Supplementary Information for

Short-chain alkanes fuel mussel and sponge *Cycloclasticus* **symbionts from deep-sea gas and oil seeps**

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Supplementary Note 1

No evidence for degradation of the PAH naphthalene in *Cycloclasticus***-bearing** *B. heckerae* **gill tissues**

Before our 2015 cruise to the Campeche Knolls, we assumed that the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* of *B. heckerae* can degrade PAHs based on indications for this ability in *Cycloclasticus*-bearing *B. heckerae* we collected during our 2006 cruise to Campeche Knolls¹. We therefore examined if symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* can use PAH during our 2015 cruise by incubating symbiont-bearing gill tissues from f *B. heckerae* individuals with isotopically labeled naphthalene. We chose this small PAH molecule because it can be easily degraded by marine Cycloclasticus that are known to grow on PAH². Naphthalene mineralization was not detected in *B. heckerae* gill tissues under the experimental conditions described below (see Methods). Positive controls with *Cycloclasticus pugetii* ATCC 51542 respired approximately 50% of labeled naphthalene to $CO₂$ within 48 hours (Supplementary Fig. 7). Experiments with isotopically labeled short-chain alkanes were not performed because the genomic evidence for this metabolism was not discovered until months after the cruise when we analyzed the genomes and transcriptomes of the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* and no longer had live mussels.

Supplementary Note 2

Genes involved in PAH degradation pathways could not be detected in metagenomes of *B. heckerae* **and sponges.**

To examine if the genes known to be used for PAH degradation were present in the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus*, we searched our unassembled metagenomic and metatranscriptomic libraries for genes involved in PAH degradation using BLAST and BBMap. To ensure that we could find genes in the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* that were homologous to known PAH degradation genes, but might have only low sequence similarity, we used a very low stringency value of only 60% nucleotide identity in our searches. Given i) the high read depths, which ranged between 10 and 49 million in our metagenomic libraries, ii) the fact that we sequenced multiple host individuals, and iii) our low-stringency search parameters, we assume that we would have detected at least some of the genes involved in PAH degradation, if these were present in the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus*. In free-living *Cycloclasticus* that degrade PAH and whose genomes have been sequenced, such as *C. pugetii*, PAH degradation genes are present in multiple copies and are easily detected at even low sequencing depths.

In Supplementary Table 5, we show the number of normalized reads from metagenomic mussel and sponge libraries that had at least 60% nucleotide identity to key metabolic genes in *C. pugetii*. The table first lists three examples of genes common to *C. pugetti* and the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus*, and shows that these were found in high read numbers. The table then lists the 47 genes known to be involved in PAH metabolism in *C. pugetti*, and shows that for the vast majority of these genes, no reads were found in mussel and sponge metagenomes. The very few reads that did map to PAH genes most likely originated from environmental contaminants.

Supplementary Note 3

Genomic structure of the *Cycloclasticus* **symbiont pHMO encoding genes**

B. heckerae Cycloclasticus genomes contained two *pmoCAB* operons. In contrast to their contiguous arrangement in the *B. heckerae Cycloclasticus*, in the sponge *Cycloclasticus* symbionts the *pmoCAB* operon was split, i.e., the *pmoAB* and *pmoC* genes were located on two different contigs. All three genes from the split *pmoCAB* operon were highly expressed in the sponge *Cycloclasticus* symbionts, indicating that the operon is functional (Fig. 6). Indeed, an ancillary copy of *pmoC* plays an essential role in the methanotrophic growth of *Methylococcus capsulatus*³ .

Supplementary Note 4

No evidence for methane use by the *Cycloclasticus* **symbionts**

Genes encoding key enzymes in methane assimilation pathways such as the ribulose monophosphate pathway and the serine cycle were not found in the *Cycloclasticus* symbiont genomes. It is theoretically possible that the moderately expressed genes encoding serine hydroxymethyltransferase (SHMT) could direct methane-derived carbon into the amino-acids serine and glycine. However, SHMT is commonly used by bacteria for the biosynthesis of amino acids during growth on multicarbon compounds⁴. For example, SHMT expression levels remained unchanged irrespective of whether the methanotroph *Methylocystis* sp. SB2 was grown on methane or ethanol⁵.

Supplementary Note 5

Incorporation of alkane-derived carbon by the *Cycloclasticus* **symbionts**

The genomes of the *Cycloclasticus* symbionts from all three host species encoded genes that enable them to fix carbon derived from short chain alkanes. Incorporation of alkane-derived carbon requires the synthesis of acyl-coenzyme A $(CoA)^4$. Coding regions annotated as acetyl-CoA (C2), propionyl-CoA (C3) and butyryl-CoA (C4) synthetases were present in the genomes of all symbiotic *Cycloclasticus*. In the following, we discuss the pathways predicted to be involved in incorporating C2-C4 acyl-CoAs into biomass.

Supplementary Note 6

Genes for C3 assimilation via the methylcitrate cycle were highly expressed in symbiotic *Cycloclasticus*

Propionyl-CoA synthetase is essential for the incorporation of carbon from propane and initiates the methylcitrate cycle, in which propionate is oxidized to pyruvate, which is then used for biosynthesis and energy production^{6,7}. The genes encoding propionyl-CoA synthetase ($prpE$) were the most highly expressed acyl-CoA synthethases in the *Cycloclasticus* symbionts of *B. heckerae* and the encrusting sponge (Fig. 4, Supplementary Tables 6, 7). In the *Cycloclasticus* symbionts of *B. heckerae*, methylcitrate cycle genes were all highly expressed. In particular, expression levels of the gene encoding methylisocitrate lyase (*prpB*), the rate-limiting enzyme that catalyzes the last step of the cycle to form succinate and pyruvate, were nearly as high as those for pHMO (Fig. 4, Supplementary Tables 6, 7). In the two encrusting sponge individuals, genes involved in the methylcitrate cycle were also expressed, although not as highly as in the mussel symbionts. These results provide further support for the hypothesis that short-chain alkanes are metabolized by the *Cycloclasticus* symbionts. Furthermore, they suggest that propane is a major source of carbon and energy for the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* of mussels, and likely also for those of the encrusting sponge.

Supplementary Note 7

Assimilation of acetyl-CoA (C2) and butyryl-CoA (C4)

The assimilation of ethane (C2) via acetyl-CoA into biomass occurs through the glyoxylate bypass and requires two enzymes, isocitrate lyase (ICL) and malate synthase $(MS)^8$. Genes encoding for ICL and MS were present in the genomes of all symbiotic *Cycloclasticus*. In the mussel *Cycloclasticus*, expression levels of these genes were considerably higher (ICL) or as high (MS) as the expression levels of single-copy housekeeping genes (Fig. 4, Supplementary Tables 5, 6).

For the assimilation of C2 compounds, isocitrate is cleaved to glyoxylate via ICL. Isocitrate is also a substrate for the catabolic tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, in which it is oxidized to α-ketoglutarate by isocitrate dehydrogenase (IDH). Relative expression levels of ICL and IDH are therefore good indicators of carbon flux between the anabolic glyoxylate bypass and the catabolic TCA cycle. In the mussel *Cycloclasticus*, expression levels of ICL were higher than those of IDH, suggesting that C2 was routed into the assimilatory glyoxylate bypass (Fig. 4, Supplementary Tables 5, 6).

In the *Cycloclasticus* from the two encrusting sponge individuals, only one expressed ICL and MS genes, and at low levels (Fig. 6, Supplementary Tables 5, 6). Furthermore, expression ratios of ICL to IDH were much lower than those of the mussel *Cycloclasticus*. We speculate that these differences reflect differences in the use of ethane by the mussel and sponge *Cycloclasticus*. Further support for this assumption is that Group X-like pHMOs, which are suggested to oxidize ethane⁹, were highly expressed in the mussel *Cycloclasticus* but not present in the sponge *Cycloclasticus* genomes and transcriptomes.

Unlike cultivated *Cycloclasticus*, the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* genomes contained genes encoding signature proteins involved in C4 metabolism, such as 3-hydroxybutyryl-CoA dehydratase, 3-hydroxybutyryl-CoA dehydrogenase and enoyl-CoA hydratase (Fig. 4, Supplementary Tables 5, 6). Although the expression of these enzymes was generally not higher than housekeeping genes, the incorporation of butane would be feasible in the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* (Fig. 4).

Supplementary Note 8

The TCA cycle

While the expression levels for most TCA cycle enzymes were low to moderate (Fig. 5, Supplementary Tables 5, 6), the *Cycloclasticus* symbionts presumably derive the bulk of their cellular energy needs via the oxidation of C2-C4 substrates through the TCA cycle. A similar trend, with the TCA cycle enzymes constituting just 0.2-0.6 % of the total soluble protein, was observed when *Methylocella silvestris* was grown on propane as the sole carbon and energy source¹⁰.

Supplementary Note 9

Short-chain alkanes can be converted to polyhydroxyalkanoate for carbon storage

Polyhydroxyalkanoates are carbon and energy rich compounds commonly stored by bacteria, and can play an important role in bacteria-invertebrate symbioses 11,12 . Polyhydroxybutyrate (PHB) is a common bacterial polyhydroxyalkanoate, and is generally synthesized from acetyl-CoA via condensation to acetoacetyl-CoA and its reduction to 3 hydroxybutyryl-CoA13. Finally, 3-hydroxybutyryl-CoA is polymerized to PHB via PHB synthase¹³. The expression of PHB synthase was substantial in the *Cycloclasticus* symbionts, suggesting similar to cultivated *Cycloclasticus*14, the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* actively synthesize PHB (Fig. 4, Supplementary Tables 5, 6).

Supplementary Note 10

An unusual sulfur oxidation (sox) operon in the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus*

Another unique feature found in the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* genomes, yet absent in the PAH-degrading cultivated *Cycloclastiucs*, was the *sox* operon, which encodes periplasmic sulfuroxidizing proteins¹⁵. The *soxCDXYZAB* gene arrangement resembled the unusual *sox* operon that was described in *Congregibacter*/NOR5 clade^{16,17}. The *Cycloclasticus* SoxB sequences clustered with the respective sequences from the *Congregibacter*/NOR5 clade (Supplementary Fig. 6). *Congregibacter* and *Cycloclasticus* have been found to co-exist in association with sea-surface oil aggregates¹⁸, which can contain organic sulfur¹⁹. It was recently suggested that *Congregibacter* sulfur oxidation proteins degrade trace amounts of thiosulfate, possibly as a means of detoxification, without substantial energy yield 17 . Indeed, the poor expression of most of the *sox* genes in the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus*, excluding the substantially expressed *soxY* and

soxZ genes that encode a sulfur carrier complex²⁰, is atypical of metabolically active thiotrophs²¹ (Supplementary Tables 5, 6).

Supplementary Methods

Incubations with isotopically labeled naphthalene

Gill tissue from four *B. heckerae* mussels was dissected immediately upon retrieval (the tissues from these four animals were also used for transcriptome analyses, Supplementary Table 2). Incubations were done with intact gill pieces that displaced approximately 0.5 ml seawater, as well as with 0.5 ml of gill homogenate (from different individuals). As a positive control we used *Cycloclasticus pugetii* ATCC 51542, obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) and inoculated onboard in Marine Agar 2216 amended with a small crystal of unlabeled naphthalene. The culture was washed with naphthalene-free 0.2μ m filtered seawater and incubated at approximately 10^5 cells ml⁻¹. Negative controls included only naphthalene incubations, as well as incubations with formaldehyde-fixed tissue and cultures, non-symbiotic foot tissues and gill tissues from two *B. brooksi* individuals.

Naphthalene, uniformly labeled with 14 C [ring-14C (U)] (ca. 25 mCi mmol⁻¹), as well as ¹⁴C labeled sodium bicarbonate (ca. 50 mCi mmol⁻¹) was obtained from Hartmann Analytic (Braunschweig, Germany Germany). The incubations were carried out by shaking samples at 4 °C, in 10 ml of 0.2 µm filtered seawater in 20 ml glass vials crimped with Teflon caps, following addition of $6.6 - 10$ kBq (400000 – 600000 DPM) of ¹⁴C naphthalene diluted in 0.1 ml of 20% ethanol. All treatments were conducted in triplicate. At each time point (0 h, 24 h and 48 h), formaldehyde was added to yield a 5% v/v solution to stop active metabolism and fix the

samples. Following 30 minutes fixation at room temperature, 10 µl of concentrated HCl was added and the vials were vigorously vortexed. The acidified vials were kept at room temperature for two hours. The headspace gas was pushed into an air-tight syringe by simultaneously injecting saturated NaCl brine into the vial. The gas was then injected into a 12 ml glass exetainer containing 1:7 phenylethilamine:2-methoxyethanol solution. Following vigorous vortexing, the solution was subsampled into scintillation vials containing Permafluor E+ (PerkinElmer) and the ¹⁴C activity (DPM) from mineralized $CO₂$ was counted with a liquid scintillation analyzer (Packard, Tri-carb 2900TR, USA). The efficiency of this method was 99%, and was evaluated by acidifying, trapping and counting alkaline sodium bicarbonate with an initial activity of 10 kBq under experimental conditions identical to those of naphthalene incubations.

PCR amplification of the *Cycloclasticus* **16S rRNA gene**

Primers that amplify a 484 bp fragment of the *Cycloclasticus* 16S rRNA gene, CycF346 (5`- ggaggcagcagtggggaata-3`) and CycR830 (5`- cggaaacccgcccaaca-3`), were designed using Primer-BLAST¹ and verified with Silva TestPrime². The PCR conditions were as follows: denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, annealing at 55 °C for 45 s and extension at 72 °C for 45 s, for 30 cycles. Bands of the appropriate size were present in all eight *B. heckerae* and three sponge DNA individuals, but not in the four *B. brooksi* individuals we examined. PCR products were purified using the QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and sequenced directly to verify the specificity of the PCR reaction. Sequencing was performed using the BigDye terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit with the Genetic Analyzer ABI PRISM 3130 (Applied

Bio- systems). The amplified 16S rRNA gene sequences, determined by direct sequencing, were identical to the 16S rRNA sequences assembled from the *Cycloclasticus* genomes from the respective hosts (Figure 3).

Phylogenomic analyses

Publicly available *Cycloclasticus* genomes from isolates and SAGs, as well as methylotrophs from the *Piscirickettsiaceae* and *Methylococcaceae* families of the Gammaproteobacteria were retrieved from GenBank and JGI-IMG. Only two out of six *Cycloclasticus* SAGs from the JGI-IMG database had enough marker genes for phylogenomic analyses. Phylogenomic treeing was performed using scripts available at phylogenomics-tools (DOI:10.5281/zenodo.46122). Marker proteins that are universally conserved across the bacterial domain were extracted from genomes using the AMPHORA2 pipeline²². Eleven markers that were identified to occur in single copy in all genomes were used for alignment on MUSCLE. An alignment mask was generated using $Zorro^{23}$. Poorly aligned regions or misaligned regions were inspected visually and removed from the alignments. The marker alignments were concatenated into a single partitioned alignment and the best protein substitution model was predicted using the concat_align.pl script (phylogenomics-tools). The best tree with SH-like aLRT support values was calculated on $RAxML²⁴$ using the tree_calculations.pl script available at phylogenomics-tools.

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Supplementary tables

Supplementary Table 1 | The relative abundance (coverage) of methanotrophic, thiotrophic and *Cycloclasticus* **symbionts (%), based on unambiguous read mapping to the respective 16S rRNA gene sequences.** SD is standard deviation.

Supplementary Table 2 | Samples used for genomic and transcriptomic analyses.

Sequencing depth for respective DNA and RNA libraries and genome accession numbers are shown.

* Due to low coverage, a *Cycloclasticus* genome of satisfactory quality could not be assembled from library O.

Supplementary Table 3 | Assembly quality assessment for *B. heckerae* **and sponge**

Cycloclasticus **genomes.** General assembly parameters as assessed on Quast, and draft genome completeness as estimated using CheckM.

Supplementary Table 4 | Pairwise two-way average nucleotide identities (ANI) of the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* **draft genomes.** SD is standard deviation of ANI values.

Supplementary Table 5 | Genes homologous to those involved in PAH degradation pathways in *Cycloclasticus pugetii* **could not be detected in metagenomes of** *B. heckerae* **and sponges.** Values in this table show the number of Illumina reads from *B. heckerae* and sponge metagenomic libraries that mapped to selected gene clusters in *C. pugetii* genome (GenBank accession number: NZ_ARVU01000001), using a tolerant minimum sequence identity of 0.6. These values are normalized to gene length and sequencing depth using the following formula: $N_{x}*10^{6}$

 $L_x * \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{N_i}{L_i}$, where N_x is number of Illumina reads mapped to the gene of interest, L_x is length (bp)

of the gene of interest, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{N_i}{L_i}$ $\frac{n}{i}$ is the sum of length normalized read counts from a metagenomic library of interest for all n genes in *C. pugetii* genome. We have multiplied the values by 10⁶ to yield comfortably-read numerals. Each group of rows separated by a blank row represents a gene cluster. First two groups, those of isocitrate lyase/malate synthase and methycitrate cycle genes are an example of gene clusters conserved among *C. pugetii*, B. heckerae and sponge *Cycloclasticus*. Gene clusters that are conserved among *C. pugetii* and sponge, but not *B. heckerae Cycloclasticus* are presented in the third cluster (urea ABC transporter genes). The very few reads that did map to PAH genes most likely originated from environmental contaminants. The remaining rows in this table represent all genes coding for enzymes that catalyze the central reactions in PAH metabolism of *C. pugetii*. * This gene is highly conserved not only among *Cycloclasticus*, but also among other bacteria that are present in the metagenomes, hence the exceptionally high coverage values. ** Fragments from these genes were amplified by PCR in *B. heckerae* samples collected in 2006.

Supplementary Table 6 | Expression profiles of genes involved in carbon and energy metabolism in *Bathymodiolus* **and sponge** *Cycloclasticus* **symbionts**. Trimmed mean of Mvalues (TMM) and size (RPKM) normalized raw counts are shown. BHT1-4 and ST1-2 are transcriptome replicates for *B. heckerae* mussels and encrusting sponges, respectively.

Supplementary Table 7 | Relative expression of key genes in carbon and energy metabolism of the symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* **as inferred from transcriptomic analysis.** The values presented here were normalized to *gyrA* (**a**), *gyrB* (**b**) and *recA* (**c**), following trimmed mean of M-values (TMM) and size (RPKM) normalizations. BHT1-4 are transcriptome replicates from four *B. heckerae* individuals, and ST1-2 from the two encrusting sponge individuals. Empty cells indicate absence of the gene in sponge *Cycloclasticus* genomes.

a)

b)

c)

Supplementary Table 8 | Relative abundance (%) of all *Cycloclasticus* **proteins detected by proteomic analysis of three** *B. heckerae***.** Locus tags correspond to the genome submitted to NCBI in BioProject PRJNA318571. Proteins are ordered by relative abundance. Key proteins involved in the oxidation of short-chain alkanes are highlighted in bold.

Supplementary Table 9 | Relative abundance of proteins (%) from *B. heckerae* **hosts, symbiotic** *Cycloclasticus* **and other symbionts.**

 $\overline{0.05}$

Supplementary Figure 1 | Sponge phylogeny based on mitochondrial COI gene

sequences. The evolutionary history was inferred using the Maximum Likelihood method based on the Hasegawa-Kishino-Yano model. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured as the number of substitutions per site. The analysis included 44 nucleotide sequences. There were a total of 549 positions in the final dataset. A comparison of the COI sequences from the Campeche Knoll sponges to those of the poecilosclerid sponge *Myxilla methanophila*, which also harbors *Cycloclasticus*, was not possible, because no COI sequences are available for *M. methanophila.*

Supplementary Figure 2 | Phylogenomic tree showing the relationships between cultivated, free-living and symbiotic *Cycloclasticus***, as well as methylotrophs in the** *Piscirickettsiaceae* **and** *Methylococcaceae* **families of the Gammaproteobacteria.** Eleven single-copy markers as defined in the AMPHORA2 core bacterial phylogenetic marker database were used in the analysis. All node support values in the tree were ≥ 89 and therefore not shown. Symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* from *B. heckerae* and sponge hosts are highlighted with blue and red colors, respectively. Genomic library name is mentioned in parentheses to distinguish between *Cycloclasticus* symbionts from different host individuals.

Supplementary Figure 3 | Signature genes in cultivated PAH degrading *Cycloclasticus* **(a) and symbiotic** *Cycloclasticus* **(b).** Signature genes for a group of organisms are those that are present within this group, but lack homologs in other closely related organisms. The cutoff used to determine homology was 40% at amino acid level. The two groups compared are: Symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* from *B. heckerae* and two sponges vs. cultivated *C. pugetii* P-1, *C. zancles* and *Cycloclasticus* PY97M. In panel a, signature genes of cultivated PAH degrading *Cycloclasticus* are mapped on the genome of *C. pugetii* P-1. In panel b, signature genes of symbiotic *Cycloclasticus* are mapped on the genome of *B. heckerae Cycloclasticus* (library P). Annotations are: a) 1 - 4-hydroxybenzoate transporter, 2 - benzoate, cresol, catechol usage proteins, 3 - ring-hydroxylating dioxygenase naphthalene 1,2-dioxygenase, 4 - ring-hydroxylating dioxygenase naphthalene 1,2-dioxygenase and 2,3-dihydroxybiphenyl 1,2 dioxygenase, 5 - multiple genes involved in PAH degradation, 6 - ring hydroxylating dioxygenase, 7 - biphenyl monooxygenase and related proteins, 8 - multiple genes involved in PAH degradation and alkane-1 monooxygenase, 9 - ring-hydroxylating dioxygenase naphthalene 1,2-dioxygenase, 9,10 - multiple genes involved in PAH degradation. In addition to PAH degradation genes, cultivated *Cycloclasticus* signature genes included genes encoding hydrogenases and related proteins, urea transport and urease proteins, ferric siderophore transport system proteins, heavy metal transport systems, flagellar biosynthesis proteins, etc. b) 1 - PQQ-dependent alcohol dehydrogenase (related to ethanol and propanol oxidizing dehydrogenase), 2 -cytochrome c550 and other proteins associated with PQQ-dependent alcohol dehydrogenase, 3 - particulate hydrocarbon monooxygenase (3 subunits, group Z), 4- 3-hydroxybutyryl-CoA dehydratase and dehydrogenase (butanoate metabolism). * - sulfur oxidation proteins (sox operon, see Supplement for details).

Supplementary Figure 4 | Phylogeny of PQQ-dependent alcohol dehydrogenase protein

sequences. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths representing the number of substitutions per site. The percentage of trees in which the associated taxa clustered together is shown next to the branches (only values above 50 %). The analysis included 69 amino acid sequences. There were a total of 413 positions in the final dataset.

Supplementary Figure 5 | Phylogeny of tungsten-containing aldehyde ferredoxin oxidoreduc-

tase (AOR) protein sequences. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths representing the number of substitutions per site. The percentage of trees in which the associated taxa clustered together is shown next to the branches (only values above 50 %). The analysis included 21 amino acid sequences. There were a total of 613 positions in the final dataset.

Supplementary Figure 6 | Phylogeny of thiosulfohydrolase SoxB protein sequences. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths representing the number of substitutions per site. The percentage of trees in which the associated taxa clustered together is shown next to the branches (only values above 50 %). The analysis included 47 amino acid sequences. There were a total of 555 positions in the final dataset. $SOX = \text{suffix} \cdot \text{oxidizing bacteria.}$

Time from the beginning of incubation (h)

Supplementary Figure 7 | Isotopically labeled naphthalene was mineralized by *Cycloclasticus pugetii* **ATCC 51542 but not by symbiotic** *B. heckerae Cycloclasticus***.**

This plot shows disintegrations per minute (DPM) counts for CO $_{_2}$ in the headspace after addition of 14C labeled naphthalene (400000 DPM). Naphthalene was mineralized by live *Cycloclasticus* strain ATCC 51542 (magenta circles), but mineralization was not detected in all other samples (all other colors, circles overlap so that only black circles are visible). The error bars are smaller than the symbol size. $R²$ values are inferred from linear regression analysis. n represents the number of biological replicates.

Supplementary Figure 8 | Genome-binning-tools generated plots demonstrate binning methods used in this study. Panels a, b show the differential coverage plots for *B. heckerae* metagenomes, with the color produced by the phylotyping approach (red: *Methylococcacea*erelated, green: thiotroph-related). Only contigs larger than 3 kb are shown. Panel c shows the differential coverage plots for the encrusting sponge genomes, with the color representing % GC content. Only contigs larger than 5 kb are shown. Panel d shows read coverage as a function of GC content, which was used to bin the branching sponge metagenome. Only contigs larger than 8 kb are shown. Crossed circles mark contigs that contain 16S rRNA genes, x symbols mark the tRNA containing contigs. MOX and SOX are methane- and sulfur-oxidizing symbionts, respectively.