1	Title: Free-living psychrophilic bacteria of the genus Psychrobacter are
2	descendants of pathobionts
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4	Running Title: psychrophilic bacteria descended from pathobionts
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21	
22	Abstract
23	Host-adapted microbiota are generally thought to have evolved from free-living
24	ancestors. This process is in principle reversible, but examples are few. The genus
25	Psychrobacter (family Moraxellaceae, phylum Gamma-Proteobacteria) includes species
26	inhabiting diverse and mostly polar environments, such as sea ice and marine animals. To
27	probe Psychrobacter's evolutionary history, we analyzed 85 Psychrobacter strains by

28 comparative genomics and phenotyping under 24 different growth conditions. Genome-29 based phylogeny shows *Psychrobacter* are derived from *Moraxella*, which are warm-adapted 30 pathobionts. Psychrobacter strains form two ecotypes based on growth temperature: flexible 31 (FE, growth at 4 - 37°C), and restricted (RE, 4 - 25°C). FE strains, which can be either 32 phylogenetically basal or derived, have smaller genomes and higher transposon copy 33 numbers. RE strains have larger genomes, and show genomic adaptations towards a 34 psychrophilic lifestyle and are phylogenetically derived only. We then assessed 35 Psychrobacter abundance in 86 mostly wild polar bear stools and tested persistence of 36 select strains in germfree mice. Psychrobacter (both FE and RE) was enriched in stool of 37 polar bears feeding on mammals, but only FE strains persisted in germfree mice. Together 38 these results indicate growth at 37°C is ancestral in *Psychrobacter*, lost in many derived 39 species, and likely necessary to colonize the mammalian gut.

40

42 Introduction

43

44 Whether microbiota are associated with vertebrate hosts or not is the largest factor 45 driving differences in the composition of microbiomes sampled globally [1, 2]. Recent 46 analysis of metagenome-assembled genomes from multiple habitats shows that many of 47 these genomes are either animal host-enriched or environment-enriched, but generally not 48 both [3]. Strikingly, such specialization can also be seen at higher taxonomic levels. 49 indicating that whole lineages may have diverged once animal hosts were first successfully 50 colonized. For instance, within the Bacteroidetes, the taxa that are mammal-gut associated 51 are derived from phylogenetically basal clades that include free-living and invertebrate-52 associated taxa [4]. These patterns of distribution imply that specialization to the warm 53 animal host habitat is mostly incompatible with fitness in other environments. 54 There are known exceptions: microbiota with complex lifestyles adapted to life both 55 on and off the warm animal host. A few taxa from the phylum Proteobacteria, many of which 56 are pathogens and pathobionts, inhabit mammalian bodies and have environmental 57 reservoirs [5, 6]. Genomic adaptations that support fitness across several different 58 environment types have been identified, many of which increase infectivity in mammals. For 59 instance, genes that allow bacteria to avoid predation by protozoa, amoebas, and 60 nematodes, also contribute to virulence in mammalian infections in species such as Vibrio 61 cholera, Burkholderia pseudomallei, and Yersinia pestis [7, 8]. Genes regulating the 62 formation of biofilms have also been implicated in the infectivity of organisms such as V. 63 cholera [9]. Type IV pili, organelles that are important for the asymptomatic colonization of 64 plant tissues, are also associated with mammalian tissue invasion [10]. Particular strains of 65 virulent Escherichia coli serotype O157H7 show increased or decreased ability to persist in 66 soil depending on mutations in their stress response genes, which impact survival in acid 67 and other selection pressures [11]. In the food-borne pathogen Listeria monocytogenes, 68 mutations in genes important for cell invasion also affect cold tolerance, such that strains

69 with increased persistence in processed foods are more likely to have high virulence [12].

70 For the majority of nonpathogenic animal-associated microbiota, the adaptations to life in

71 and on the host seem to preclude sustaining populations outside the host.

The evolutionary history of pathogens has been studied in depth in a few cases, and indicate an environmental ancestry. The evolutionary trajectory of commensal microbiota is less well characterized, but many likely follow the same patterns. *Mycobacterium*

75 *tuberculosis* and *Y. pestis* are both pathogens thought to be derived from non-pathogenic.

76 environmental organisms [13, 14]. Many Mycobacteria are soil microbes that can sometimes

cause disease in mammals, while *M. tuberculosis* itself is only found in humans and has no

78 known environmental reservoir [14, 15]. Y. pestis is closely related to pathogenic species Y.

79 pseudotuberculosis and Y. enterocolitica, though other Yersinia spp. are nonpathogenic soil

and water microbes [13, 16]. There may be cases of the inverse: where environmental

81 bacteria are derived from animal host-associated ancestors, but well characterized examples

82 are lacking. Experimental evolution studies in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Serratia*

83 *marcescens* have established that a trajectory from host to environment is possible,

however, and results in attenuated virulence [17, 18]. The more bacterial genomes become

85 available for comparative studies, the better the understanding will be of how certain

86 lineages may have moved between animal hosts and their environments.

87 Here, we investigated the evolutionary history of the genus *Psychrobacter*, a group of 88 closely related bacteria with a broad environmental distribution. Species of *Psychrobacter* 89 have been recovered through culture-based and sequenced-based methods from a range of 90 animal microbiomes, including marine mammal skin [19], respiratory blow [20], and guts [21– 91 23]; the gastrointestinal tracts of birds [24, 25] and fish [26]; and many nonhost environments 92 such as sea water [27], sea ice [28], marine sediment [29], glacial ice [30], and permafrost 93 soil [31]. Some Psychrobacter species are capable of causing disease in mammalian hosts 94 [32, 33]. However, *Psychrobacter* infections are very rare, and the virulence factors involved 95 are relatively uncharacterized. Intriguingly, a previous comparative genomics analysis of 26 96 Psychrobacter spp. and metadata gleaned from public sources revealed differences in cold-

97 adaptation of protein coding sequences between warm-host-associated strains versus
98 derived marine and terrestrial strains [34]. Furthermore, warm-adapted strains were basal in
99 the *rpoB* gene phylogeny, suggesting that *Psychrobacter* evolved from a mesophilic
100 ancestor. These observations make *Psychrobacter* an interesting candidate to assess how
101 ecotype maps onto phylogeny and source of isolation, and to probe into the evolutionary
102 history of a genus with a wide habitat range.
103 We tripled the collection of *Psychrobacter* genomes, which we use for phylogenomic

104 analysis, and combine these data with extensive phenotyping applied consistently for all 105 strains. We use a large collection of wild polar bear feces collected on ice and land to assess 106 the presence of *Psychrobacter* ecotypes as a function of diet determined by cytochrome b 107 barcode sequencing. Finally, we conducted tests with select strains for colonization of the 108 mammal gut using germ-free mice. Our results confirm a mesophilic ancestry for 109 Psychrobacter and a common ancestor with the genus Moraxella. Our phenotyping revealed 110 that overall, Psychrobacter tolerate a wide range of salinity, but growth at 37 °C divided the 111 accessions into two ecotypes: those that retained the ability to grow at warm temperatures 112 and colonize mammalian hosts (flexible ecotype, FE), and those that exhibit adaptive 113 evolution towards a psychrophilic lifestyle (restricted ecotype, RE). Genomic analysis of the 114 two ecotypes shows genome reduction in the FE strains with high transposon copy numbers, 115 and adaptation to cold in RE strains. We show that *Psychrobacter* that are basal are FE, but 116 that FE are also interspersed with RE, indicating either re-adaptation to the animal host or 117 retention of the basal traits. Although both FE and RE ecotypes were detected in the feces 118 of wild polar bears, only FE strains tested could colonize the germfree mouse gut. Together 119 our results indicate the evolutionary history of the genus Psychrobacter indicates a 120 pathobiont losing its ability to associate with animals in its adaptation to nonhost 121 environments.

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123

124 Materials and Methods

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All software versions, parameters, and the relevant citations for our analyses aredetailed in Table S1.

128

129 *Moraxellaceae* family genomics and phenotypic data. The *Moraxellaceae* family 130 includes three well characterized genera: Moraxella, Acinetobacter and Psychrobacter. To 131 build a family-level phylogeny, we downloaded genomes of 18 species of Acinetobacter and 132 18 species of *Moraxella* from NCBI (June 2020) (Table S2). We also included 15 133 Psychrobacter genomes generated in this study (described below). We determined the 134 phylogenetic relationship between the genomes using whole-genome marker gene analysis 135 software PhyloPhIAn, and determined genome quality and summary characteristics using 136 checkM and Prokka. The Moraxellaceae phylogenetic tree was visualized and annotated 137 using the interactive Tree of Life (iTOL) web interface.

138 We analyzed the *Moraxellaceae* pan-genome using the PanX pipeline. The input 139 genomes used by PanX were initially annotated using Prokka. After their assignment into 140 orthologous clusters using MCL, we re-annotated gene clusters using eggNOG mapper. We 141 explored genome content by calculating a distance matrix using the Jaccard metric through 142 the R package ecodist from a binary gene presence-absence table, followed by dimensional 143 reduction of that distance matrix through principle coordinate decomposition (PCoA) with the 144 cmdscale function from the R package stats. We investigated variables contributing to the 145 separation of the PCoA using the envfit function from the R package vegan; we tested 146 whether genes significantly contributing to separation were "core" (genes present in 90% to 147 100% of strains), "shell" (genes present in greater than two strains, but in fewer than 90%), 148 or "cloud" (genes present in only one strain), and if general gene function - summarized by 149 Cluster of Orthologous Groups (COG) category - contributed to the separation. We collected

growth temperature range data from type strain publications [23, 24, 27, 28, 35–76]. We
used the R package phytools [77] to map the temperature ranges onto the phylogeny.

153 **Psychrobacter strains.** We obtained 92 isolates of *Psychrobacter* from strain 154 catalogues for phenotypic and genotypic characterization. These represent 38 validly 155 published species of Psychrobacter as well as unclassified strains, all isolated from a wide 156 variety of geographical locations and diverse environmental and host samples. All strains 157 were purchased and maintained in compliance with the Nagoya Protocol on Access to 158 Genetic Resources and the Fair and Equitable Sharing of Benefits Arising from their 159 Utilization to the Convention on Biological Diversity. For a full list of accessions and their 160 catalogue, isolation, and cultivation information, see Table S3. Unless mentioned, we grew 161 accessions as recommended by the strain catalogue (medium and temperature) from which 162 they were purchased. We performed electron microscopy as described in the Supplemental 163 Text.

164

165 Psychrobacter phenotypic screen. For the 85 Psychrobacter accessions that 166 passed genome quality control (see Supplemental Text, Table S4), we tested their ability to 167 grow under 24 different conditions; a growth condition being a combination of a medium 168 (complex or defined), salt concentration (0, 2.5, 5 or 10% NaCl) and incubation temperature 169 (4, 25 or 37 °C). For more information regarding the media choice, see Supplemental Text. 170 We randomly assigned *Psychrobacter* accessions to blocks of ten strains to be tested 171 simultaneously (several accessions were included in multiple blocks, see Table S2). We first 172 grew strains to saturation, washed, diluted to optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) = 0.3 in 173 sterile phosphate buffered saline (PBS), and inoculated in 100 µL of medium with a final 174 ratio of 1:1000. We used 96-well plates, with 10 inoculum in 5 replicates and 10 uninoculated 175 media wells per plate, all periphery wells were filled with water to reduce edge effects. Plates 176 were incubated at each temperature to reflect all 24 growth conditions. We measured the 177 OD₆₀₀ (Spark[®] plate reader, Tecan, Zürich, Switzerland) every eight hours during the first week of

incubation, then every twenty-four hours, and let cultures grow until stationary phase (3 to 12
weeks). We tested the carbon utilization of a subset of *Psychrobacter* accessions as described in
the Supplemental Text.

181

Growth probabilities. We scored each replicate as either 'growth positive', meaning the accession grew, or else, 'growth negative,' if the replicate never reached a maximum OD₆₀₀ of 0.15 over the course of the experiment. For each strain and condition (medium, salt and temperature), using base R functions we calculated a growth probability, which corresponds to the median value of growth positivity/negativity of all replicates for that condition.

188

189 Genome sequencing, assembly and annotation. Genomic DNA was extracted 190 from cultures grown in their preferred conditions using the Gentra Puregene Tissue Kit 191 (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA). Samples were sequenced using the MiSeg 2x250 bp and HiSeq 2x150 bp paired-end read technology (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) as previously 192 193 described [78], with some samples undergoing additional long-read sequencing using 194 Ligation Sequencing (Oxford Nanopore, Oxford, UK). For details regarding quality control 195 and assembly, see Supplemental Text, and for a summary of genome quality, see Table S4. 196 Note that of the initial 92 accessions, 85 had genomes that passed all QC measures (Table 197 S4). All further analyses use these 85 accessions.

We annotated genomes with Prokka and eggNOG mapper. A phylogeny of the accessions was generated using PhyloPhIAn, with *Moraxella lincolnii* as an outgroup. Again the phylogeny was visualized and annotated using iTOL. We used PanX to analyze the *Psychrobacter* pan-genome and R to explore gene presence-absence data as described above with the Moraxellaceae family. Pseudogenes were predicted using the DFAST core workflow. We used treeWAS to perform a pan-genome wide association study relating data collected in the phenotypic screen to genomic data.

205

206 Potential cold-adaptive trait analysis. For every gene cluster of the *Psychrobacter* 207 pan-genome obtained, we used DIAMOND to map the consensus sequence against the 208 UniRef90 database, excluding results from the family *Moraxellaceae*. We thus obtained 209 homologous sequences while ensuring that the analysis would not be biased by self-210 comparison. Gene clusters without UniRef90 homologs were removed from further analysis. 211 The putative cold adaptive traits of every protein-coding gene from the *Psychrobacter* 212 set and their UniRef90 homologs were evaluated following the methods of Bakermans [34]. 213 Briefly, we used the relative abundance of every amino acid per coding sequence (CDS) to 214 calculate the arginine to lysine ratio, acidity, hydrophobicity and KVYWREP ratios [34]. We 215 additionally calculated the grand average of hydropathicity (GRAVY) [79] and the isoelectric 216 point (using Protein Analysis method class from Biopython). Next, we compared the 217 distributions of these measures from Psychrobacter protein sequences to the distributions of 218 the measures from the UniRef sequences. For each protein sequence, if a majority of 219 measures were in the top 25% of the homologs distribution, we defined the protein sequence 220 as "highly cold adaptive". The top 25% were defined as follows for each trait: highest 25% for 221 glycine relative abundance, acidity, hydrophobicity, and GRAVY; and the lowest 25% for 222 proline relative abundance, arginine relative abundance, arginine-lysine ratio, isoelectric 223 point, and KVYWREP.

224

225 Microbiome diversity of polar bear feces. We collected 86 polar bear fecal 226 samples from several regions in Canada, including samples from 10 captive bears, fed 227 varying diets or fasted, and 76 samples from an unknown number of wild bears, whose diets 228 were determined from stool analysis (below). The feces from the captive bears were 229 forwarded from institutions within Canada and did not require permitting for their passage to 230 Queen's University. The captive samples comprised: five fecal samples from a single bear 231 sequentially fed varying diets of Arctic char, harp seal and a "zoo diet" at the Polar Bear 232 Habitat in Cochrane during 2010; two samples from each of two bears held at the Metro

233 Toronto Zoo, fed a consistent "zoo diet" during 2010; and a single sample from a bear held 234 at the Churchill Polar Bear Holding Facility in Churchill during 2010, where the bears are 235 given only water until release. We collected all wild bear faeces from M'Clintock Channel 236 and Hudson Strait in Nunavut in accordance with permits prior to shipping to Queen's 237 University: we collected 24 samples from M'Clintock Channel under *Wildlife Research* 238 permits issued in 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010 and 2011 to Peter Van Coeverden de Groot, and 239 nine samples from Hudson Straight collected in 2011 under Wildlife Research permit to 240 Grant Gilchrest (Environment Canada). We collected 43 wild samples from the Wapusk 241 National Park in Manitoba from 2007-2010 under a Canada Parks permit to Robert Rockwell 242 (American Museum of Natural History). 243 We confirmed that samples collected from wild bears originated from bears by 244 sequencing a cytochrome b gene fragment using metabarcoding approaches based on lon 245 Torrent (Ion Torrent Systems Inc., Gilford, NH, USA) and 454 pyrosequencing (454 Life 246 Sciences, Branford, CT, USA) next-generation sequencing technologies [80]. We also used 247 this method to analyze what prey animals the polar bears had been feeding on at the time of 248 sample deposition. We visually inspected the samples for confirmation on the dietary 249 analysis. We extracted DNA from the fecal samples using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit 250 (Qiagen), and characterized the gut bacterial community by amplification and sequencing of 251 the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene as described previously [81]. We used QIIME for 252 sequence processing and Silva to assign taxonomy. As described in Supplemental Text, we 253 isolated a strain of Psychrobacter (P. faecalis PBFP-1) from polar bear feces that we 254 included in our genomic and phenotypic analyses. 255 256 Gnotobiotic mouse colonizations. Based on their source of derivation and

257 phylogenetic breadth, we selected eight accessions of Psychrobacter - P. cibarius JG-220,

258 P. ciconiae, P. faecalis PBFP-1, P. immobilis S3, P. lutiphocae, P. okhotskensis MD17, P.

259 *namhaensis,* and *P. pacificensis* – to monocolonize germfree mice. We grew each

accession in its preferred conditions (Table S3) to saturation, spun at 10 °C at 2500 rpm for

25 minutes, washed with sterile PBS, resuspended in 15% (v/v) glycerol in PBS, and flash
frozen in liquid N₂. Inoculum samples were stored at -80 °C until the mouse experiments
were performed by animal caretakers as follows. For *P. ciconiae*, *P. faecalis*, *P. namhaensis*,
and *P. pacificensis*, experiments were performed at Taconic Biosciences (Rensselaer, NY,
USA), while for *P. cibarius*, *P. immobilis*, and *P. okhotskensis*, experiments were performed
at the Max Planck Institute for Developmental Biology. *P. lutiphocae* was included in both
Taconic and MPIDB experiments.

268 Five to six-week old germfree male C57BL/6J mice were orally inoculated with 269 approximately 10⁷ cfu (n=4 per *Psychrobacter* accession, n = 8 for *P. lutiphocae*). Mice 270 inoculated with the same strain were co-housed (Taconic) or single-housed (MPIDB) in 271 sterile cages (IsoCage P, Tecniplast) and provided autoclaved water and sterile chow 272 (NIH31M) ad libitum. Three weeks post-colonization, mice were euthanized and cecal 273 contents were immediately collected, flash frozen, and stored at -80 °C. The Taconic 274 experiments were performed in compliance with Taconic's IACUC, and the MPIDB 275 experiments were approved by and performed in accordance with the local animal welfare 276 authority's legal requirements.

277 To determine the bacterial colonization density in the mouse cecum, we serially 278 diluted two aliquots per mouse of cecal material (50 mg each), incubated them on plates 279 under their preferred conditions (Table S3) for three to five days. If no colonies were 280 observed, we spread an inoculating loop of the undiluted aliquot onto Brain-Heart Infusion 281 Agar and incubated at 37 °C for two weeks. For samples where we again observed no 282 colonies, we categorized these Psychrobacter accessions as "non-persistent." For the 283 samples that did show colony growth, we confirmed the identity of the colonies as 284 Psychrobacter using Sanger sequencing of 16S rRNA gene amplicons as described in the 285 Supplemental Text.

286

287 Statistical analysis. We performed all data processing and statistical analysis using
 288 R or Python. We compared means between groups using a Kruskal-Wallis test, followed by

289 a pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum test to identify which groups differed when more than two 290 groups were compared. We tested differences in frequencies between groups with more 291 than 10 observations with a χ^2 -test, repeated a 100 times with down-sampling in order to 292 correct for sampling sizes between groups. We measured phylogenetic signal using a log-293 likelihood ratio test on Pagel's λ (Pagel's λ fitted using the phylosig function from the 294 phytools R package, and the null hypothesis being $\lambda = 0$). When applicable, we tested for the 295 confounding of phylogeny with our groups of interest using the aov.phylo function from the R 296 package geiger. We adjusted all p-values for multiple comparisons with the Benjamini-297 Hochberg (BH) correction method.

298

299 Results

300

301 Psychrobacter forms a clade whose basal members are of the Moraxella 302 **genus.** To explore the evolutionary history of *Psychrobacter*, we built a phylogeny based on 303 400 conserved marker genes using publically available whole genomes derived from 304 cultured isolates of 51 species from the Moraxellaceae family. We included 18 species each 305 of Acinetobacter and Moraxella obtained from NCBI, and 15 Psychrobacter genomes that we 306 generated in this study (Table S2). For all genomes, we incorporated phenotypic data 307 collected from previously published type-strain research. Our analysis shows the 51 species 308 formed three distinct clades with robust bootstrap support. The Acinetobacter clade consists 309 uniquely of Acinetobacter species (labeled A in Fig 1A). The Acinetobacter clade is a sister 310 taxon to the Moraxella (M) clade, consisting entirely of Moraxella species, and to the 311 *Psychrobacter* (P) clade, which contains all of the *Psychrobacter* species, as well as four 312 Moraxella species (M. boevrei, M. atlantae, M. osloensis, and M. lincolnii) that are basal in 313 the P clade. This phylogeny indicates that these four *Moraxella* species are more closely 314 related to Psychrobacter than to other Moraxella. P-clade Moraxella have more similar 315 phenotypes compared to M-clade *Moraxella* than to *Psychrobacter* strains. Review of type

strain descriptions revealed that *Psychrobacter* are consistently urease positive, nitrate
reducing, salt tolerant, and non-fastidious, whereas P-clade *Moraxella* are inconsistent with
their urease and nitrate reducing phenotypes, are sensitive to high salt concentrations, and
are often nutritionally fastidious - they have complex growth requirements (in particular, often
blood or bile for growth) [23, 24, 39, 42, 50, 51, 66, 67].

321 Consistent with the topology of the phylogeny, a principal coordinates analysis 322 (PCoA) of gene presence/absence data shows that the greatest variation within the family 323 (*i.e.*, Principle Coordinate [PC] 1) is the separation between the A clade versus the M and P 324 clades, which are grouped (Fig. 1). The P-clade Moraxella spp. fall between the P-clade 325 Psychrobacter and the M-clade Moraxella when visualizing PC1-2 (Fig 1B) as well as PC2-3 326 (Fig 1C). To assess what genes and gene functions may be contributing to the separation 327 between the A-, M- and P-clades' gene presence/absence, we performed an envfit function 328 analysis using the R package vegan. This analysis indicates that the separation along PC1 329 and 2 is due to differences in shell genes (*i.e.*, genes present in greater than two strains, but 330 in fewer than 90%), not to differences in their core genes (*i.e.*, genes present in between 331 90% and 100% of strains in the clade). Genes annotated with very diverse functions, falling 332 under almost every Cluster of Orthologous Groups (COG) category, strongly contribute to 333 the separation between clades (Fig. 1B, Table S5).

334 Despite their close phylogenetic relationship and high similarity in gene 335 presence/absence, Psychrobacter and Moraxella have different genomic properties. When 336 examined by genus rather than clade, *Psychrobacter* species have an average genome size 337 of 3.12 ± 0.27 Mb, while the average of Moraxella is 2.41 ± 0.28 Mb (pairwise Wilcoxon rank 338 sum test, p-value = 8e-07). Moraxella species have an average coding density of $86.4 \pm$ 339 1.33%, which is significantly higher than the Psychrobacter species average of 82.7 ± 1.33% 340 (pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum test, p-value = 1e-5). Despite being phylogenetically more 341 related to Psychrobacter species than to the other Moraxella species, the P-clade Moraxella 342 had significantly smaller genomes than *Psychrobacter* species and greater coding density

343 (pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum test, p-values = 0.004) while not significantly different from the
 344 M-clade *Moraxella* spp. (pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum test, p-values = 0.9).

345

346 *Psychrobacter* spp. ranges of growth temperatures differ from those of 347 **Moraxella.** To examine the phenotypic behaviors of the Moraxellaceae family, we applied 348 onto the previously generated phylogeny continuous trait mapping of the ranges of 349 temperatures at which species from the *Moraxellaceae* family were reported to grow [23, 24, 350 27, 28, 35–75] (Fig 2). The *Psychrobacter* spp. included here are reported to have a broad 351 range of growth temperatures (0 - 38 °C), but several strains, such as P. frigidicola and P. 352 glacincola, are psychrophilic (restricted to growth below 20 °C), which is a phenotype that is 353 not seen elsewhere in the family. Using the growth temperature information reported in the 354 literature for this comparison, we observed that *Psychrobacter* spp. have lower minimum 355 growth temperatures than Moraxella spp. from either the P- or M-clades (pairwise Wilcoxon 356 rank sum test, p-value = 5e-06), which have a narrow range of temperatures at which they 357 can grow (between 22 °C and 40 °C). In contrast to the minimum growth temperatures, there 358 is little variation in the maximum growth temperatures, except for the notable exceptions of 359 several *Psychrobacter* spp. that are restricted to growth at low temperatures.

360

361 *Psychrobacter* spp. from diverse isolation sources show differences in 362 cultivation temperatures. To explore further *Psychrobacte's* phenotypic diversity, we 363 established a strain collection of 85 Psychrobacter accessions isolated from diverse 364 locations (Fig S1A) and ecological sources (Fig S1B). The optimal growth temperatures for 365 each accession - provided by the catalogues from which the accessions were ordered - vary by isolation source (Kruskal-Wallis χ^2 = 43.4, df = 9, p-value = 2e-06), with mammalian-366 367 derived strains reported as having significantly higher cultivation temperatures than strains 368 from fish, invertebrates, sea water, terrestrial water, and soil samples (pairwise Wilcoxon 369 rank sum test, adjusted p-values < 0.05) (Fig. S1C). Latitude of isolation has a confounding 370 effect on reported optimal growth temperature, but explains very little of the variance (r^2 =

0.06, F(1,67) = 5.5, p-value = 0.02). Examples of *Psychrobacter* morphology (P. *ciconiae*and *P. immobilis A351*) visualized by scanning and transmission electron microscopy are
shown (Fig. S1D-G).

374

375 Few Psychrobacter strains can grow at 37 °C. For a direct comparison of 376 Psychrobacter phenotypes, we assessed the 85 Psychrobacter accessions for their ability to 377 grow under 24 different combination of medium, salt concentration and temperatue (Methods 378 & Supplemental Text). We calculated growth probabilities, or the fraction of growth positive 379 conditions out of total conditions tested, for every strain and given variable of the growth 380 curve screen, and compared them across the phylogeny and by isolation source. We 381 generated a robust genus-level phylogeny for Psychrobacter using 400 conserved marker 382 genes, with M. lincolnii as an outgroup (Fig. 3A). In agreement with single marker gene trees 383 generated using rpoB sequences [34], 16S rRNA gene sequences [82], and the P-clade 384 structure of *Moraxellaceae* family tree generated in this study, there is a phylogenetically 385 basal group of strains mostly isolated from mammals, and a phylogenetically derived group 386 isolated from mixed sources. Across the entire phylogeny, closely related strains have 387 similar growth probabilities (Pagel's λ ranging from 0.78 to 0.97, all corrected p-values < 1e-388 3). We observed that most *Psychrobacter* strains are tolerant of a wide variety of 389 temperatures between 4 and 25 °C and of salt concentrations between 0 and 5%; more than 390 90% of all strains can grow under these conditions. However, only 54% of the tested 391 accessions can grow at 10% added salt, and only 31% at 37 °C. 392 Since 37 °C was the most restrictive condition tested, we divided the strains into two 393 ecotypes: the "flexible ecotype" (FE) corresponds to strains that could grow at 37 °C, and the 394 "restricted ecotype" (RE) corresponds to strains that could not grow at 37 °C. FE strains are 395 psychrotrophic (mesophilic organisms with a low minimum growth temperature but an 396 optimal growth temperature above 15 °C), and RE strains are either psychrotrophs or true 397 psychrophiles (unable to grow at temperatures higher than 20 °C).

398 Notably, the basal clade of the *Psychrobacter*-only tree (Fig 3A) consists solely of FE 399 strains, while the rest of the phylogeny is made up of a mixture of FE and RE strains. 400 Furthermore, the basal FE strains have higher growth probabilities at 37 °C compared to 401 other FE strains (Pagel's λ = 0.89, p-value = 2e-5). Frequencies of RE and FE strains vary 402 significantly across sources of isolation: the FE group is significantly enriched in strains 403 derived from mammalian sources, and the RE group is significantly enriched in strains 404 derived from fish, sea water and food sources (χ^2 -test, all p-values adjusted for group size < 405 0.05). Nonetheless, both FE and RE ecotypes contain strains from other environments, 406 including mammalian-derived strains within the RE group. FE strains have higher growth 407 probabilities at low- to mid-salt concentrations (Wilcoxon rank sum test, all p-values < 0.05), 408 though there is no difference between FE and RE strains at 10% salt (Wilcoxon rank sum 409 test, W = 811.5, p = 0.7). After accounting for phylogenetic relatedness, the growth 410 probabilities under different salt concentrations are no longer significantly different between 411 FE and RE strains (F(1,83) < 24.0, p-value < 0.4), indicating that ecotype grossly maps onto 412 phylogeny. Finally, FE strains show higher growth probabilities in complex media compared 413 to defined media, while RE strains showed little difference between the two (Wilcoxon rank 414 sum test, W = 1.13e3, p-value = 0.0005). The difference in FE and RE strains' growth 415 probabilities under rich media remains significant after accounting for phylogenetic 416 relatedness (F(1,83) = 43.4, p-value = 0.002).

417

418 FE and RE Psychrobacter spp. have differences in genomic content. We looked 419 for genes differentiating the FE and RE ecotypes by performing a microbial pan-genome 420 wide association analysis (pan-GWAS) with the R package treeWAS [83] using gene 421 presence/absence data. While this analysis returned no significant results, strong 422 phylogenetic signals in the gene presence/absence data may have resulted in a loss of 423 power for the pan-GWAS. When exploring gene presence/absence via PCoA, accessions 424 from the basal FE-only subclade cluster closely together, indicating similar gene content. In 425 agreement with the phylogeny, these basal FE accessions are separated from the other

426 accessions on PC1, while the derived FE and RE accessions are more scattered, indicating 427 more diverse gene content (Fig 3B). As with the separation in the Moraxellaceae PCoA of gene 428 content, the separation between the basal FE-clade and the rest of the accessions is due largely 429 to presence/absence patterns in shell genes (present in greater than one strain but fewer than 430 90%), not core (present in between 90 to 100% of strains) or cloud genes (present only in one 431 strain), and all contributing genes were not unique to either clade. The separation is most 432 strongly driven by genes from the COG categories T, signal transduction ($r^2 = 0.65$, p-value 433 = 0.001); U, trafficking and secretion (r^2 = 0.63, p-value = 0.001); P, inorganic ion transport and metabolism ($r^2 = 0.56$, p-value = 0.001), and X, unassigned or no homologs in the COG 434 database ($r^2 = 0.51$, p-value = 0.001)(Fig 5B, Table S5). 435 436 We examined if there were qualitative differences in gene content between the FE

and RE ecotypes, especially in functions related to host colonization versus cold adaptation.
Both ecotypes carry genes associated with virulence [84–86] as well as genes that are
potentially related to psychrophilic lifestyles [87] (Table S6).

440 We next tested whether there was a predicted difference in adaptation to cold 441 environments in FE versus RE strains based on the amino acid properties of the protein-442 coding genes of their genomes. Amino acid traits have been implicated in psychrophilic 443 lifestyles, including increased abundance of glycine, decreased abundance of proline, 444 decreased arginine-to-lysine ratio, increased acidity, decreased isoelectric point, increased 445 hydrophobicity, and increased GRAVY, when comparing homologs from psychrophiles to 446 mesophiles or thermophiles [88–91]. Using these traits to define a protein sequence as cold-447 adaptive, REs have a higher proportion of cold-adapted proteins compared to FEs (Wilcoxon 448 rank sum test, W = 407, p-value = 0.0006) (Fig. 3C). However, after including phylogenetic 449 relatedness as a covariate, the difference is no longer significant (F(1,83) = 16.4, p = 0.2), 450 indicating that cold adaptation in the RE is associated with their derivation from the basal 451 strains. When comparing core proteins (present in 99 - 100% of accessions) RE strains have 452 a higher percentage of cold-adapted core proteins than FE strains (Wilcoxon rank sum test,

453 W = 404, p-value = 0.0004) (Fig. 3D), which is again confounded with phylogenetic

454 relatedness (F(1,83) = 12.4, p = 0.2).

455

456 FEs exhibit higher transposon copy numbers than RE strains. To determine 457 whether there are genomic differences between the FE and RE ecotypes at a broader level 458 than individual genes, we next examined the proportions of each genome devoted to each 459 COG category. There are few differences between the ecotypes by COG category (Fig. S2). 460 FEs have a significantly higher proportion of "L" category genes (replication-, recombination-, 461 and repair-related genes) than REs (Wilcoxon rank sum test, W = 1.15e3, p-value = 0.0005; 462 Fig. 4A). In particular, this difference stems from a higher proportion of transposon copies 463 per FE genome than per RE genome (Wilcoxon rank sum test, W = 1.08e3, p-value = 0.003; 464 Fig. 4B). As expected from the distribution of the RE and FE across the phylogeny, 465 phylogenetic relatedness is confounded with ecotype in the effect on these difference 466 (F(1,83) < 21.3, p = 0.1).467 Increased transposon activity can lead to interruption and decay of functional protein-468 coding genes, leading to an increase in pseudogenes [92]. Given the higher number of 469 transposons in FE strains, we next examined the number of predicted pseudogenes 470 between the ecotypes. FE genomes are predicted to have a higher number of pseudogenes 471 than RE strains (Wilcoxon rank sum test, W = 997, p-value = 0.03; Fig. 4C). Finally, we 472 compared the average genome size between the ecotypes, as bacterial genomes are known 473 to strongly select against the accumulation of pseudogenes [93]. FE strains have 474 significantly smaller genomes than RE strains (Wilcoxon rank sum test, W = 524, p-value = 475 0.02; Fig. 4D). As with the other genomic properties, phylogeny confounds the comparison 476 between the FE and RE groups' pseudogene proportion and genome size (F(1,83) < 3.4, p-477 value < 0.6). 478

479 Polar bear feces collected from the Arctic ice have high abundance of

480 *Psychrobacter.* We surveyed the gut microbial diversity of 86 polar bear fecal samples, 76

wild and 10 captive, by 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. *Psychrobacter* was detectable
in 76/86 of the samples (Fig 5A). The large majority of *Psychrobacter* sequences (83%) were
assigned to unclassified *Psychrobacter* spp.. We detected RE strain *P. immobilis* in 50% of
samples with a mean abundance of 3%, and FE strain *P. pulmonis* in 8% of samples with a
mean abundance of 0.5%.

486 Polar bear diet significantly impacted the abundance of *Psychrobacter* spp. (Kruskal-Wallis $x^2 = 13.5$, df = 3, p-value = 0.004); we found that polar bears feeding on mammalian 487 488 prey, including seals and reindeer, had significantly higher abundances of unclassified 489 Psychrobacter spp. than polar bears feeding on avian prey or mixed diets (pairwise Wilcoxon 490 rank-sum test, adjusted p-values < 0.05) (Fig 5B). Unsurprisingly, diet data is confounded 491 with location (Kruskal-Wallis x^2 = 8.6, df = 4, p-value = 0.0009) and year (Kruskal-Wallis x^2 = 492 16.6, df = 5, p-value = 0.005) of sample collection. Captive status did not significantly impact 493 mean abundances, but there is a trend of wild bear samples having higher unclassified 494 *Psychrobacter* spp. mean relative abundance than samples from captive bears (Wilcoxon 495 rank sum test, W = 222, p-value = 0.08).

496

497 **Carbon source utilization patterns.** To elucidate the effect that host dietary 498 nutrition may have on Psychrobacter growth, we tested the maximum change in absorbance 499 for 190 different carbon sources by a subset of Psychrobacter accessions including 9 FE 500 and 10 RE strains (Fig 5C). All Psychrobacter spp. reached significantly higher OD_{600} 501 growing on amino acid carbon sources compared to carbohydrates or sugar alcohols 502 (pairwise Wilcoxon rank-sum test, adjusted p-values < 0.05). Psychrobacter spp. reach the 503 highest OD₆₀₀ growing on fatty acids, surfactants, and peptides. There was no significant 504 difference between FE and RE strains' changes in absorbance in these assays (Wilcoxon 505 rank sum test, W = 1.55e6, p-value = 0.08).

506

507 *Psychrobacter* strain survival in gnotobiotic mice. To assess the survivorship of 508 *Psychrobacter* in a mammalian gut, we tested 8 accessions for persistence in the

509 gastrointestinal tracts of germ-free mice (Fig. 5D). Chosen for phylogenetic breadth, we 510 tested 4 FE strains, P. ciconiae, P. faecalis PBFP-1, P. lutiphocae, and P. pacificensis, and 4 511 RE strains, P. cibarius JG-220, P. immobilis S3, P. namhaensis, and P. okhotskensis MD17. 512 Of the four FE strains tested, three were able to persist in the mice, while the FE strain P. 513 faecalis PBFP-1 and none of the RE strains were detectable after three weeks. Phylogenetic 514 relatedness does not correlate with ability to colonize, as FE strain P. pacificensis was able 515 to persist, while closely related RE strains, *P. namhaensis* and *P. okhotskensis*, were not. 516 Phylogenetic placement does correlate with colonization density however, as the two most 517 basal strains tested, P. lutiphocae and P. ciconiae, colonized at significantly higher densities 518 than the most derived strain that was successful, *P. pacificensis* (pairwise Wilcoxon rank 519 sum test, both adjusted p-values = 0.0007). 520

521 Discussion

522

523 The phylogenomic and phenotypic characterizations of the *Psychrobacter* genus 524 indicates a common ancestor with *Moraxella*, all of which are restricted to growth at higher 525 temperatures. Furthermore, the most basal members of the *Psychrobacter* clade are 526 Moraxella species and species of Psychrobacter that can grow at 37 °C, unlike most of the 527 derived *Psychrobacter* species. Our extensive phenotyping indicated that members of the 528 *Psychrobacter* genus grow at a wide range of salinities and temperatures, but it is the ability 529 to grow at 37 °C that distinguishes strains the most, and which we used to define the two 530 ecotypes, FE and RE. Our analysis of a large collection of wild polar bear feces shows both 531 RE and FE strains are present, however tests in germfree mice support the notion that only 532 FE may colonize the mammal gut, whereas RE may be allochthonous members or 533 environmental contaminants. Together with previous reports, this work indicates the genus 534 *Psychrobacter* is a lineage of pathobionts, some of which have evolved to inhabit the colder 535 environments of their warm-bodied hosts.

536 Our results corroborate those of Bakermann, who used the isolation source of 537 *Psychrobacter* as a proxy for temperature adaptation to conclude the genus has a 538 mesophilic ancestor [34]. By assessing growth under the same 24 conditions for 85 strains, 539 we remove any ambiguity that can stem from whether an isolate can indeed grow at the 540 temperature of its source of isolation. This is particularly important in light of our results 541 showing that several strains isolated from mammals proved to be RE, and that many of the 542 FE strains came from sea water or other relatively cold environments.

543 Psychrobacter's sister taxon Moraxella in particular is commonly isolated from host 544 mucosal tissues, and exhibits the reduced genome size and nutritional fastidiousness 545 common to many host-dependent organisms. *Moraxella* contains species that are frequently 546 associated with human respiratory infections, primarily M. catarrhalis [84], as well as 547 livestock conjunctivitis, for example, *M. bovis* or *M. equis* [94]. Since they are commonly 548 found in healthy individuals and can cause disease in healthy individuals [95], Moraxella are 549 best categorized as pathobionts and not dedicated or opportunistic pathogens. Several 550 species of Moraxella appear basally in the P-clade of the Moraxellaceae family-level 551 phylogeny, suggesting that *Psychrobacter* evolved from a "Moraxella-like" ancestor. This is 552 supported by the fact that both phylogenetically basal and derived *Psychrobacter* strains 553 carry genes related to virulence functions, and that many of the basal *Psychrobacter* strains 554 exhibit growth defects in liquid culture, similar to the fastidiousness of Moraxella.

555 Despite clear phenotypic differentiation, Psychrobacter and Moraxella have similar 556 genomic content, although Psychrobacter genomes are larger. A psychrophile emerging 557 from an apparently mesophilic background through widespread horizontal gene transfer has 558 been suggested before in the genus *Psychroflexus* [96], though the study was limited to 559 comparing two genomes. In fact, it has been suggested before that this is Psychrobacter's 560 evolutionary trajectory [34], and although many Psychrobacter trees are constructed using a 561 Moraxella outgroup, Psychrobacter's potential pathogenic origin has not been widely 562 discussed. Horizontal gene transfer would explain Psychrobacter's larger genome size 563 compared to *Moraxella* despite lower coding density, as many newly acquired horizontally

transferred genes are expected to be inactivated and pruned by the recipient genome [96,

565 97].

566 Our data show that the largest phenotypic divide within the genus is the ability to 567 grow at 37 °C, which we used to sort strains into FE and RE. FE strains make up the basal 568 clade of the *Psychrobacter* phylogeny. Their smaller genomes show less cold-adaptation in 569 their protein-coding genes than RE strains with proportionally fewer cold-adaptive proteins 570 and more transposons. The three of four FE strains tested were able to colonize germ-free 571 mice, whereas none of the RE strains could, indicating that growth at 37 °C may be 572 necessary (although not sufficient) to colonize mammals. Opportunistic infections in 573 mammals caused by *Psychrobacter* strains are limited to *P. sanguinis*, *P. phenylpyruvicus*, 574 P. faecalis, and P. pulmonis [32], which while are all FE strains. Our results suggest that the 575 FE strains are maintaining an ancestral ability to grow at mammalian body temperatures and 576 colonize mammalian host bodies, while RE strains have adopted a psychrophilic lifestyle. 577 Adaptation to psychrophilic lifestyles usually arises conjointly with high tolerance for 578 salt, but at very high salt concentrations, RE strains had similar growth probabilities as FE 579 strains. Both FE and RE strains carry genes relating to both salt tolerance and cold 580 adaptation functions, such as compatible solute accumulation or membrane fluidity control. 581 The similar salt tolerances of FE and RE strains is thus not surprising, given that both 582 ecotypes have enough psychrophilic adaptation to grow well at 4 $^{\circ}$ C. There may be a 583 difference between ecotypes in salt tolerance and cold tolerance in more extreme conditions 584 than those we tested.

585 Phylogenetically basal FE strains show stronger growth at 37 °C than

586 phylogenetically derived FE strains. It may be that genes responsible for ancestral strains'

ability to grow at 37 °C were lost between the differentiation of the basal and derived clades.

588 Subsequently derived *Psychrobacter* strains could have then acquired other genes providing

589 the same FE phenotype as the basal strains, making pinpointing the genes responsible for

590 the FE phenotype difficult. Genes that are unannotated and do not have homologs in

591 databases such as UniRef or COG may also play a role in phenotypic and genomic

592 differentiation of FE and RE strains, so future *in vitro* phenotypic screens may be helpful in 593 assigning function to the many hypothetical genes in the *Psychrobacter* pan-genome. 594 The difference in ecotypes could also be due to gene regulation rather than gene 595 presence and absence. There has been some transcriptional work done in *P. arcticus* [98]. 596 but it focused on comparing gene expression at ambient temperatures (around 20 °C) to 597 ultra-low temperatures (-10 °C) to study P. arcticus's evolutionary approach to cold-598 adaptation. Future studies might use the same techniques to identify differences in gene 599 expression responsible for FE strains' phenotypic plasticity by comparing gene expression at 600 low temperatures (for example, 4 °C) to higher temperatures (37 °C). 601 Our data reveal clear genomic signatures between the ecotypes. In particular, we 602 observed higher transposon proportions and smaller genomes in FE strains compared to RE 603 strains. Transposon-mediated genome reduction in host-associated bacteria compared to 604 their free-living relatives has been observed in as-of-yet unculturable light-producing 605 symbionts from ceratoid deep-sea anglerfish [99]. While none of the *Psychrobacter* spp. 606 exhibit the fastidiousness of truly host-dependent bacteria [100], it is striking that FE strains 607 were more likely to grow in nutritionally complex media than defined media, compared to the 608 RE strains, for which nutritional complexity had little impact. 609 It is possible that FE strains have enough contact with mammalian hosts that it

610 remains advantageous for them to maintain their ability to grow at higher temperatures in 611 rich nutritional environments. Psychrobacter spp. have been reported previously in the skin, 612 respiratory, and gut microbiomes of several marine mammals, including whales, porpoises, 613 seals, and sea lions; it could be argued that *Psychrobacter* presence is due to contamination 614 from sea water. Polar bears hunt seals on sea ice and their diet during the summer includes 615 bird eggs. Our data show that polar bears consuming seal meat have higher Psychrobacter 616 abundance than those consuming eggs, which may result from their time on the sea ice, 617 particularly since FE and RE were equally represented. Psychrobacter spp. grew to high 618 densities when grown on amino acids, peptide mixtures, and fatty acids: all carbon sources 619 that would be abundant in the gut of a polar bear eating fatty seal meat. This may allow FE

620 *Psychrobacter* strains to thrive in the bear gut. Given that the majority of the *Psychrobacter*

621 diversity detected from the polar bear feces could not be classified, much remains to be

622 learned about the natural history of this genus.

623 The history of the genus *Psychrobacter* is one of an ancestral pathobiont or

624 pathogen, some of the descendants of which attenuated their own pathogenicity to broaden

625 their ecological distribution. The emergence of a psychrotroph - a remarkable generalist -

from a background of a more specialized pathobiont or pathogen showcases the adaptability

627 of bacteria, and particularly *Proteobacteria*, to their environments.

628

629 **Data availability.** Raw sequences for the *Psychrobacter* genome sequencing and

630 polar bear feces 16S rRNA gene sequencing, as well as assembled *Psychrobacter*

631 genomes, are available in the European Nucleotide Archive under the accession

632 PRJEB40380. Annotated Psychrobacter genomes are available at

633 ftp://ftp.tue.mpg.de/pub/ebio/dwelter. Raw data, R notebooks, and Python scripts for the

analyses are available at https://github.com/dkwelter/Welter_et_al_2020.

635

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652

- 653 Competing interest.
- 654 We have no competing interests to declare.

655

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944

946 Figure Legends

947 Figure 1. Genomic and phenotypic diversity in the family Moraxellaceae. A) The 948 Moraxellaceae family phylogeny was constructed with 51 diverse Moraxellaceae genomes 949 using the software PhyloPhlan, which constructs a phylogeny using fasttree with 1000 950 bootstraps, refined by RAxML under the PROTCATG model. Amino acid sequences from 951 400 marker genes were used in the alignment. Branches with bootstrap support greater than 952 70% are represented by filled circles. The scale bar represents the average amino acid 953 substitutions per site. Pseudomonas aeruginosa was used as an outgroup. Clades are 954 highlighted in colored blocks, and branches are colored by genus. Isolation source is 955 depicted in a color strip, along with a heatmap of scaled notable genome characteristics that 956 differ between the genera, with 0 representing the smallest value present and 1 the largest 957 value (*P. aeruginosa* not included). GS = Genome size, ranging between 1.8 Mb and 4.5 958 Mb. PCoA = PC1 values from a PCoA based on gene presence/absence data. CD = 959 genome coding density, ranging from 80% to 89%. Growth temperature range data was 960 collected from type strain publications. B) PC1 and 2 of a PCoA analysis of a binary matrix of 961 gene presence/absence for 51 species of Moraxellaceae, explaining 32% and 14% of the 962 variation, respectively. Each genome is represented by one point, colored by genus. The P-963 clade Moraxella spp. are represented by yellow points with red outlines. The frequencies of 964 genes associated with each COG category were associated with the PCoA axes as 965 environmental vectors via the envfit function. All COG categories are significant (BH 966 correction, p-value < 0.05), except L (replication, recombination and repair) and Z 967 (cytoskeleton assembly and regulation) which are shown in pink vectors. COG categories 968 with an $r^2 > 0.5$ are shown in dark grey, while categories with an $r^2 < 0.5$ are shown in light 969 grey. C) PC2 and 3, explaining 14% and 5% of the variation.

970

Figure 2. *Psychrobacter's* restriction to cold temperatures is a newly emerged
 trait in the family *Moraxellaceae*. Continuous trait mapping growth temperature ranges of

973 51 species from the *Moraxellaceae* family, taken from type strain publications. Values at
974 nodes are imputed by maximum likelihood analysis. The phylogeny was constructed by
975 marker-gene analysis including 400 genes, as in Fig. 1. Genera are indicated with colored
976 boxes.

977

978 Figure 3. Psychrobacter phenotypic and genomic diversity. A) Using 85 979 *Psychrobacter* genomes, we constructed a genus-level phylogeny using fasttree with 1000 980 bootstraps, refined by RAxML under the PROTCATG model. Amino acid sequences from 981 400 marker genes were used in the alignment. Branches with bootstrap support greater than 982 70% are represented by filled circles. The scale bar represents the average amino acid 983 substitutions per site. M. lincolnii was used as an outgroup. Type strain isolate names are 984 indicated in bold and italicized type. Strains indicated with * next to their name exhibited 985 growth defects in liquid media, and were tested on solid agar media instead. Strains 986 indicated with ** exhibited growth defects on solid and liquid media, and were tested on solid 987 media supplemented with 0.1% Tween80. Strains indicated with a mouse silhouette were 988 later used in germ-free mouse colonization studies (Fig 5). Isolation source is depicted in 989 column 1 as a color strip. Columns 2 – 10 represent the growth probabilities of each strain 990 for each condition; media complexity is represented in yellow, salt concentration is 991 represented in blue, and temperature is represented in red. Type strain data supports our 992 temperature data except where indicated - colored triangles show conditions in which we 993 expected growth but did not observe it, while white triangles represent conditions in which 994 we observed growth we did not expect. The ecotype is shown in column 11 in a colorstrip, 995 and in the color of the branches. B) The first two PCs of a PCoA of a gene presence-996 absence matrix of all 85 of the included accessions, colored by ecotype. The basal clade 997 strains are shown within the ellipse. The frequencies of genes associated with each COG 998 category were associated with the PCoA axes as environmental vectors. All COG categories 999 are significant (BH correction, p-value < 0.05), except G (carbohydrate transport and 1000 metabolism) and H (coenzyme transport and metabolism) which are shown in pink vectors.

1001 COG categories with an $r^2 > 0.5$ are shown in dark grey, while categories with an $r^2 < 0.5$ are 1002 shown in light grey. C) The proportion of genes per genome falling in the highest quartile of 1003 "high cold adaptive amino acid traits" from each ecotype (n = 26 for FE, n = 59 for RE). D) 1004 the number of "core genes" (present in all 85 *Psychrobacter* accessions) that fall into the 1005 highest quartile of "high cold adaptive amino acid traits" (n = 26 for FE, n = 59 for RE). For all 1006 mean comparisons, the Wilcoxon rank sum test was used. ** indicates a p-value < 0.005, *** 1007 indicates a p-value < 0.0005.

1008

1009Figure 4. Divergence of ecotypes could be driven by transposon-mediated

1010 genome reduction. A) proportion of Cluster of Orthologous Groups (COG) category "L"

1011 (replication, recombination, and repair related) genes per genome. B) copy numbers per

1012 genome of all the transposases in the *Psychrobacter* pan-genome. C) Proportion of

1013 predicted pseudogenes per genome. D) *Psychrobacter* accession genome size in

megabases. For all mean comparisons, the Wilcoxon rank sum test was used. * indicates a
p-value < 0.05, ** indicates a p-value < 0.005. For each comparison, n = 26 for FE strains

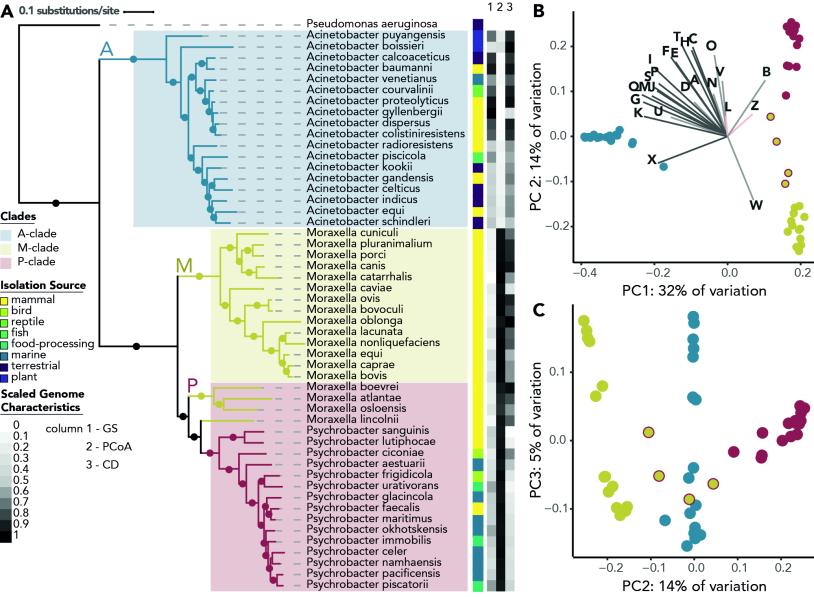
1016 and n = 59 for RE strains.

1017

1018 Figure 5. Psychrobacter strains occur and persist in the mammalian gut. A) 1019 Relative abundance at the genus level of 16S rRNA gene OTUs, clustered at 99% identity, 1020 of 86 polar bear fecal samples. Psychrobacter OTUs are colored red. B) Psychrobacter 1021 relative abundance in comparison to taxonomy of prey consumed by polar bears (n = 1 for 1022 Actinoterygii, n = 24 for Aves, n = 16 for mixed prey, and n = 32 for Mammalia). C) The 1023 average change in OD600 of 19 Psychrobacter accessions grown on 190 different 1024 substrates as sole carbon sources, compared across different classes of compounds. D) 1025 CFUs per gram of cecal contents of gnotobiotic mice is shown in comparison to accession 1026 phylogeny. 4 mice were tested per Psychrobacter strain, except P. lutiphocae, which was 1027 tested in 8 mice. FE strains are shown in yellow, while RE strains are shown in blue. The 1028 phylogeny was constructed as described in Fig. 3. Branches with bootstrap support higher

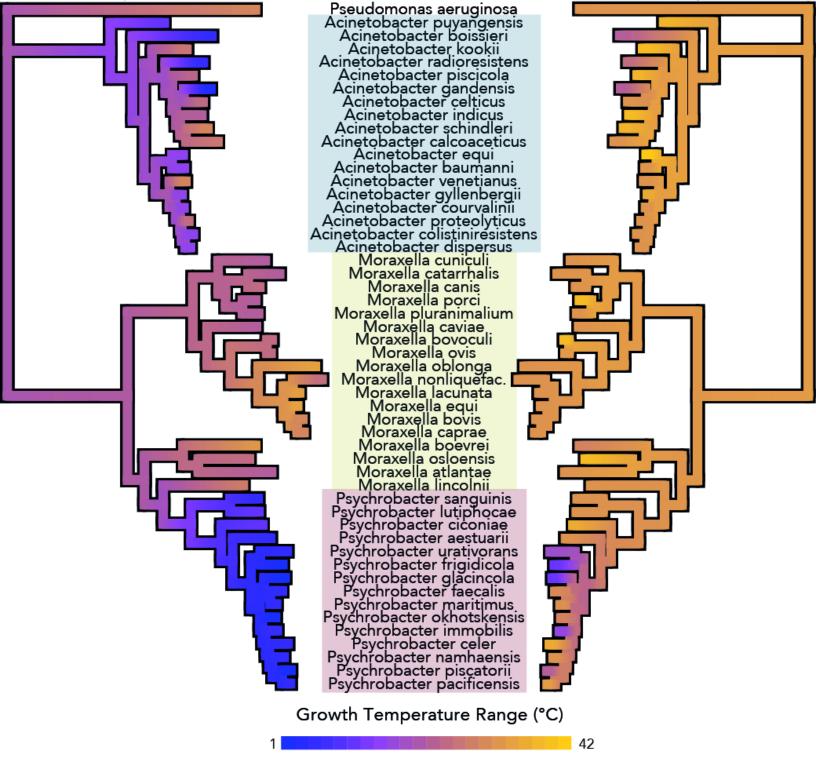
- 1029 than 70% are indicated with a filled circle.
- 1030 Means were compared using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test. *** indicates a p-value < 0.0005,
- 1031 ** indicates p-value < 0.005, * indicates p < 0.05.

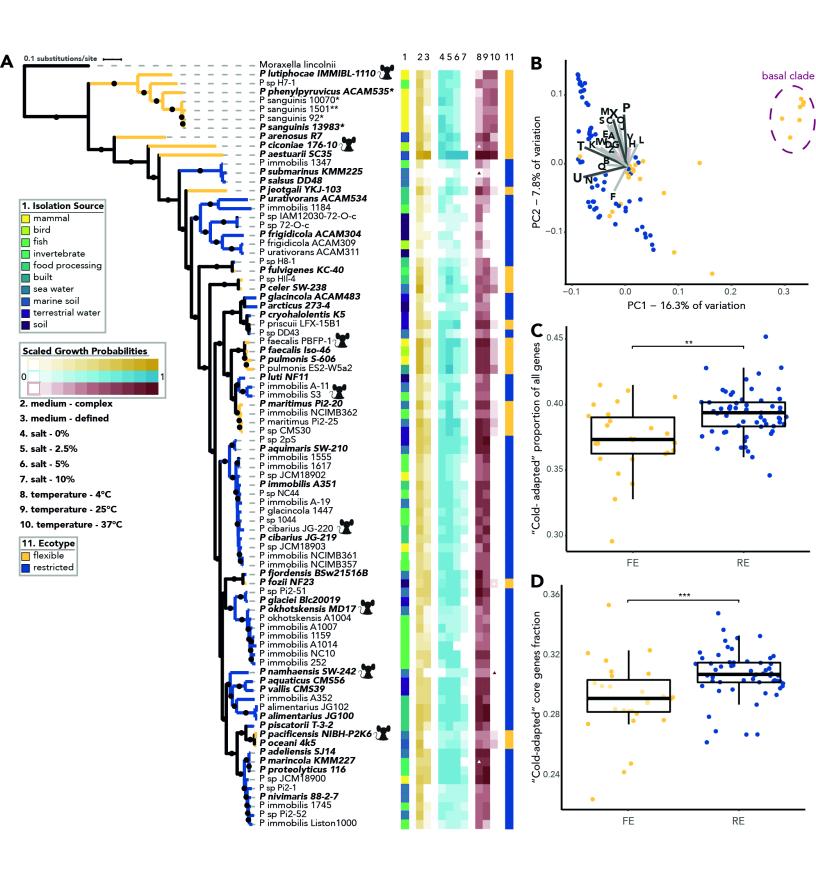
A 0.1 substitutions/site

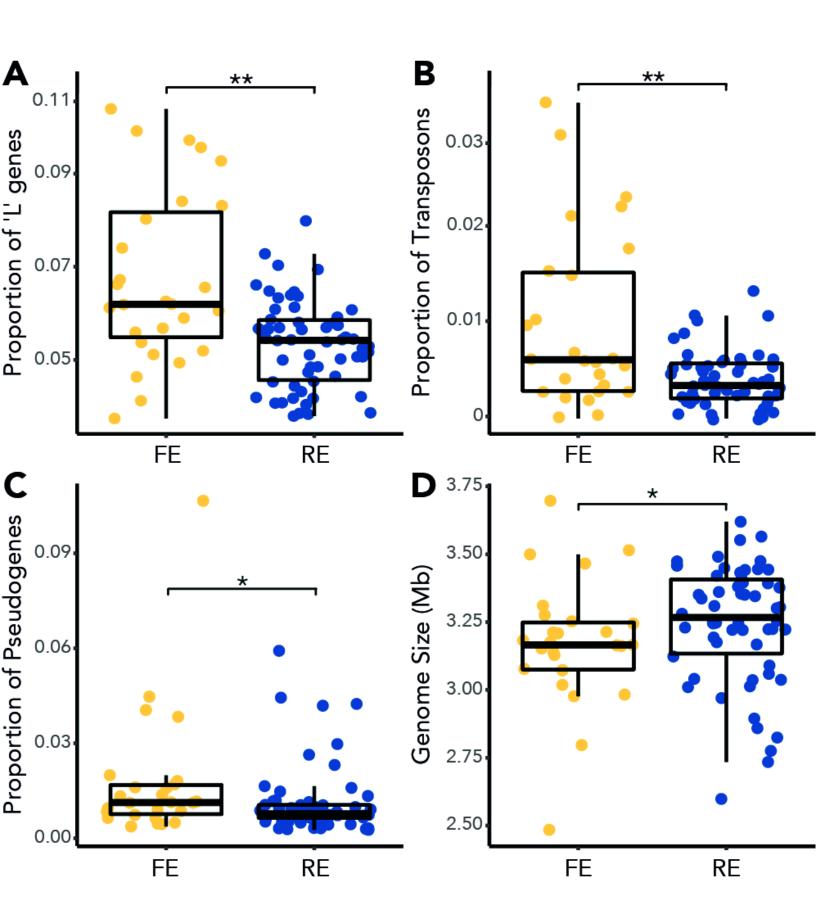


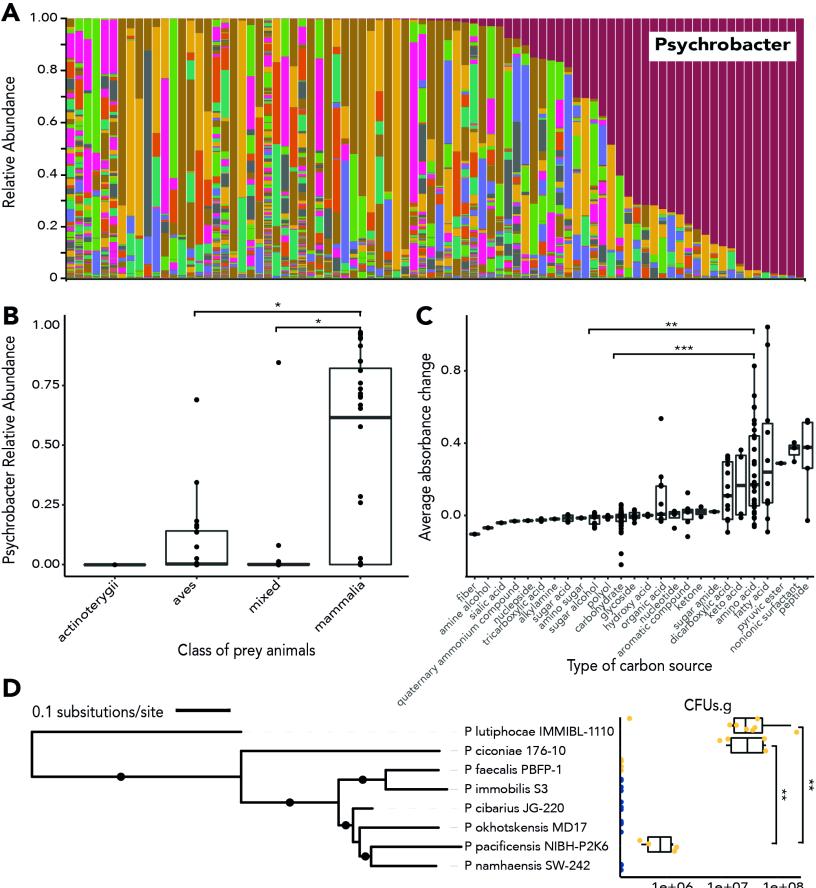
Maximum Temperature

Minimum Temperature









1e+08 1e+06 1e+07