

1 **Supplementary text**

2 *Addressing overlooked potential contaminants*

3 To aid in identifying possible contamination, we ran a nucleotide Blast of all the
4 assembled contigs against a custom database of the >1500 Stordalen Mire MAGs (for
5 information on the MAGs see 1). No microbial contamination was detected from the microbial
6 lineages represented in the MAGs. Conversely, contamination of GTAs seems likely. The main
7 method used to identify viruses (VirSorter; 2) identifies viruses primarily based on identification
8 of viral genes. GTAs have been confused for viruses or viral contamination because they have
9 several viral-like genes to package nucleic acids (e.g. genes that encode capsids and tails; full list
10 reviewed in 3). We tested for GTAs by assessing the diversity of the contigs identified as
11 microbial (since GTAs capture a subset of lineages) and running a nucleotide Blast of the five
12 types of GTAs previously identified (3–5). In the seven viromes, 25% of assembled reads
13 matched bacteria from the family *Rhodobacteraceae*, and from genera *Bartonella* and
14 *Desulfovibrio*. This analysis likely doesn't capture the total GTA contamination because current
15 GTA families have been identified only from isolates (3). The remaining contigs were divided
16 into those highly likely to belong to soil viruses (as VirSorter categories 1 or 2; 2) and those of
17 indeterminable origin (i.e. VirSorted viral contigs not from categories 1 or 2). Lastly,
18 contamination from mobile genetic elements (MGEs) can result in low viral yield. MGEs are any
19 genetic material that move around on a genome, within an organism, or between organisms (6).
20 Viruses and GTAs are also types of MGEs and others, but not limited to, include transposons,
21 plasmids, and introns. Here, we use MGE to label contamination (i.e. non-viral) and three MGE-
22 looking contigs were identified as viruses by VirSorter (Table S1). It is highly unlikely that these
23 MGEs remained in our samples after CsCl purification and may actually be plasmid prophages
24 (reviewed in 7), but to be as accurate as possible with our findings, we did not include these three
25 contigs. Additionally, we did not include VirSorter category 3 contigs, which are likely to be soil
26 viruses, since the extraction methods were specifically targeted to obtain soil viruses and current
27 reference databases dramatically under-represents soil viruses (causing VirSorter to put them in
28 category 3; more details in 2).

29 *Using viral-host linkages for further comparisons*

30 Since viral replication requires the take-over of host translation machinery during
31 infection, viruses may be genetically tuned to interact with that machinery more efficiently. We
32 searched the 17 host-linked viral genomes for two known mechanisms of such genetic tuning.
33 Viruses can mimic host synonymous codon usage, increasing translation speed and fidelity, level
34 of gene expression, and protein folding (15–17). We assessed the similarity of codon usage
35 frequency for the Mire viruses and their inferred hosts (Fig. S6). The virus-host groups clustered
36 only loosely at the genus/species level (notably better at the phylum level; Fig S6), except for
37 vOTU_28 and its associated host *Smithella* sp. SDB, which were quite similar. This 'codon
38 harmonization' (described in 15) between the two further supports their viral-host CRISPR
39 linkage and inferred co-evolution. Caveats to this approach include the imperfect assessment of
40 viral (and host) codon usage due to incomplete genomes, with the lack of viral single copy genes
41 precluding clarity on how incomplete they are. To assess whether contig length might be

42 influencing the similarity of virus and host codon usage frequency, we evaluated their correlation
43 (Fig. S6), which was significant but very weak ($r^2=0.03$, P value <0.01), suggesting that longer
44 contigs would have minimal impact on viral-host codon usage similarity.

45 *Putative archaeal viruses*

46 Due to VirSorter's reliance on existing databases, viruses from undersampled
47 environments (e.g. soil) can be missed. Due to the importance of archaea in this system, for
48 example the strong correlation between CH₄ isotopic signatures and a single lineage of
49 methanogens from the Mire (Candidatus *Methanoflorens stordalenmirensis*; 18, 19), we
50 performed an extensive search specifically targeting archaeal viruses using the recently
51 developed Metagenomic Archaeal Virus Detector (MArVD; 20), which retrieves archaeal virus-
52 like contigs from VirSorted-viromes based on a set of genes known to be identified with archaea.
53 Using a stringent threshold (viral contig ≥ 10 kb and belonging to category 1 or 2; 20), MArVD
54 identified 2 putative archaeal vOTUs: 165 and 225, which were ~ 16 and 12 kb, respectively, but
55 had not been in the 53-vOTU dataset because they did not meet the stringent requirement of
56 being in VirSorter categories 1 or 2 (2). Both vOTUs' genes switch strands often and they were
57 appreciably genetically novel with 83% of genes unknown for vOTU_165 and 75% for
58 vOTU_225, and both had no connectivity to known viruses in the VC network where only three
59 ORFs from each grouped into protein clusters, with the remaining ORFs (15 from vOTU_165
60 and 19 from vOTU_225) being singletons (proteins having no genetic similarity to any proteins
61 in the RefSeq database). Of the 3 shared PCs, vOTU_165 shared PC_03881 with archaeal virus,
62 Halovirus HCTV-1 (data not shown), which also included archaeal, bacterial, and bacteriophage
63 proteins. Phylogenetic reconstruction of PC_03881 revealed monophyly of vOTU_165's gene 16
64 with genes from *Pseudoalteromonas* (data not shown). Among the other predicted genes from
65 the two putative archaeal viruses, we identified several more for both vOTUs that clustered as
66 bacterial genes, including several ribosomal proteins (data not shown). We therefore propose that
67 both contigs are likely bacterial genome fragments, misidentified by MArVD as it relies on a
68 database with few archaeal representatives and uses keywords to identify archaeal viruses;
69 vOTUs 165 and 225 were identified as potential archaeal viruses based on the identified
70 homologous gene being previously characterized in archaea.

71 We therefore propose that both contigs are likely bacterial genome fragments,
72 misidentified by MArVD, because the ancestry of PC_03881 (from contig 165) stems from the
73 archaeal domain with a recent transition into bacterial domain (data not shown). This
74 misidentification by MArVD is because it relies on a database with few archaeal representatives
75 and uses keywords to identify archaeal viruses; it identified vOTU_165 and vOTU_225 as
76 potential archaeal viruses based on the identified orthologous gene being previously
77 characterized in archaea.

78 **Methods and Materials**

79 Richness, Shannon's Diversity index and Pielou's evenness index were calculated for
80 each virome in R (CRAN 1.0.8 package vegan).

81 Multiple analyses were done to evaluate the potential role storage conditions had on the
82 viral communities. Hierarchical clustering of the viromes was done using Bray-Curtis

83 dissimilarity, with an average dissimilarity used for viromes (i.e. dissimilarities are averaged at
84 each step between viromes for the agglomerative method) in R (CRAN 1.0.8 package pvclust).
85 Assessment of differentiation among reads was performed using Fizkin (a social network
86 analysis; 21) on CyVerse (<http://www.cyverse.org>) using the default parameters.
87 More analyses were done to better understand viral-host linkages. For viral-host linkages via
88 CRISPRs, a custom Python script was used to process the Crass data
89 (<https://bitbucket.org/MAVERICLab/>). Briefly, data Emerson et al. (22) was used to associate
90 viral sequences to microbial bins. First, the assigned taxonomy was parsed and the number of
91 matches to Archaea and Bacteria were summed. If a virus matched a host bin, then this was a
92 “hit” and the number of bins with matches were summed.

93 Mean synonymous codon usage was calculated by determining the mean of the
94 differences in codon usage frequency for each amino acid for the 55 vOTUs and their linked
95 hosts. Codon usage was determined using CodonW (John Peden, Oxford University, available
96 at <http://bioweb.pasteur.fr/seqanal/interfaces/codonw.html>) with default parameters.
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