM) were manually delineated and curated based on clusters within the
625 map (Fig. S8, S9). The primary assembly utilized all reads and produced 28,080 contigs ≥ 3 kb
626 totaling 217,715,956 bp. Of these, 303 contigs were over 50 kb, 72 over 100 kb, and the largest

627 contig was just under 495 kb. Binning produced 76 genomes, of which 20 genomes were
628 assigned to lineages with uncultivated representatives using CheckM, ribosomal protein trees,
629 and 16S rRNA gene sequences (below).
630
631 *DNA and RNA mapping.* Metagenomic and metatranscriptomic sequencing reads from each
632 sample were separately mapped to binned contigs using BWA (82) to compare bin abundance
633 across samples and facilitate bin cleanup (below). Contigs within each bin were concatenated
634 into a single fasta sequence and BWA was used to map the reads from each sample to all bins.
635 All commands used for these steps are available in supplementary information.
636
637 *Bin QC.* Bins were examined for contamination and completeness with CheckM (35), and we
638 attempted to clean bins with > 10% estimated contamination using a combination of methods.
639 First, the CheckM modify command removed contigs determined to be outliers by GC content,
640 coding density, and tetranucleotide frequency. Next, in bins that still showed > 10%
641 contamination, contigs were separated according to comparative relative abundance of mean
642 DNA read coverage by sample. Final bins were evaluated with CheckM again to generate the
643 statistics in Table S1 and final bin placements in the CheckM concatenated gene tree (Fig. S2).
644
645 *Ribosomal protein tree.* The concatenated ribosomal protein tree was generated using 16
646 syntenic genes that have been shown to undergo limited lateral gene transfer (rpL2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 14,
647 15, 16, 18, 22, 24 and rpS3, 8, 10, 17, 19) (83). Ribosomal proteins for each bin were identified
648 with Phylosift (84). Amino acid alignments of the individual ribosomal proteins were generated
649 using MUSCLE (85) and trimmed using BMGE (86) (with the following settings: -m
650 BLOSUM30 –g 0.5). The curated alignments were then concatenated for phylogenetic analyses
651 and phylogeny inferred via RAxML v 8.2.8 (87) with 100 bootstrap runs (with the following
652 settings: mpirun -np 4 -npernode 1 raxmlHPC-HYBRID-AVX -f a -m PROTCATLG -T 16 -p
653 12345 -x 12345 -# 100). Note this is similar to the number utilized in a previous publication for
654 this tree with automated bootstrapping (88), and required just over 56 hours of wall clock time.
655 The alignment is available in SI.
656
657 *Average amino acid identity*. AAI was calculated with Get Homologues (89) v. 02032017, with
658 the following settings: –M –t 0 –n 16 –A.
659
660 *Taxonomic assignment*. Taxonomy for each bin was assigned primarily using the ribosomal
661 protein tree. However, for bins that did not have enough ribosomal proteins to be included in the
662 tree, or for which the placement within the tree was poorly supported, assignments were made
663 based on the concatenated marker gene tree as part of the CheckM analysis (Fig. S2), or via 16S
664 rRNA gene sequences, when available. 16S rRNA genes were identified via CheckM, and these
665 sequences were aligned against the NCBI nr database using BLASTN to corroborate CheckM
666 assignments. In the case of the SAR202 genomes, which did not have representative genomes in

667 either the ribosomal protein tree or the CheckM tree, the 16S rRNA gene sequences for two of
668 the three bins (43-1, 43-2) were available and aligned with the sequences used to define the
669 SAR202 clade (23) (Fig. S5). Alignment, culling, and inference were completed with MUSCLE
670 (85), Gblocks (90), and FastTree2 (91), respectively, with the FT_pipe script. The script is
671 provided in SI. The 16S rRNA gene tree for subclade assignment of SAR406 (Fig. S4) was
672 assembled by blasting the four 16S sequences predicted by CheckM against a local GenBank nt
673 database using blastn (v. 2.2.28+) (92), selected the top 100 non-redundant hits to each sequence,
674 and manually removing all hits to genome sequences. These were combined with previously
675 defined SAR406 subclade reference sequences (25), fosmid 16S sequences (26), single-cell
676 genome sequences (28), and run through alignment, culling, and inference with FT_pipe. Taxa
677 with identical alignments were removed with RAxML v 8.2.8 (87) using default settings, and the
678 final tree was inferred using FastTree2 (91). For putative CP genomes, taxonomy was also
679 evaluated by examining the taxonomic identification for each of the predicted protein sequences
680 after a BLASTP search against the NCBI nr database. Post-blast, the number of assignments to
681 the dominant one or two taxonomic names, along with the number of assignments to "uncultured
682 bacterium," was plotted for each genome according to the bit score quartile (Fig. S3). Quartiles
683 were determined in R using the summary function. Bin 56 has two ribosomal protein operons on
684 scaffold_2719/Ga0113622_1153 and scaffold_21777/Ga0113622_1009. In the ribosomal protein
685 tree, the former placed the organism in the *Planctomycetaceae*, while the latter (which was much
686 smaller) placed the organism in CP WS3. The majority of BLASTP annotations to the nr
687 database matched *Planctomycetaceae* taxa, as did the 16S rRNA gene sequences found in the
688 genome, so Bin 56 organism was designated a Planctomycetes and not WS3, and excluded from
689 this study. The 16S rRNA gene from Bin 50 was also used to infer taxonomic identity using and
690 established phylogeny for the WS3 clade (70) and relevant outgroups. The Bin 50 sequence was
691 blasted against the greengenes database (Dec. 2013) with megablast, and since many of the top
692 hits belonged to the PAUC34f clade, these were included with the sequences from Farag et al.
693 2017. Alignment, culling, and inference was completed with FT_pipe. Node labels were
694 constructed with the newick utilities (93) script nw_rename.
695
696 *Metabolic reconstruction*. Post-binning, genomes were submitted individually to IMG (94) for
697 annotation. Genome accession numbers are in Table S1, and all are publically available.
698 Metabolic reconstruction found in Table S1 and Figs S5-7/ S11-13, came from these annotations
699 and inspection with IMG's analysis tools, including KEGG pathway assignments and transporter
700 predictions. Transporters highlighted for DOM uptake were identified based on information at
701 the Transporter Classification Database (95). Carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes) were
702 predicted using the same routines as those in operation for the updates of the carbohydrate-active
703 enzymes database (www.cazy.org) (96).
704
705 *RPKM abundance of taxa and genes.* Abundance of taxa within the sample was quantified by
706 evaluating mapped reads using Reads-Per-Kilobase-Per-Million (RPKM) normalization (97)

707 according to $A_{ij} = (N_{ij}/L_i) \times (1/T_j)$, where $A_{ij}$ is the abundance of bin $i$ in sample $j$, $N_{ij}$ is the
708 number of reads that map to bin from sample $j$, $L_i$ is the length of bin $i$ in kilobases, and $T_j$ is the
709 total number of reads in sample $j$ divided by $10^6$. These values were generated for all bins, with
710 only the data for the 20 uncultivated bins reported here. All contigs within a given bin were
711 artificially concatenated into "supercontigs" prior to mapping. $N_{ij}$ was generated using the
712 samtools (82) idxstats function after mapping with BWA. The data in Fig. S7 were created by
713 summing $(N_{ij}/L_i)$ for groups of taxa defined in Table S1 prior to multiplying by $(1/T_j)$. RNA
714 coverage was used to evaluate both bin and gene activity for all bins. Mean coverage for each
715 supercontig was calculated using bedtools (98) and bins were assigned a rank from lowest mean
716 recruitment (1) to highest mean recruitment (2). Bins with particularly high or low activity
717 (transcript abundance) relative to their abundance (genome abundance) were identified using
718 rank-residuals, calculated as follows: On a plot of DNA coverage rank vs. RNA coverage rank,
719 residuals for each bin or gene were calculated from the identity. As the rank-residuals followed a
720 Gaussian distribution, bins with a residual that was > 1 s.d. from the rank-residual mean were
721 classified as having higher-than-expected transcriptional activity; bins with a residual that was <
722 1 s.d. from the mean were classified as having lower-than-expected transcriptional activity.
723 RPKM values were also calculated for every gene in every bin analogously to that for bins, using
724 RNA mapping values extracted with the bedtools multicov function. Sample E2 was omitted
725 from gene-specific calculations as only 4588 transcriptomic reads mapped successfully from this
726 sample, compared to >100,000 from other samples. 17,827 of 140,347 genes had no evidence of
727 expression in any sample and so were removed from further analysis. 3,840 genes recruited reads
728 in all remaining samples. All calculations are available in Table S1 or the R markdown document
729 Per.gene.RPKM.Rmd in Supplemental Information. Table S1 includes only analyzed data for the
730 uncultivated bins reported in this study. Note that RPKM values indicate abundance
731 measurements across a small number of samples. While we can evaluate the relative expression
732 of genes for those samples, our dataset lacks sufficient power to evaluate estimates of
733 significance in differential expression.
734
735 *nrfA sequence assessment.* Initial annotation of our bins identified putative homologs to the
736 *nrfAH* genes associated with dissimilatory nitrite reduction to ammonia. Since *nrfA*-type nitrite
737 reductases can be misannotated due to homology with other nitrite reductases, annotation for
738 these genes was curated with phylogenetic analysis using known *nrfA* genes (48) (Fig. 3)
739 obtained via Dr. Welsh (personal communication). Alignment, culling, and inference were
740 completed with the FT_pipe script. The tree was rooted on the designated outgroup octaheme
741 nitrite reductase sequence from *Thioalkalivibrio nitratireducens* ONR. Node labels were
742 constructed with the newick utilities (93) script nw_rename. Visualization of the alignment (Fig.
743 S9) to confirm the presence of the first CXXCK/CXXCH and highly conserved KXQH/KXRH
744 catalytic site was completed with the MSAViewer (99) online using the un-culled *nrfA* alignment
745 as input.
746

747 *SFam homology searches.* To identify group specific expansions in particular gene families, we
748 performed a homology search of all predicted protein coding sequences in each bin against the
749 Sifted Families (SFam) database (51) using hmmsearch (HMMER 3.1b (100)) with default
750 settings except for the utilization of 16 cpus per search.
751
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767
768 **Author contributions**
769 JCT and OUM designed the study. LEG, NNR, and JCT collected samples. NNR provided
770 processed oceanographic data. LEG and OUM extracted, quantified, and determined quality of
771 nucleic acids. JCT, KWS, and BJB reconstructed the genomes. KWS, BJB, BT, BH, and JCT
772 conducted downstream analyses. JCT led manuscript writing and all co-authors evaluated and
773 contributed edits.
774
775 **Competing financial interests**
776 The authors declare no competing financial interests.
777

778 **Table 1.** Genome characteristics for the 20 bins associated with uncultivated lineages.
779

| IMG Genome ID | Bin Id | Taxonomy | Compl % | Contam % | Strain het. | Scaff. | Longest scaff. (bp) | Size (bp) | Genes | GC (fract.) | Coding density (fract.) | Estim. Compl. Size (Mbp) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **2651870035** | **43-1** | Chloroflexi (SAR202) | 90.3 | 0 | 0 | 69 | 161242 | 1972793 | 1882 | 0.52 | 0.88 | 2.2 |
| **2651870036** | **43-2** | Chloroflexi (SAR202) | 88.6 | 4.1 | 15.4 | 134 | 157345 | 2402386 | 2373 | 0.52 | 0.91 | 2.7 |
| **2651870034** | **43** | Chloroflexi (SAR202) | 83.2 | 0.1 | 100 | 179 | 90503 | 2475308 | 2392 | 0.53 | 0.89 | 3.0 |
| **2693429801** | **45** | Marinimicrobia (SAR406) –B | 89.8 | 5.5 | 71.4 | 124 | 105140 | 2811623 | 2487 | 0.47 | 0.93 | 3.1 |
| **2651870052** | **45-1** | Marinimicrobia (SAR406) –B | 85.2 | 0.1 | 100 | 144 | 100582 | 2410233 | 2235 | 0.49 | 0.93 | 2.8 |
| **2693429802** | **45-2** | Marinimicrobia (SAR406) –B | 79.3 | 1.8 | 12.5 | 287 | 61408 | 2811444 | 2554 | 0.46 | 0.94 | 3.5 |
| **2651870053** | **51-1** | Marinimicrobia (SAR406) –A | 73.6 | 1.7 | 50 | 75 | 191525 | 1901306 | 1835 | 0.39 | 0.95 | 2.6 |
| **2651870051** | **51** | Marinimicrobia (SAR406) –A | 21.3 | 0 | 0 | 115 | 16923 | 578802 | 686 | 0.41 | 0.95 | 2.7 |
| **2651870038** | **15** | Euryarchaeota (MGII) | 83.2 | 1.6 | 0 | 43 | 255599 | 1885130 | 1614 | 0.62 | 0.95 | 2.3 |
| **2651870039** | **17** | Euryarchaeota (MGII) | 81.9 | 0.1 | 50 | 88 | 137319 | 1803861 | 1564 | 0.43 | 0.96 | 2.2 |
| **2651870037** | **14** | Euryarchaeota (MGII) | 71.2 | 0.8 | 100 | 80 | 90069 | 1389909 | 1305 | 0.54 | 0.94 | 2.0 |
| **2651870040** | **18** | Euryarchaeota (MGII) | 61.1 | 0.8 | 100 | 155 | 20633 | 1033226 | 1025 | 0.50 | 0.96 | 1.7 |
| **2651870042** | **38** | Euryarchaeota (MGII) | 27.1 | 0 | 0 | 138 | 12893 | 615290 | 610 | 0.55 | 0.96 | 2.3 |
| **2651870041** | **17-1** | Euryarchaeota (MGII) | 16.6 | 2.8 | 33.3 | 123 | 16952 | 538052 | 566 | 0.41 | 0.95 | 3.2 |
| **2693429807** | **13** | Unclassified (ACD39) | 89.8 | 5.1 | 20 | 401 | 75104 | 4269849 | 3686 | 0.47 | 0.93 | 4.8 |
| **2693429799** | **40** | Parcubacteria (OD1) | 71.9 | 15.1 | 75 | 97 | 65104 | 1086283 | 1208 | 0.52 | 0.92 | 1.5 |
| **2693429797** | **16** | Peregrinibacteria | 83.2 | 0.3 | 100 | 67 | 59308 | 1384712 | 1318 | 0.39 | 0.93 | 1.7 |
| **2693429798** | **39** | Peregrinibacteria | 49.9 | 0.3 | 100 | 131 | 18806 | 747520 | 809 | 0.45 | 0.95 | 1.5 |
| **2693429804** | **50** | Unclassified (PAUC34f) | 84.8 | 1.4 | 0 | 455 | 76269 | 5346994 | 5484 | 0.58 | 0.92 | 6.3 |
| **2693429803** | **48** | Unclassified (PAUC34f) | 51.9 | 2.2 | 0 | 470 | 20176 | 2566149 | 2596 | 0.55 | 0.94 | 4.9 |

780
781

782 **Figure 1.** Metabolic reconstruction of Marine Group II Euryarchaeota, SAR406, and SAR202,
783 based on the top three or four most complete genomes. Colors indicate pathway elements based
784 on the number of genomes in which they were recovered, according to the key. Black outlines
785 and/or arrows indicate genes that were not observed. Numbers correspond to annotations
786 supplied in Table S2.
787
788 **Figure 2.** Metabolic reconstruction of the Candidate Phylum members PAUC34f, Parcubacteria
789 (OD1), Peregrinibacteria, and ACD39 (Bin 13). Colors indicate pathway elements based on the
790 number of genomes in which they were recovered, according to the key. Black outlines and/or
791 arrows indicate genes that were not observed. Numbers correspond to annotations supplied in
792 Table S2.
793
794 **Figure 3.** Relative DNA to RNA recruitment rank for each genome, by sample. Colors indicate
795 the relative difference in the ratio of rank based on total RNA and DNA mapping. Red indicates
796 a higher RNA recruitment rank compared to DNA recruitment rank, and vice-versa for blue. +
797 and - symbols indicate bins where the rank-residual from the identity in RNA vs. DNA read
798 mapping was more or less than one standard deviation beyond 0, respectively. Dendrograms
799 were calculated using an Unweighted Pair Group Method with Arithmetic Mean (UPGMA) from
800 Euclidian distances of rank residuals across all samples and bins.
801
802 **Figure 4.** Expression of predicted respiratory genes. RPKM values of RNA recruitment for each
803 gene, by sample, are depicted with colors according to the key (yellow to blue follows increasing
804 intensity). Genes are grouped by bin, taxonomic affiliation, and specific respiratory process.
805 DNRA- dissimilatory nitrite reduction to ammonia.
806
807 **Figure 5.** Expression of predicted CAZy genes. RPKM values or RNA recruitment for each
808 gene, by sample, are depicted with colors according to the key (yellow to red follows increasing
809 intensity). Genes are grouped by bin, taxonomic affiliation, and general CAZy categories. CE-
810 carbohydrate esterase; GH- glycoside hydrolase; GT- glycosyltransferase; CBM- carbohydrate
811 binding module.
812
813
814

Supplemental Information

**Table S1.** Spreadsheet (Table_S1.xlsx) containing information on taxonomy, CheckM results, IMG statistics, partial metabolic reconstruction, transporter classifications, CAZy predictions, sample chemical data, RPKM values and gene neighborhoods for WS3 cytochrome c oxidases and *nrfA* genes from SAR406 and WS3.

**Table S2.** Gene annotations associated with Figures 1 and 2. Numbers correspond to those in the figures.

**Figure S1.** Maximum likelihood tree of concatenated ribosomal protein coding genes. Values at internal nodes indicate bootstrap support (n=100). Scale bar indicates changes per position.

**Figure S2.** Phylogenetic placement of bins based on CheckM.

**Figure S3.** Annotations of protein-coding gene sequence best blastp hits in the nr database, divided into quartiles by bit score, for CP bacteria.

**Figure S4.** SAR406 16S rRNA gene phylogeny. Genes recovered from assembled bins have 45* or 51* designations. Values at nodes indicate Shimodaira-Hasegawa "like" values (91). Scale bar indicates changes per position.

**Figure S5.** SAR202 16S rRNA gene phylogeny. Genes recovered from assembled bins are indicated as 43-*. Subclades are designated according to Morris et al. 2004, and the tree is rooted according to Figure 1 in that publication. Values at nodes indicate Shimodaira-Hasegawa "like" values (91). Scale bar indicates changes per position.

**Figure S6.** 16S rRNA gene phylogeny of the WS3 clade (70) with added PAUC34f sequences from the GreenGenes database and the Bin 50 sequence. Tree is rooted on the Archaea according to Fig. S1 in Farag et al. 2017. Values at nodes indicate Shimodaira-Hasegawa "like" values (91). Scale bar indicates changes per position.

**Figure S7.** Metagenomic RPKM values for each group, comprised of aggregated values for each bin within the group. Values are plotted according to sample and colored according to the dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration from where the sample was taken.

**Figure S8.** Phylogenetic tree of predicted *nrfA* genes in SAR406 and WS3. Additional taxa are from Figure 3 in Welch et al., 2014. The tree was rooted at the midpoint. Values at nodes indicate Shimodaira-Hasegawa "like" values (91). Scale bar indicates changes per position.

855 **Figure S9.** Conserved catalytic motifs within the *nrfA* gene. A- black square surrounds the first
856 heme-binding CXXCK/CXXCH motif. B- black square surrounds the catalytic KXQH/KXRH
857 motif. The alignment follows highlighting found in Welsh *et al.*, 2014 (48). All genes numbers
858 from this study are indicated as 26536*, corresponding to rows 64 and 66-68.
859
860 **Additional Supplemental Information** such as scripts, workflows, and key files, including fasta
861 files for each tree, are provided as a link hosted at the Thrash Lab website:
862 http://thethrashlab.com/publications.
863
864

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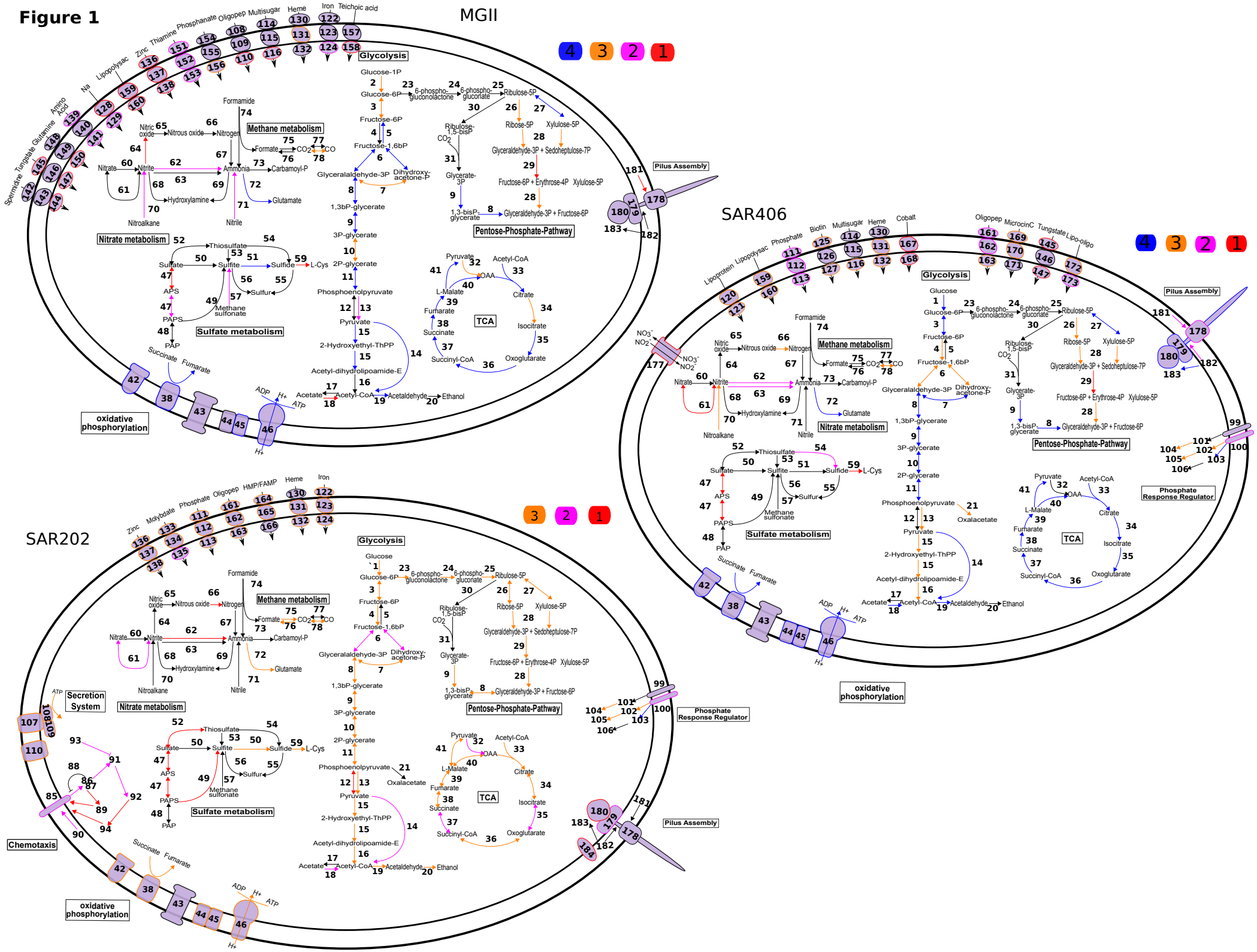
**Figure 1**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TCA
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Phosphate Response Regulator
Secretion System
Chemotaxis
oxidative phosphorylation
Glucose-1P
Glucose-6P
6-phospho-gluconolactone
6-phospho-gluconate
Ribulose-5P
Ribose-5P
Xylulose-5P
Glyceraldehyde-3P + Sedoheptulose-7P
Fructose-6P + Erythrose-4P
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Fructose-1,6bP
Glyceralaldehyde-3P
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3P-glycerate
2P-glycerate
Phosphoenolpyruvate
Pyruvate
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Acetaldehyde
Ethanol
Formamide
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Hydroxylamine
Nitroalkane
Nitrile
Thiosulfate
Sulfate
Sulfite
Sulfide
L-Cys
Sulfur
APS
PAPS
PAP
Methane sulfonate
Succinate
Fumarate
Succinyl-CoA
Oxoglutarate
Isocitrate
Citrate
OAA
L-Malate
Acetyl-CoA
Oxalacetate
Glucose
Cobalt
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Biotin
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Lipopolysac
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Multisugar
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Iron
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Amino Acid
Glutamine
Tungstate
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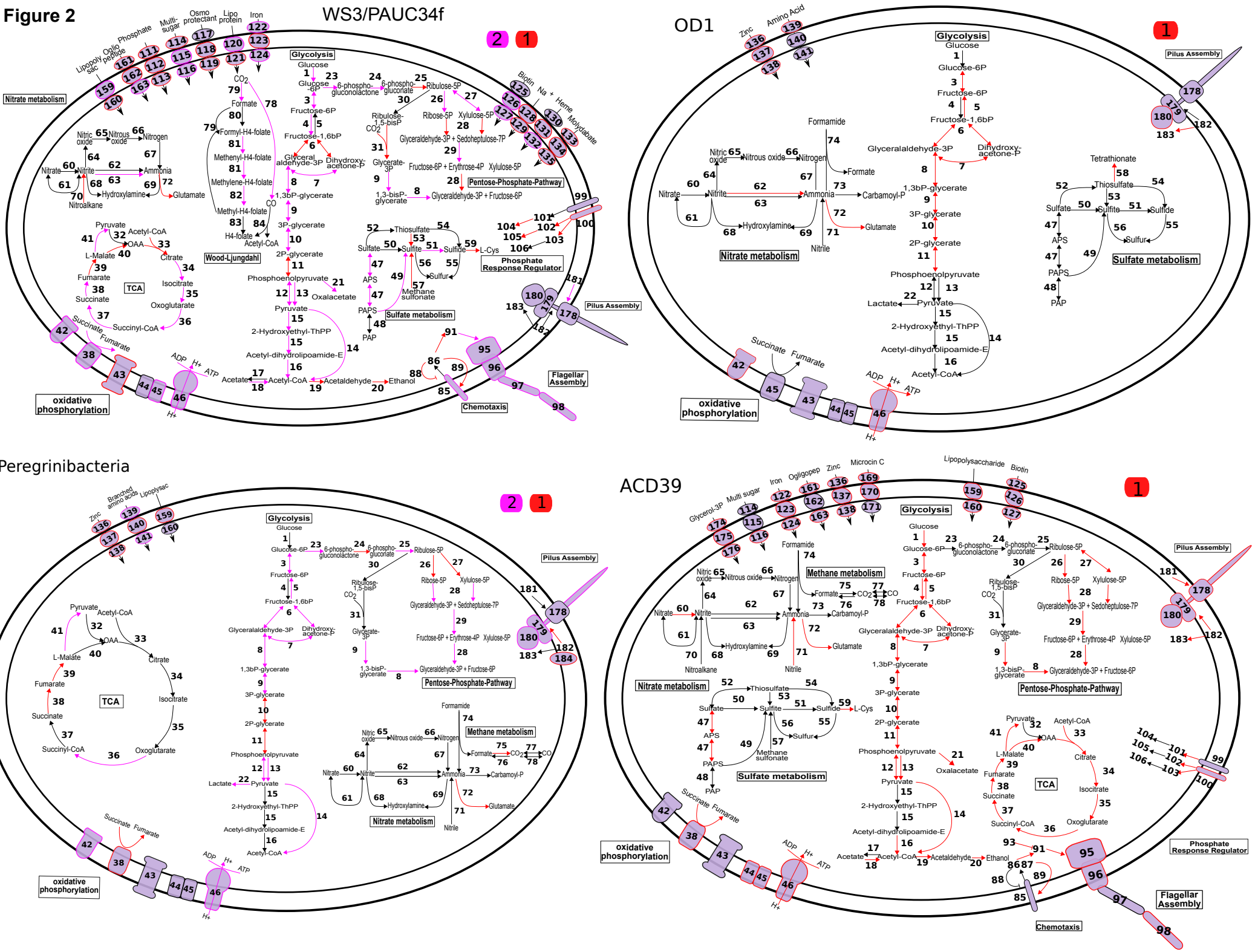
H+
ATP

**Figure 2**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TCA
Nitrate metabolism
Sulfate metabolism
Phosphate Response Regulator
Pilus Assembly
Flagellar Assembly
Chemotaxis
oxidative phosphorylation
Methane metabolism
Glucose
Glucose-6P
Fructose-6P
Fructose-1,6bP
Glyceralaldehyde-3P
Dihydroxy-acetone-P
1,3bP-glycerate
3P-glycerate
2P-glycerate
Phosphoenolpyruvate
Pyruvate
2-Hydroxyethyl-ThPP
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Acetate
Acetaldehyde
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Formate
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Nitrite
Ammonia
Nitrogen
Nitrous oxide
Nitric oxide
Hydroxylamine
Glutamate
Nitroalkane
Nitrile
Formamide
Carbamoyl-P
Lactate
Succinate
Fumarate
Succinyl-CoA
Oxoglutarate
Isocitrate
Citrate
L-Malate
OAA
Pyruvate
Acetyl-CoA
Ribulose-5P
Ribose-5P
Xylulose-5P
Glyceraldehyde-3P + Sedoheptulose-7P
Fructose-6P + Erythrose-4P
Xylulose-5P
Glyceraldehyde-3P + Fructose-6P
Ribulose-1,5-bisP
Glycerate-3P
1,3-bisP-glycerate
Thiosulfate
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Sulfite
Sulfide
L-Cys
Sulfur
Methane sulfonate
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PAPS
PAP
Tetrathionate
Lipopolysac
Oglio peptide
Phosphate
Multi-sugar
Osmo protectant
Lipo protein
Iron
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Na + Heme
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Zinc
Amino Acid
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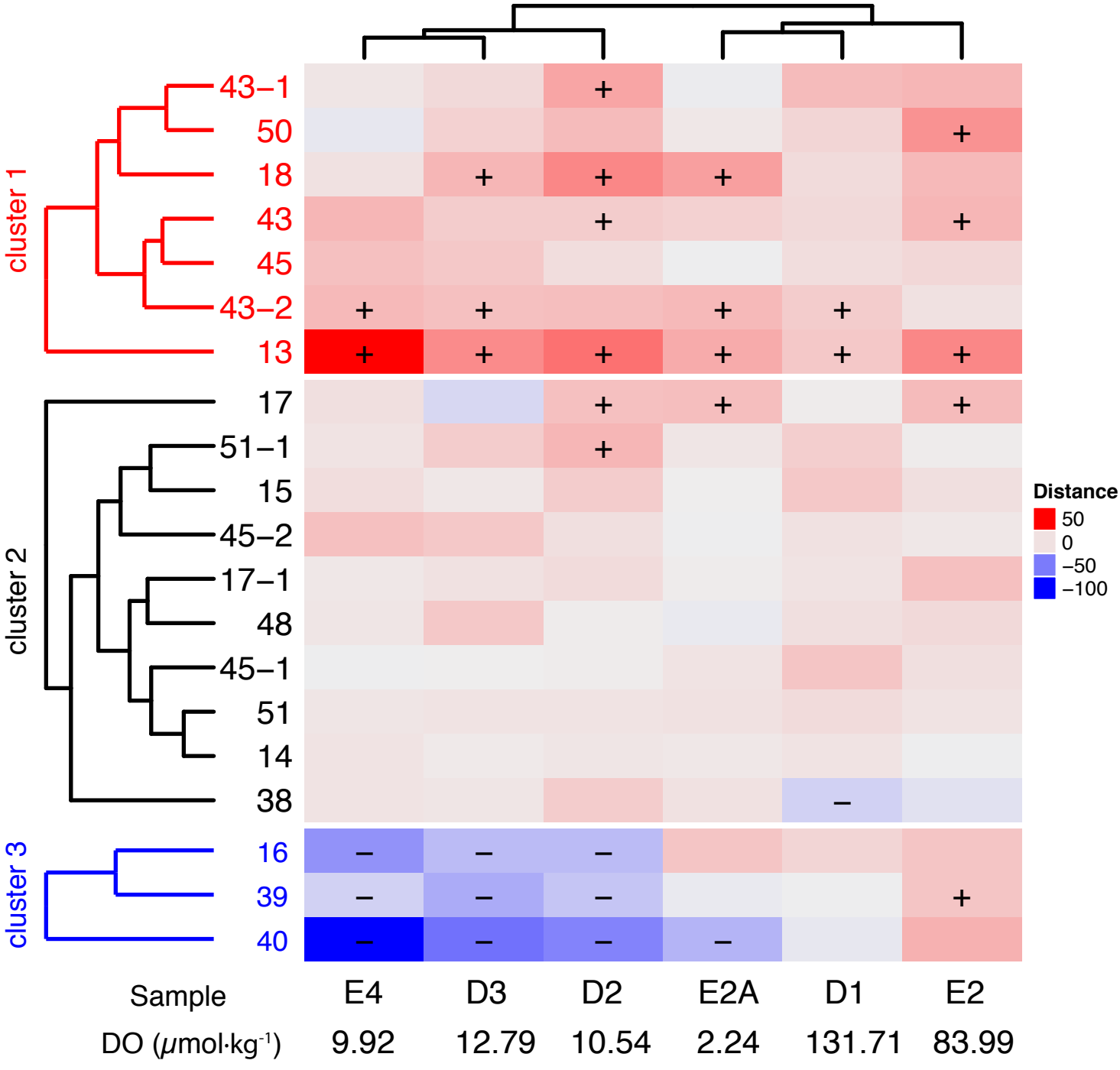
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51
14
38
16
39
40
Distance
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Sample
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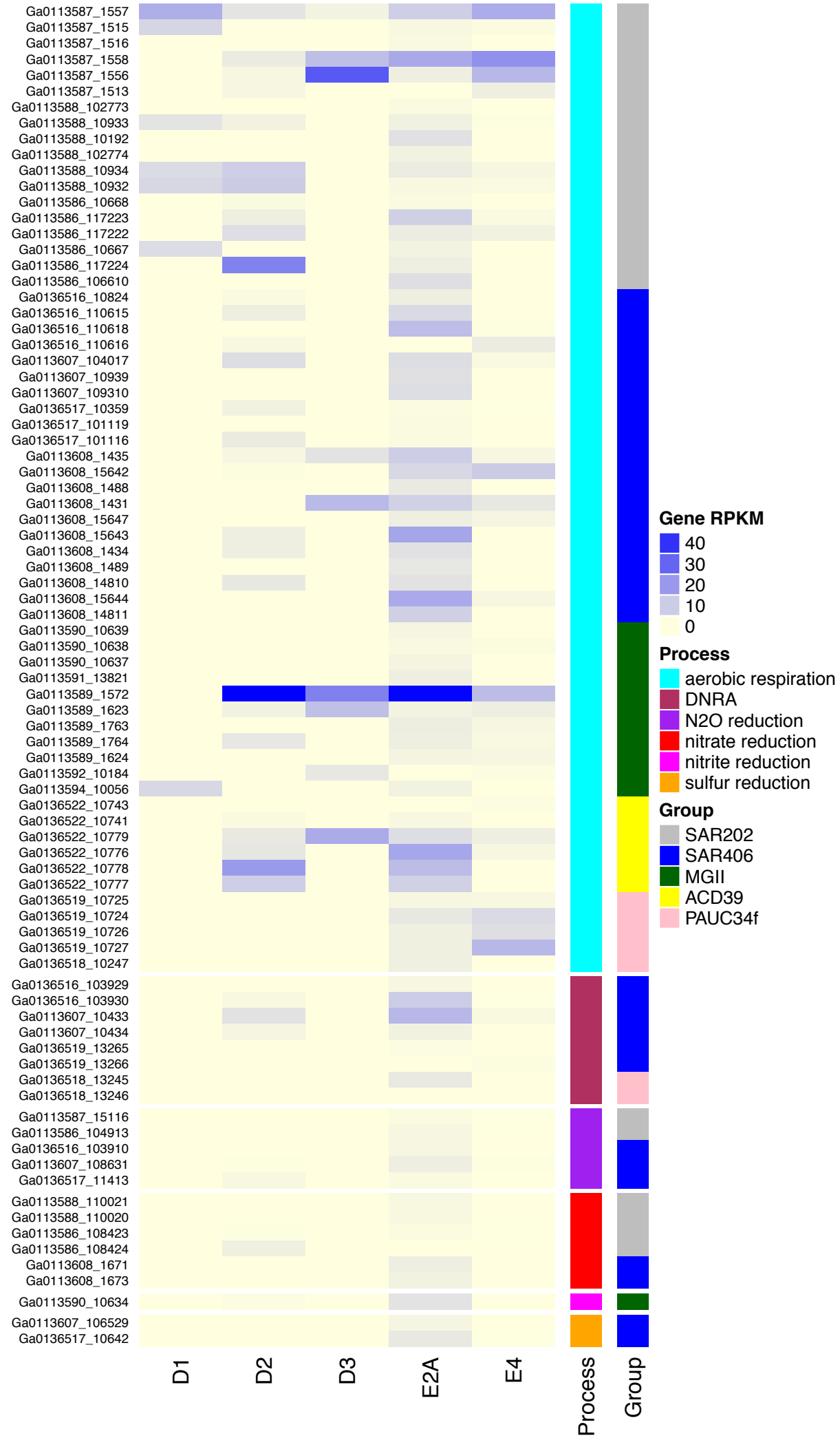
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20
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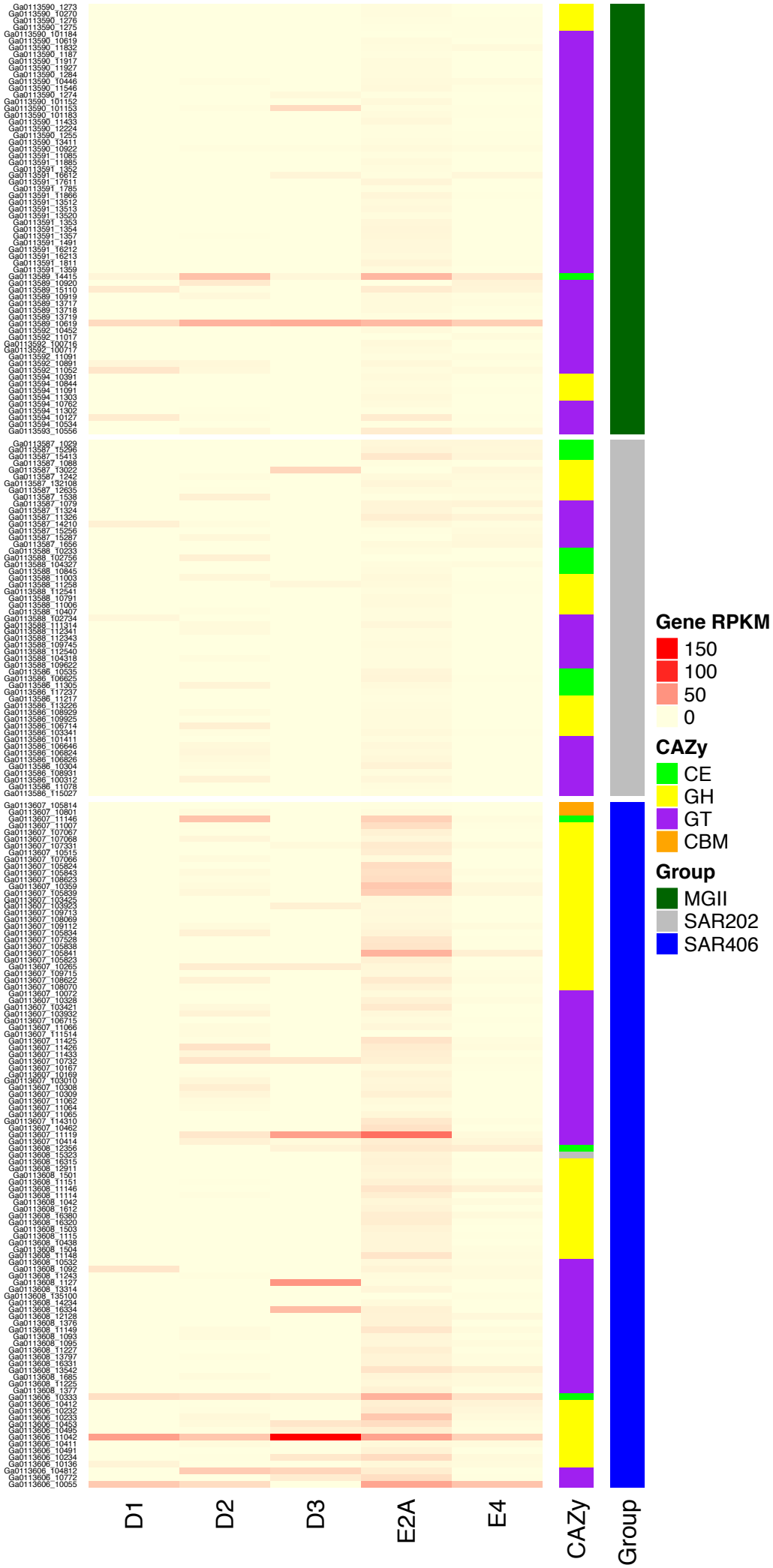
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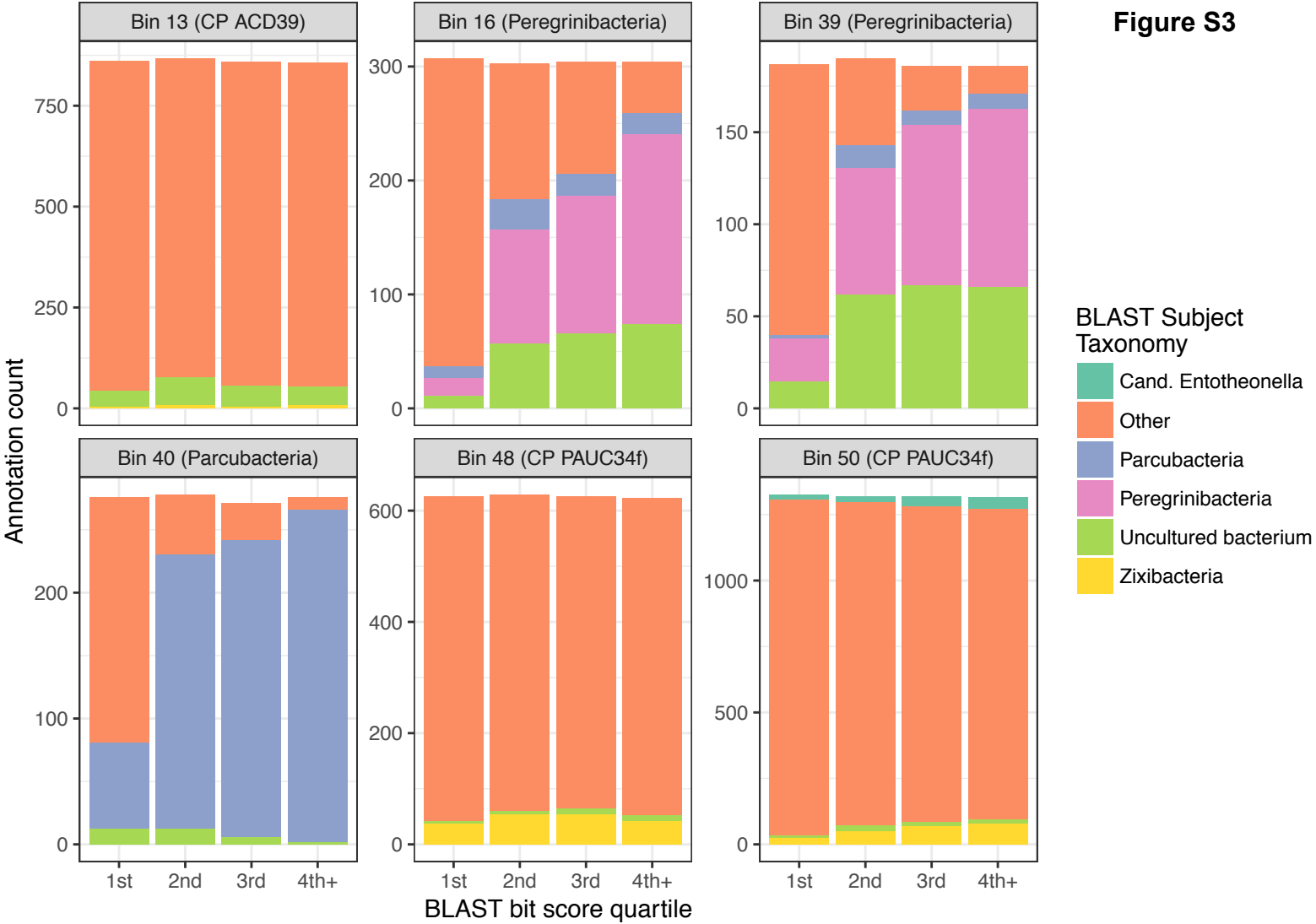
Figure S3
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Bin 39 (Peregrinibacteria)
Bin 40 (Parcubacteria)
Bin 48 (CP PAUC34f)
Bin 50 (CP PAUC34f)
Annotation count
BLAST bit score quartile
1st
2nd
3rd
4th+
BLAST Subject Taxonomy
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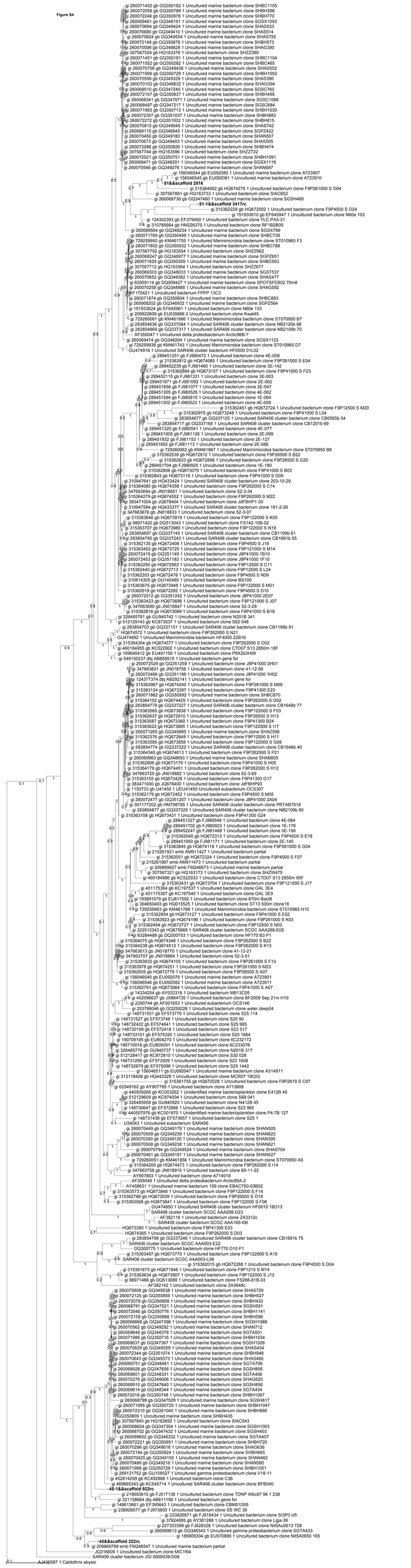
Other
Parcubacteria
Peregrinibacteria
Uncultured bacterium
Zixibacteria

**Figure S4**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gi 124373774 dbj AB292141 1 Uncultured bacterium gene for
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45&scaffold 322rc
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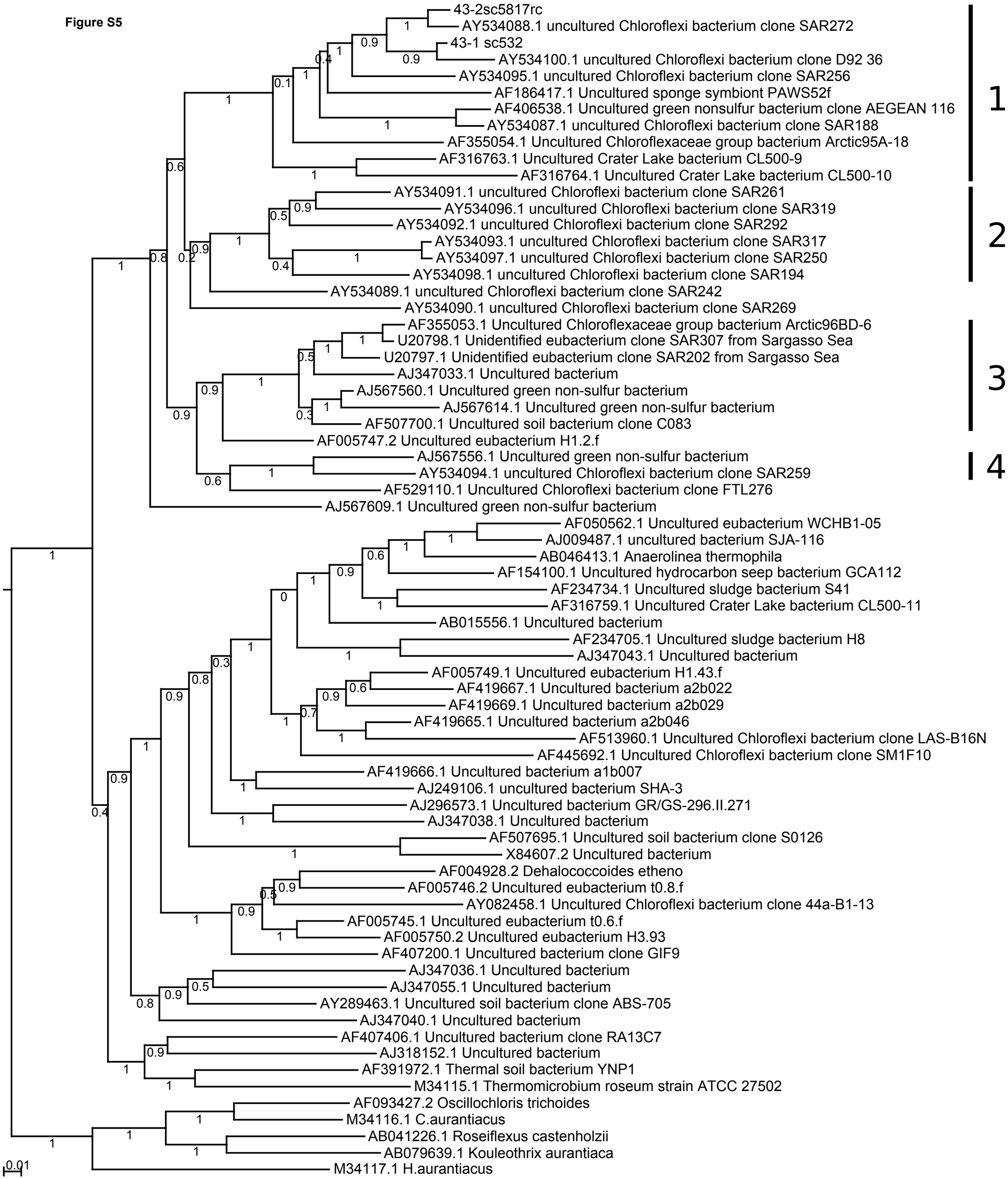
**Figure S5**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1
2
3
4

**Figure S6**

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Acidobacterium capsulatum 3704 11422
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EU770420 1 Chlorobium sp sy9
NR 119242 1 Chlorobium phaeovibrioides strain DSM 269
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AM086645 1 Pelodictyon clathratiforme strain 4DE
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KP214057 1 Bacteroidetes bacterium FA423
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Sulcia muelleri 257992 11429
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Nitro 11426
Nitrospiraes Thermodesulfovibri11429
Chroococcus minutus 570499 11429
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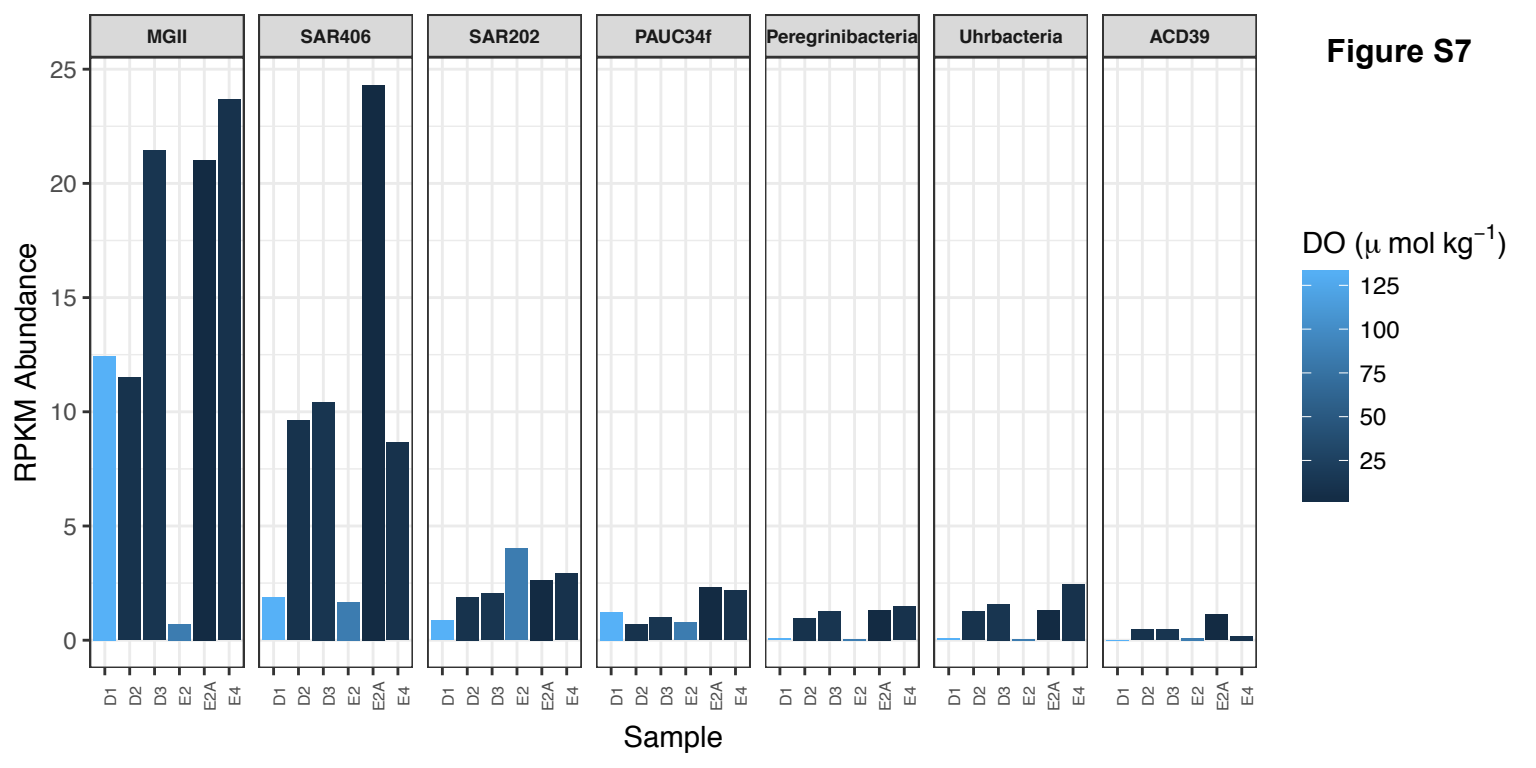
Figure S7
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SAR202
PAUC34f
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Uhrbacteria
ACD39
RPKM Abundance
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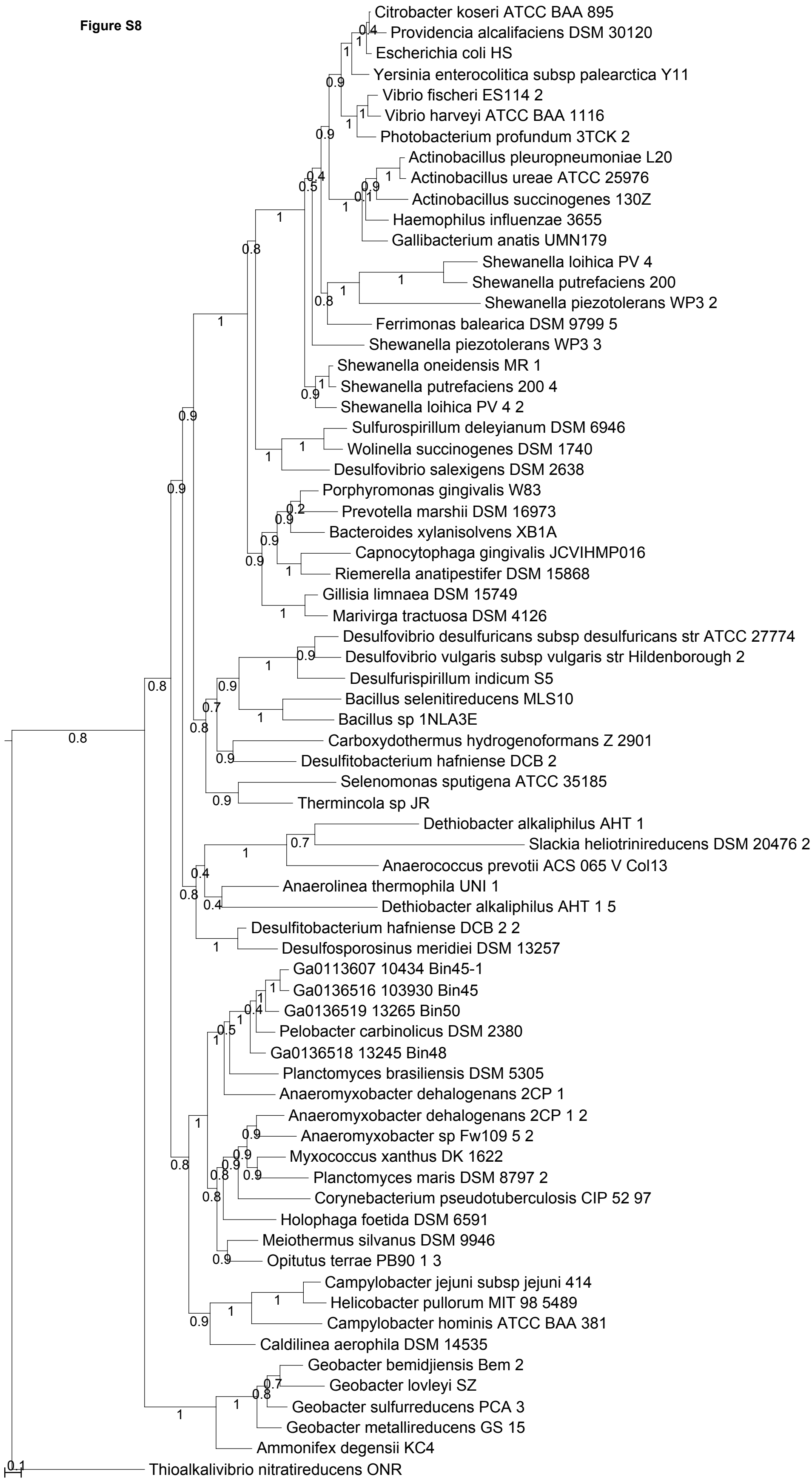
5
10
15
20
25
D1
D2
D3
E2
E2A
E4
Sample
DO (μ mol kg$^{-1}$)
125
100
75
50
25

**Figure S8**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Photobacterium profundum 3TCK 2
Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae L20
Actinobacillus ureae ATCC 25976
Actinobacillus succinogenes 130Z
Haemophilus influenzae 3655
Gallibacterium anatis UMN179
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Shewanella piezotolerans WP3 2
Ferrimonas balearica DSM 9799 5
Shewanella piezotolerans WP3 3
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Shewanella loihica PV 4 2
Sulfurospirillum deleyianum DSM 6946
Wolinella succinogenes DSM 1740
Desulfovibrio salexigens DSM 2638
Porphyromonas gingivalis W83
Prevotella marshii DSM 16973
Bacteroides xylanisolvens XB1A
Capnocytophaga gingivalis JCVIHMP016
Riemerella anatipestifer DSM 15868
Gillisia limnaea DSM 15749
Marivirga tractuosa DSM 4126
Desulfovibrio desulfuricans subsp desulfuricans str ATCC 27774
Desulfovibrio vulgaris subsp vulgaris str Hildenborough 2
Desulfurispirillum indicum S5
Bacillus selenitireducens MLS10
Bacillus sp 1NLA3E
Carboxydothermus hydrogenoformans Z 2901
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Selenomonas sputigena ATCC 35185
Thermincola sp JR
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Planctomyces maris DSM 8797 2
Corynebacterium pseudotuberculosis CIP 52 97
Holophaga foetida DSM 6591
Meiothermus silvanus DSM 9946
Opitutus terrae PB90 1 3
Campylobacter jejuni subsp jejuni 414
Helicobacter pullorum MIT 98 5489
Campylobacter hominis ATCC BAA 381
Caldilinea aerophila DSM 14535
Geobacter bemidjiensis Bem 2
Geobacter lovleyi SZ
Geobacter sulfurreducens PCA 3
Geobacter metallireducens GS 15
Ammonifex degensii KC4
Thioalkalivibrio nitratireducens ONR
0.1

**Table S2.** Gene annotations associated with Figures 1 and 2. Numbers correspond to those in the figures.

| **Enzyme Number** | Gene | Product | EC Number |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Glycolosis** | | | |
| **1** | HK | hexokinase | 2.7.1.1 |
| **2** | pmm-pgm | phosphoglucomutase | 5.4.2.2 |
| **3** | pgi-pmi | glucose-6-phosphate isomerase | 5.3.1.9 |
| **4** | pfkA | 6-phosphofructokinase 1 | 2.7.1.11 |
| **5** | fbp | fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase I | 3.1.3.11 |
| **6** | K01622 | fructose 1,6-bisphosphate aldolase/phosphatase | 4.1.2.13 |
| **7** | tpiA | triosephosphate isomerase | 5.3.1.1 |
| **8** | gapA | glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase | 1.2.1.12 |
| **9** | pgk | phosphoglycerate kinase | 2.7.2.3 |
| **10** | apgM | 2,3-bisphosphoglycerate-indipendent phosphoglycerate mutase | 5.4.2.12 |
| **11** | eno | enolase | 4.2.1.11 |
| **12** | ppsA | Phosphoenolpyruvate synthase/pyruvate phosphate dikinase | 2.7.9.2 |
| **13** | pyk | pyruvate kinase | 2.7.1.40 |
| **14** | porA | pyruvate ferredoxin oxidoreductase, alpha subunit | 1.2.7.1 |
| **15** | aceE | pyruvate dehydrogenase E1 component alpha subunit | 1.2.4.1 |
| **16** | aceF | pyruvate dehydrogenase E2 component | 2.3.1.12 |
| **17** | E6.2.1.13 | acetyl-CoA synthetase (ADP-forming) | 6.2.1.12 |
| **18** | acs | acetyl-CoA synthetase | 6.2.1.1 |
| **19** | ALDH | aldehyde dehydrogenase | 1.2.1.3 |
| **20** | ADH1 | alcohol dehydrogenase | 1.1.1.1 |
| **21** | pckA | phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase | 4.1.1.32 |
| **22** | LDH | lactate dehydrogenase | 1.1.1.27 |
| **23** | G6PD | glucose-6-phosphate 1-dehydrogenase | 1.1.1.49 |
| **24** | PGLS | 6-phosphogluconolactonase | 3.1.1.31 |
| **25** | PGD | 6-phosphogluconate dehydrogenase | 1.1.1.44 |
| **26** | rpiA | ribose 5-phosphate isomerase | 5.3.1.6 |
| **27** | rpe | ribulose-phosphate 3-epimerase | 5.1.3.1 |
| **28** | tktA,tktB | transketolase | 2.2.1.1 |
| **29** | talA,talB | transaldolase | 2.2.1.2 |
| **30** | PRK | phosphoribulokinase | 2.7.1.19 |
| **31** | rbcL | ribulose-bisphosphate carboxylase | 4.1.1.39 |
| **Citrate Acid Cycle** | | | |
| **32** | pyc | pyruvate carboxylase | 6.4.1.1 |
| **33** | CS,gltA | citrate synthase | 2.3.3.1 |
| **34** | acnA | aconitate hydratase | 4.1.2.3 |

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|---|---|---|---|
| **35** | icd | isocitrate dehydrogenase | 1.1.1.42 |
| **36** | OGDH,DLST,korA | 2-oxoglutarate synthase | |
| **37** | LSC1 | succinyl-CoA synthetase | 6.2.1.4 |
| **38** | SDHA,SDH1 | succinate dehydrogenase | 1.3.5.1 |
| **39** | fumA, fumb | fumarate hydratase | 4.2.1.2 |
| **40** | MDH1,mgo | malate dehydrogenase | 1.1.1.37, 1.1.5.4 |
| **41** | maeB | malic enzyme | 1.1.1.40 |
| **Oxidative phosphorylation** | | | |
| **42** | | NADH dehydrogenase | 1.6.5.3 |
| **38** | SDHA,SDH1 | succinate dehydrogenase | 1.3.5.1 |
| **43** | fbcH | cytochrome c reductase | 1.10.2.2. |
| **44** | cco/cyo | cytochrome c oxidase | 1.9.3.1 |
| **45** | cox | cytochrome c oxidase | |
| **46** | ATP | H+-transporting ATPase | 3.6.3.6 |
| **Sulfur Metabolism** | | | |
| **47** | PAPS/Sat | 3'-phosphoadenosine 5'-phosphosulfate synthase | 2.7.7.4 |
| **48** | | phosphoadenylylsulfatase | 3.6.2.2 |
| **49** | cysH | phosphoadenosine phosphosulfate reductase | |
| **50** | | sulfite dehydrogenase | 1.8.2.1 |
| **51** | | sulfite reductase | |
| **52** | SOX | sulfur-oxidizing protein | |
| **53** | TST | thiosulfate/3-mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase | 2.8.1.1 |
| **54** | phsA | thiosulfate reductase | 1.8.5.5 |
| **55** | fccB | sulfide dehydrogenase | 1.8.2.3 |
| **56** | ETHE1 | sulfur dioxygenase | 1.13.11.18 |
| **57** | ssuD | alkanesulfonate monooxygenase | 1.14.14.5 |
| **58** | doxA | thiosulfate dehydrogenase | 1.8.5.2 |
| **59** | cysM | cysteine synthase | 2.5.1.47 |
| **Nitrogen Metabolism** | | | |
| **60** | narB | assimilatory nitrate reductase | 1.7.7.2 |
| **61** | narHI, napAB | dissimilatory nitrate reductase | 1.7.99.4 |
| **62** | nirB/nirD/nirK | assimilatory nitrite reductase | 1.7.7.1 |
| **63** | nrfAH | dissimilatory nitrite reductase | 1.7.2.2 |
| **64** | nirK | nitrite reductase (NO-forming) | 1.7.2.1 |
| **65** | norB | nitric oxide reductase | 1.7.2.5 |
| **66** | nosZ | nitrous-oxide reductase | 1.7.2.4 |
| **67** | nifD | nitrogenase | 1.18.6.1 |
| **68** | hao | hydroxylamine dehydrogenase | 1.7.2.6 |
| **69** | pmoA-amoA | methane/ammonia monooxygenase | 1.14.18.3 1. 14.99.39 |

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|---|---|---|---|
| **70** | NAO | nitroalkane oxidase | 1.7.3.1 |
| **71** | | nitrilase | 3.5.5.1 |
| **72** | gudB | glutamate dehydrogenase | 1.4.1.2 |
| **73** | CPS1 | carbamoyl-phosphate synthase | 6.3.4.16 |
| **Methane Metabolism** | | | |
| **74** | | formamidase | 3.5.1.49 |
| **75** | FDH | formate dehydrogenase | 1.2.1.2 |
| **76** | fdhA | formate dehydrogenase alpha subunit | 1.2.1.43 |
| **77** | cdhA | acetyl-CoA decarbonylase/synthase complex | 1.2.7.4 |
| **78** | coxMS | carbon-monoxide dehydrogenase | 1.2.7.4 |
| **Wood-Ljungdahl Pathway** | | | |
| **78** | coxMS | carbon-monoxide dehydrogenase | 1.2.7.4 |
| **79** | fdhA | formate dehydrogenase alpha subunit | 1.2.1.43 |
| **80** | fhs | formate--tetrahydrofolate ligase | 6.3.4.3 |
| **81** | folD | methylenetetrahydrofolate dehydrogenase (NADP+) / methenyltetrahydrofolate cyclohydrolase | 1.5.1.5<br>3.5.4.9 |
| **82** | metF | methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase (NADPH) | 1.5.1.20 |
| **83** | acsE | 5-methyltetrahydrofolate corrinoid/iron sulfur protein methyltransferase | 2.1.1.258 |
| **84** | acsB | acetyl-CoA synthase | 2.3.1.169 |
| **Chemotaxis** | | | |
| **85** | mcp | methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein | |
| **86** | cheA | sensor kinase CheA | 2.7.13.3 |
| **87** | chW | purine-binding chemotaxis protein CheW | |
| **88** | cheV | response regulator CheV | |
| **89** | cheB | response regulator CheB | 3.1.1.61 |
| **90** | cheR | chemotaxis protein methyltransferase CheR | 2.1.1.80 |
| **91** | cheY | response regulator CheY | |
| **92** | cheC | chemotaxis protein CheC | |
| **93** | chex | chemotaxis protein CheX | |
| **94** | cheD | chemotaxis protein CheD | 3.5.1.44 |
| **Flagellar assembly** | | | |
| **95** | | Motor/Switch | |
| **96** | | Basal body | |
| **97** | | Hook | |
| **98** | | Filament | |
| **Phosphate response regulator** | | | |
| **99** | SenX3 | sensor histidine kinase SenX3 | 2.7.13.3 |
| **100** | PhoR | phosphate regulon sensor histidine kinase PhoR | 2.7.13.3 |
| **101** | RegX3 | response regulator RegX3 | |

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| **102** | PhoB | phosphate regulon response regulator PhoB | |
| **103** | PhoP | alkaline phosphatase synthesis response regulator PhoP | |
| **104** | PstS | phosphate transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **105** | PhoA | alkaline phosphatase | 3.1.3.1 |
| **106** | PhoD | alkaline phosphatase D | 3.1.3.1 |
| **Secretion System** | | | |
| **107** | SecDFEGY | protein translocase subunit | |
| **108** | SecA | protein translocase subunit secA | |
| **109** | FtsY | signal recognition particle-docking protein FtsY | |
| **110** | TatAC | sec-independent protein translocase protein | |
| **Transport** | | | |
| **111** | pstS | phosphate transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **112** | pstC | phosphate transport system permease protein | |
| **113** | pstB | phosphate transport system ATP-binding protein | 3.6.3.27 |
| **114** | | Specific sugar transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **115** | | specific sugar transport system permease protein | |
| **116** | msmX, msmK, malK, sugC, ggtA, msiK, mtlK, thuK | multiple sugar transport system ATP-binding protein | 3.6.3.- |
| **117** | OpuBC | osmoprotectant transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **118** | OpuBB | osmoprotectant transport system permease protein | |
| **119** | OpuBA | osmoprotectant transport system ATP-binding protein | |
| **120** | LolC/LolE | lipoprotein-releasing system permease protein | |
| **121** | LolD | lipoprotein-releasing system ATP-binding protein | 3.6.3.- |
| **122** | AfuA | iron(III) transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **123** | AfuB | iron(III) transport system permease protein | |
| **124** | AfuC | iron(III) transport system ATP-binding protein | 3.6.3.30 |
| **125** | BioY | biotin transport system substrate-specific component | |
| **126** | BioN | biotin transport system permease protein | |
| **127** | BioM | biotin transport system ATP-binding protein | 3.6.3.- |
| **128** | NatB | Sodium transport system permease protein | |
| **129** | NatA | sodium transport system ATP-binding protein | |
| **130** | CcmD | heme exporter protein D | |
| **131** | CcmC/CcmB | heme exporter protein C/B | |
| **132** | CcmA | heme exporter protein A | 3.6.3.41 |
| **133** | modA | molybdate transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **134** | modB | molybdate transport system permease protein | |
| **135** | modC/modF | molybdate transport system ATP-binding protein | 3.6.3.29 |
| **136** | ZnuA | Zinc transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **137** | ZnuB | Zinc transport system permease protein | |
| **138** | ZnuC | Zinc transport system ATP-binding protein | |
| **139** | LivK | branched-chain amino acid transport system substrate-binding protein | |

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| **140** | LivH/LivM | branched-chain amino acid transport system permease protein | |
| **141** | LivG/LivF | branched-chain amino acid transport system ATP-binding protein | |
| **142** | PotD | spermidine/putrescine transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **143** | potC, potB | spermidine/putrescine transport system permease protein | |
| **144** | PotA | spermidine/putrescine transport system ATP-binding protein | 3.6.3.31 |
| **145** | TupA | tungstate transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **146** | TupB | tungstate transport system permease protein | |
| **147** | TupC | tungstate transport system ATP-binding protein | 3.6.3.55 |
| **148** | GlnH | glutamine transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **149** | GlnP | glutamine transport system permease protein | |
| **150** | GlnQ | glutamine transport system ATP-binding protein | 3.6.3.- |
| **151** | tbpA | thiamine transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **152** | thiP | thiamine transport system permease protein | |
| **153** | thiQ | thiamine transport system ATP-binding protein | |
| **154** | PhnD | phosphonate transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **155** | PhnE | phosphonate transport system permease protein | |
| **156** | PhnC | phosphonate transport system ATP-binding protein | |
| **157** | TagG | teichoic acid transport system permease protein | |
| **158** | TagH | teichoic acid transport system ATP-binding protein | |
| **159** | RfbA | lipopolysaccharide transport system permease protein | |
| **160** | RfbB | lipopolysaccharide transport system ATP-binding protein | |
| **161** | OppA | oligopeptide transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **162** | OppB/ OPPC | oligopeptide transport system permease protein | |
| **163** | OppD/ OppF | oligopeptide transport system ATP-binding protein | |
| **164** | thiY | putative hydroxymethylpyrimidine transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **165** | thiX | putative hydroxymethylpyrimidine transport system permease protein | |
| **166** | thiZ | putative hydroxymethylpyrimidine transport system ATP-binding protein | |
| **167** | cbiN/cbiM/cibQ | cobalt/nickel transport system permease protein | |
| **168** | cbiO | cobalt/nickel transport system permease protein | |
| **169** | YejA | microcin C transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **170** | YejB/YejE/YejF | microcin C transport system permease protein | |
| **171** | YejF | microcin C transport system ATP-binding protein | |
| **172** | NodJ | lipooligosaccharide transport system permease protein | |
| **173** | NodI | lipooligosaccharide transport system ATP-binding protein | |
| **174** | UgpB | sn-glycerol 3-phosphate transport system substrate-binding protein | |
| **175** | UgpA/UgpE | sn-glycerol 3-phosphate transport system permease protein | |
| **176** | UgpC | sn-glycerol 3-phosphate transport system ATP-binding protein | 3.6.3.20 |

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|---|---|---|---|
| **177** | NNP | MFS transporter, NNP family, nitrate/nitrite transporter | |
| **Pilus Assembly** | | | |
| **178** | PilQ | type IV pilus assembly protein PilQ | |
| **179** | PilC | type IV pilus assembly protein PilC | |
| **180** | PilB/PilT/PilU | type IV pilus assembly protein PilB/PilT/PilU | |
| **181** | Pil F | type IV pilus assembly protein PilF | |
| **182** | PilP/PilN/PilO | type IV pilus assembly protein PilP/PilN/PilO | |
| **183** | PilM | type IV pilus assembly protein PilM | |
| **184** | PilA/FimV | type IV pilus assembly protein PilA/FimV | |