

1 **Bacterial predation on T4 phages**

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13 **Author Contributions:** J.J.G., O.Z., A.B. and N.H. designed and performed the
14 experiments; J.J.G., O.Z., L.C. and M.A. performed computational experiments; J.J.G.,
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21 Abstract

22 **Background:** Bacterial consumption of viruses has never yet been
23 reported, even though bacteria feed on almost anything. Viruses are
24 omnipresent predators for all organisms, but have no acknowledged active
25 biocontrol. The viral biomass undoubtedly reintegrates the trophic cycles,
26 however the mechanisms of this phase still remain unknown.

27 **Methods:** Here, we used stable isotope probing with ^{13}C labelled T4 phages
28 to monitor the increase of density of the bacterial DNA concomitant with
29 the decrease of plaque forming units. We used ^{12}C T4 phages as control.

30 **Results:** T4 phage disappearance in wastewater sludge was found to occur
31 mainly through predation by *Aeromonadacea*. Phage consumption also
32 favours significant *in situ* bacterial growth. Furthermore, an isolated
33 strain of *Aeromonas* was observed to grow on T4 phages as sole source of
34 carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus.

35 **Conclusions:** bacterial species are capable of consuming bacteriophages *in*
36 *situ*, which is likely a widespread and underestimated type of biocontrol.

37 This assay is anticipated as a starting point for harnessing the bacterial

38 **potential in limiting the diffusion of harmful viruses within environments**
39 **such as gut or water.**

40

41 Introduction

42 For any type of bacteria, the presence of viruses may present a significant opportunity for
43 feeding. Indeed, viruses represent 0.2 gigatons of carbon on Earth(Bar-On *et al.*, 2018).
44 For example, the major capsid protein of the T4-like bacteriophage family is one of the
45 most prevalent proteins in the biosphere(Comeau and Krisch, 2008). Therefore phages
46 represent a major potential carbon source into which bacteria may tap. Furthermore,
47 viruses are also a potential source of phosphorus(Jover *et al.*, 2014).

48 No bacterium preying on viruses have been described even though bacterial extracellular
49 proteases are able to degrade certain bacteriophages in anaerobic wastewater treatment
50 plants, in pure cultures(Mondal *et al.*, 2015) and in soil(Nasser *et al.*, 2002). In seawater,
51 the only reported biotic pressure arises from marine ciliates that have been co-incubated
52 with viruses and bacteria(Gonzalez and Suttle, 1993). This observation is also supported
53 by the recent discovery of viral DNA in free-living eukaryotic cells(Brown *et al.*, 2020).

54 Here, we show that specific bacteria can indeed degrade T4 bacteriophages *in situ*, and
55 we confirm this observation in pure culture.

56 Results

57 When searching for bacteriophage consumption activity, sludge from wastewater
58 treatment plants is a relevant microbiota to investigate, as it boasts a high degradation
59 capacity. In this work, the stable isotope probing method was applied by adding $2.2 \cdot 10^{10}$
60 ^{13}C -labelled T4 phages to 200 μl of sludge corresponding to 10^8 bacteria cells. The
61 increase in density of the bacterial DNA of the ^{12}C control bottle was then measured after
62 the enumerated T4 phages decreased by 99%.

63 T4 phages were assimilated by bacteria. About 41% of the ^{13}C atoms initially present in
64 T4 phages were accounted for in the bacterial biomass. However, only nine out of the
65 4046 microbial species - or more accurately Amplicon Sequence Variant (ASVs) - were
66 labelled by the ^{13}C initially contained in the T4 phages (Fig. 1), thus suggesting that the
67 incorporation of T4 phage is not a widespread ability. This incorporation generated
68 growth, since the total biomass increased 2 fold after 24h concomitantly with the
69 disappearance of the T4 phages.

70 The two main degraders of T4 phages were ASV1 (*Aeromonas sp.*) and ASV2
71 (*Tolumonas sp.*), which accounted for 5% and 29% of ^{13}C atoms found in the bacterial
72 biomass respectively. Both belong to the *Aeromonadaceae* family and exhibit strong
73 growth rates. Indeed, both rose from undetectable levels to 51% of the biomass, while the
74 density of their DNA increased because they incorporated ^{13}C atoms from the isotopically

75 labelled T4 phages. For example, the $2 \cdot 10^6$ *Aeromonas* cells present after 24h contained
76 85% of ^{13}C atoms in their DNA whose density shifted from 1.72 g/mL to 1.75 g/mL in
77 the bottle with ^{13}C -labeled T4 phages. The 16S rRNA sequences assigned to *Aeromonas*
78 represented 19% and 8% of the total reads in the ^{12}C and the ^{13}C bottles respectively, thus
79 revealing a consistent growth from initially undetectable levels.

80 In addition to the *Aeromonadaceae* family, two species (ASV12 and 21) belonging to the
81 Ignavibacteriales PHOS-HE36 family, although labelled with medium strength (49 and
82 71%) and negligible growth (0 and $5.87 \cdot 10^6$ synthesized cells respectively), still gathered
83 5% of the ^{13}C atoms. The last 5 species with significant DNA density shifts (ASV7, 9, 20,
84 67 and 79) accounted for the remaining 1% of ^{13}C atoms but their weak labelling level
85 may have resulted from indirect labelling.

86 To confirm the quality of *Aeromonas sp.* as a predator of T4 phages, an *Aeromonas*-
87 selective medium was used for retrieving an *Aeromonas* colony from the initial sludge
88 and called it *Aeromonas_isolate_007*. The analysis of the whole genome confirmed that
89 this isolate belongs to an intermediate clade between *Aeromonas media* and *Aeromonas*
90 *rivipollensis* species. *Aeromonas_isolate_007* was incubated with T4 phages as only
91 substrate. Starting with 50 resting bacterial cells, the population reached $1.6 \cdot 10^8$ cells
92 after 24 hours at 20°C while consuming 10^{11} T4 phages (Fig. 1C). No growth was
93 observed when T4 phages were absent.

94 *Aeromonas sp.* can also capture T4 phages when their concentrations were comparable
95 with environmental conditions: 7×10^4 T4 phages/mL decreased to 2×10^3 T4 phages/mL
96 when incubated with *Aeromonas_isolate_007* cells (Fig 1C). No decrease in the T7 phage
97 has been observed in similar experiments where the T4 phage was replaced by the T7
98 phage.

99 Discussion

100 *Aeromonas* cells are present in virtually any environment(Janda and Abbott, 2010),
101 including wastewater treatment plants where their abundance is around 0.1 %(Ye *et al.*,
102 2012).

103 Interestingly, *Aeromonas* cells have an S-layer(Noonan and Trust, 1997) associated with
104 lipopolysaccharides (Sleytr *et al.*, 2014) and an outer membrane protein C, which are
105 known to bind the T4 phages to the surface of *E.coli* cells(Islam *et al.*, 2019). Once
106 captured at the surface, the phage is likely degraded by several extracellular enzymes,
107 including DNase and protease (Janda, 1985). For example, metallo- and serine- proteases
108 found in *Aeromonas* are involved in the degradation of large molecules such as albumin,
109 earning the nickname of ‘Jack-of-all-trades’ due to this enzymatic versatility(Seshadri *et*
110 *al.*, 2006). Finally, *Aeromonas* possesses transporters to uptake the resulting amino acids
111 and peptides (Seshadri *et al.*, 2006).

112 Bacterial predation on bacteriophages is rich in consequences because bacteriophages are
113 ultimate predators at the top of all food chains since they are not hunted. Indeed
114 bacteriophage decay is mainly considered abiotic via adhesion to particulate material,
115 chemical inactivation or degradation by solar radiation or passive grazing by
116 flagellates(González and Suttle, 1993). In the oceans, this predation likely allows for the
117 upper levels of the trophic chain carbon to access to the 7% of dissolved nitrogen, the 5%
118 of phosphorus and the 1% of dissolved organic carbon contained in the viral particles
119 (Jover *et al.*, 2014).

120 Furthermore, the diversity in bacteriophages could be partly related to the presence of
121 phage-specific bacterial bacteriophage-hunters. Indeed, the bacterial predators of T4
122 phages do not appear to consume T7 bacteriophages. Therefore, brutal increase of a
123 specific phage in the environment could be specifically controlled by a phage-eating
124 bacterium, forming a killing-the-killer loop.

125 In conclusion, bacteria that are capable of eliminating specific viruses changes our vision
126 of the food webs and represent a noteworthy avenue to explore to control harmful viruses
127 such COVID-19, bacteriophages that disrupt dairy fermentations or rotaviruses causing
128 diarrhoea.

129

130 Declarations

131 Ethics approval and consent to participate

132 Not Applicable

133 Consent for publication

134 Not Applicable

135 Availability of data and materials

136 High-throughput sequencing data have been deposited on NCBI

137 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject>) under accession number PRJNA650397

138 and the genome of *Aeromonas_isolate_007* is accessible with the BioSample

139 accession number SAMN17689348.

140 Competing Interests statement

141 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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145 Contributions

146 J.J.G., O.Z., A.B. and N.H. designed and performed the experiments; J.J.G., O.Z., L.C.
147 and M.A. performed computational experiments; J.J.G., O.Z., L.C., M.A. and M.A.P.
148 contributed lineaging data and expertise; J.J.G. and O.Z. prepared the manuscript with
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159 Authors' information

160 JJG directed the PhD of OZ in bacterial ecology in France. In a following postdoc, OZ
161 learned stable-isotope probing in sludge in Australia and was granted a small project to
162 study the adsorption of T2 phages in the light of electrostatics. The combination of SIP
163 and phage expertise turned out useful to answer JJG’s question about the predation of
164 phages together with AB, which has expertise in producing purified isotopically-labeled

165 phages and MAP, which could confirm the results in pure culture with JJG since an
166 isolate was successfully isolated from the sample. MA's expertise in genome annotation
167 was put to use to speculate about the mechanisms involved in the capture, digestion and
168 assimilation of T4 phages by bacteria.

169

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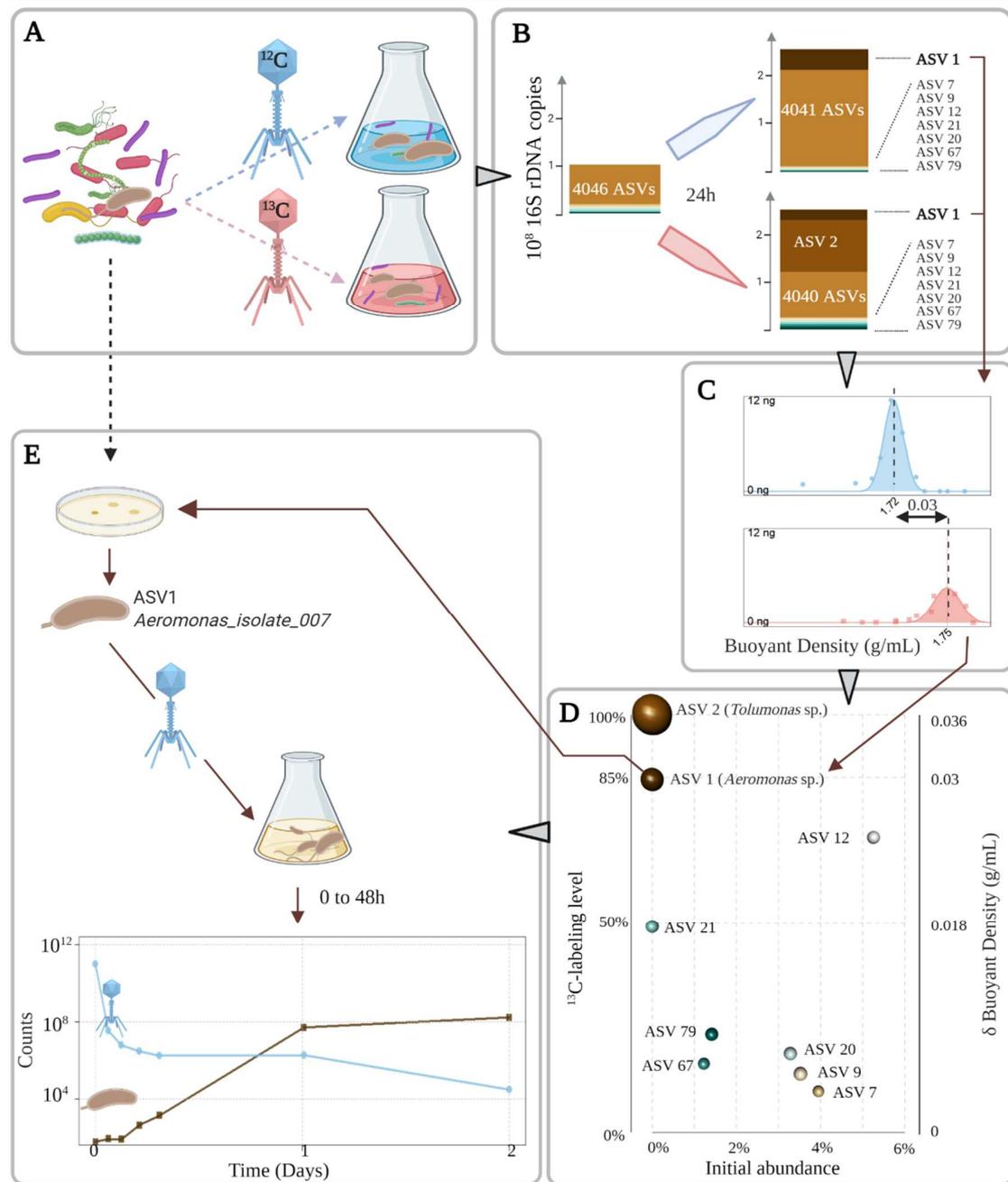
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213 **Figure 1. Bacterial growth on T4 phages. A; Identification of ¹³C-labeled**
214 **bacteria:** the ¹³C-labeled T4 (red) were incubated with a microbial community of
215 wastewater treatment plant in the same conditions as the ¹²C control (blue). **B;**
216 **Bacteria present in each sample:** the barplots shows the growth of each ASVs
217 based on 16S rDNA copies, detailing the nine bacteria assimilating T4
218 phages. **C; The density plots show the shift in density for ASV1 (*Aeromonas***
219 **sp.),** which was abundant in both bottles after 24h. **D; ¹³C labelling level after**
220 **24h:** the ¹³C-labeling level (left Y-axis), computed from the individual density
221 shifts (right Y-axis), is reported against the initial abundance of the ASVs (X-
222 axis). The volume of the spheres represents the abundance of each ASV in
223 the ¹³C bottle. **E; *Aeromonas* sp. growth on T4 phages:**
224 *Aeromonas_isolate_007* grew on T4 phages as sole carbon and nitrogen source.
225 When a few *Aeromonas* cells were incubated with 10¹¹ T4 phages, the colony
226 forming units (brown) increased while the plaque-forming units (blue) decreased.
227



228

Supplementary information

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1 Stable isotope probing experiment on the initial sample

1.1 Preparation of the ^{13}C -labeled T4 bacteriophages

T4-phage particles labeled with ^{13}C were produced on *Escherichia coli* B cells (DSM 613) grown in M9 minimal medium with ^{13}C -glucose as the sole carbon source. The M9 medium was prepared using M9, Minimal Salts, 5X (Sigma-Aldrich), by adding MgSO_4 (Sigma-Aldrich) and CaCl_2 (Sigma-Aldrich) at final concentrations of 1 mM, and D-Glucose at a final concentration of 10 g/L. Moreover, additional salts were added to favor phage adsorption (solution of CaCl_2 0.5 M and MgCl_2 1M, diluted 1 000 times in the culture medium). More precisely, starting from an *E. coli* stock of cells frozen in LB and glycerol, two successive overnight pre-cultures were grown in LB medium (LB broth, Fisher). Subsequently, 5 x 20 mL of M9 minimal medium containing D-Glucose- $^{13}\text{C}_6$ as the sole carbon source (10 g/L) were each inoculated with 20 μL of the second *E. coli* pre-culture; approximately 1500 T4-phage particles (DSM 4505, in PFU) were added. Finally, 20 μL of a solution containing 0.5 M CaCl_2 and 1M MgCl_2 were also added in each case to favor phage adsorption.

After 30 hours of incubation at 37°C under agitation, the T4 phage particles were collected: the cultures were centrifuged during 15 minutes at 5 000 g, 10°C. The supernatants were collected and filtered at a 0.22 μm pore-size (PES filters, Milipore). They were subsequently incubated overnight in 8% w/v PEG 6000 and 0.5 M NaCl solution, at 4°C, to precipitate viral particles. The supernatants were centrifuged at 20 000g, during 30 minutes, at 4°C. The pellets were suspended in SM buffer (100 mM NaCl, 8 mM MgSO_4 , 50 mM Tris pH 7.5), and centrifuged once more at 20 000 g for 4h at 4°C. Viral particles were finally suspended in 1.4 mL of SM buffer and stored at 4°C before use.

To obtain unlabeled T4 phage particles, the same procedure was used except that unlabeled glucose was employed in the M9 minimal medium.

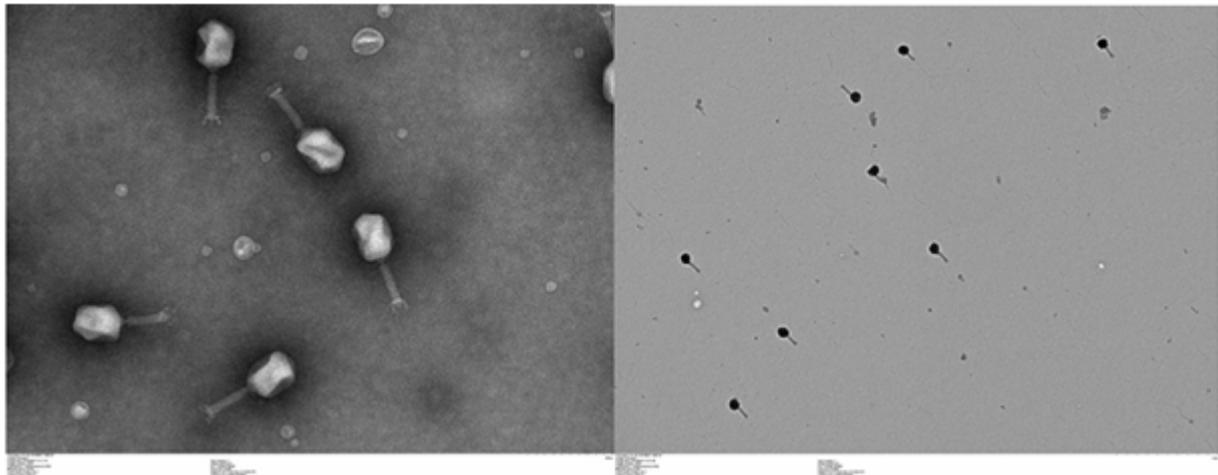


Figure S 1 : Purity of the bacteriophage preparation

We checked the purity of the bacteriophage preparation by electronic microscopy. Materials were directly adsorbed onto a carbon film membrane on a 300-mesh copper grid, stained with 1% uranyl acetate, dissolved in distilled water, and dried at room temperature. Grids were examined with Hitachi HT7700 electron microscope operated at 80kV (Elexience – France), and images were acquired with a charge-coupled device camera (AMT).

Table S 1 : Decrease of the free ^{13}C and ^{12}C bacteriophages by PFU of the supernatant. We indicate the absolute numbers of phages and their percentages compared to t_0 .

Time (min)	T4 phages in ^{12}C bottle	T4 phages in ^{13}C bottle	T4 phages in ^{12}C bottle	T4 phages in ^{13}C bottle
0	$2.8 \cdot 10^{10}$	$2.2 \cdot 10^{10}$	100 %	100 %
24	$5.2 \cdot 10^8$	$9.4 \cdot 10^8$	1.9 %	4.2 %
122	$2.6 \cdot 10^7$	$4.1 \cdot 10^8$	0.9 %	1.8 %
445	$3.2 \cdot 10^7$	$3.3 \cdot 10^8$	1.2 %	1.5 %
1375	$5 \cdot 10^2$	$5.7 \cdot 10^5$	0 %	0 %

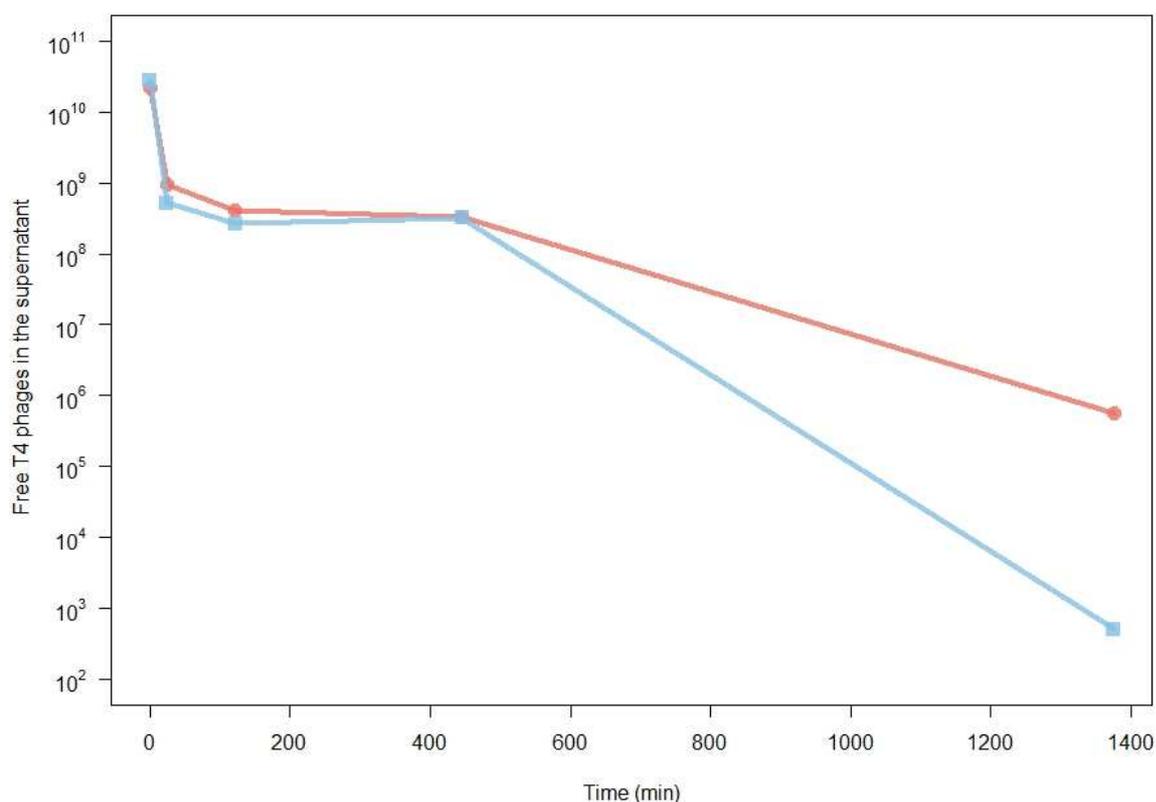


Figure S 2: Decrease of the free ^{13}C and ^{12}C bacteriophages by PFU of the supernatant

Free purified T4 phages were incubated with the initial sample of wastewater treatment plant. The initial concentration was $2.24 \cdot 10^{10}$ T4 phages in 5 mL, i.e. $4.48 \cdot 10^9$ T4 phages/mL. After 24h, over 99% of the T4 phages are missing from the supernatant due to incorporation or absorption into the microbial biomass. The red curve represents the ^{13}C bottle and the blue curve represents the ^{12}C bottle. The PFU titers of the obtained ^{13}C - and unlabeled T4 stock solutions were determined on a bacterial lawn of *E. coli* cells (DSM 613), using the soft-agar overlay technique. More precisely, $5 \mu\text{L}$ of T4 phage stock solutions and serial dilutions of them (factor 10 or 15) were plated a soft layer containing 7.5 g/L of Agar and *E. coli* cells (DSM 613) pre-cultured in LB medium, in LB-Agar plates (15 g/L of Agar, Sigma-Aldrich). After a short period of drying, the Petri dishes were incubated at 37°C during 24 hours in static conditions. The PFU titers were determined by counting the visible plaques and calculating the concentration in the original stock solutions.

1.2 Detailed Calculations of the ¹³C mass balance

This paragraph explains in details the calculations reported in Table S3. For a simpler explanation, we will focus here on the calculations about ASV1 (*Aeromonas* sp.).

STEP1: using qPCR, we determine the absolute abundance of bacteria in the ¹³C bottle at the beginning of the experiment and at the end of the experiment. This can be done because we spiked 3 10⁵ copies of a synthetic DNA standard to 200 µl of the initial sample ¹, which we extracted immediately and quantified using 16S universal primers. We also spiked the final pellet with 3 10⁵ copies of a synthetic DNA standard and quantified it using specific primers. The comparison of the 16S and internal standard qPCR curves indicates that the initial sample contained $1.798^{23.462}/1.828^{13.215}=326$ fold more bacterial 16S rDNA copies than internal standard (Table S 2), so that the tube contained $3 \times 10^5 \times 326 = 9.78 \times 10^7$ copies of bacterial 16S at the beginning of the experiment. At the end of the experiment, comparing the 16S and internal standard qPCR curves indicates that bacterial 16S rDNA were 783 fold more abundant than the spiked synthetic standard, leading to an estimated 2.35×10^8 copies of bacterial 16S rDNA genes in the ¹³C bottle. For an accurate mass balance, we also consider the fact that 240 µl were taken out for PFU measurements during the experiment, so that we estimate that 2.47×10^8 copies of 16S rDNA would have been present at the end of the experiment in the ¹³C bottle if no sampling had been performed. Since we used the LinReg software, we also accounted for the slight individual variations in qPCR efficiency, which were between 80 and 84% for the internal standard and between 80 and 82% for the bacterial 16S rRNA genes respectively. In total, we estimate a global biomass increase of 2.35 fold. This global increases regroups ASVs that are initially abundant and grow slightly with ASVs that are initially rare and grow massively.

Table S 2 : Quantification of the bacterial density with the internal standard at the beginning and at the end of the experiment.

Sample name	Primers	Efficiency	Cycle Threshold	Spiked internal standard	16S rDNA
Initial_sample	Internal standard	79.8 %	23.462	3 10 ⁵ copies	9.78 10 ⁷ copies
	V4V5	82.8%	13.215		
Final_ ¹³ C_sample	Internal standard	80.1%	14.133	3 10 ⁵ copies	2.35 10 ⁸ copies
	V4V5	84.5%	24.461		

STEP2: using 16S metabarcoding, we use the absolute abundance of 16S rDNA of each ASV at the beginning and at the end of the experiment to estimate the number of 16S rDNA copies produced during the experiment for each ASV. ASV1 (*Aeromonas* sp.) was undetectable in the 3748 sequences of 16S rRNA genes obtained at the beginning of the experiment. At the end, 303 sequences out of 3578 (i.e. 8%) belonged ASV1 (*Aeromonas* sp.). For the two instances where the final 16SrDNA abundances were lower than the initial 16S rDNA abundances (possibly due to part of the population dying combined with another part showing a small growth), we neglected the contribution of these ASVs to the ¹³C mass balance.

STEP3: using a database of 16S rDNA copy number², we convert the increase in 16S rDNA into the number of cells. *Aeromonas* has 10 copies of 16S rDNA, so that 2.09×10^7 copies of 16S rDNA corresponds to 2.09×10^6 *Aeromonas* cells. ASV 1 was undetectable at t₀, so that if only one cell of ASV 1 (*Aeromonas* sp.) was present at the beginning of the experiment, 22 generations would have

been needed in the course of the experiment to produce $2 \cdot 10^6$ cells, i.e. 62 minutes per generation. If ASV 1 (*Aeromonas* sp.) was just below the detection limit ($(1/3748 \cdot 9.78 \cdot 10^7)/10 = 2600$), corresponding to an average growth rate of 125 minutes per generation.

STEP4: Assuming that each cell contains 30 fg of carbon, we convert the number of cells produced during the course of the experiment to a total carbon reservoir at the end of the experiment ($^{13}\text{C} + ^{12}\text{C}$). *Aeromonas* has $2.09 \cdot 10^7$ cells at the end, and a negligible amount at the beginning (undetectable). We then estimate the amount of total carbon that was captured by the growth of ASV1 (*Aeromonas* sp.). For example, $2.09 \cdot 10^7$ *Aeromonas* cells translate into $6.28 \cdot 10^{-8}$ g of total carbon content. It should be noted that 30 fg of carbon was measured for dried *Aeromonas* cells using a Leco CHN analyzer³ but we assume the same value for every ASV. In the aforementioned work, the cellular carbon content varied between 20 and 40 fg, depending on the bacterial species.

STEP5: using the shifts in buoyant density between the ^{12}C - and the ^{13}C - bottles, we estimate the labeling level of each ASV so that we can estimate their contribution to the ^{13}C mass balance. We compare the buoyant density of each ASV in the ^{13}C bottle to the density of in the ^{12}C bottle by fitting a normal curve to the absolute numbers of 16S rRNA genes that were detected in each fraction. Since we measured the density of each fraction by refractometry, the mean of the normal curve is the best estimate of the actual buoyant density of the ASV (Figure S 3). For example, the 16S DNA of ASV1 (*Aeromonas* sp.) have a mean density of 1.72 in the ^{12}C bottle and 1.75 in the ^{13}C bottle with good fits ($R^2=0.98$ and 0.89). As mentioned in the text, ASV2 (*Tolomonas* sp.) is not abundant enough in the ^{12}C bottle to fit a normal curve on its distribution across the gradient, so we used its theoretical density based on its GC content (which shows a 15% error). The shift between the ^{12}C - and ^{13}C - densities was converted into a percentage of ^{13}C by dividing by 0.036⁴. The labeling level of ASV1 (*Aeromonas* sp.) was $(1.75-1.72)/0.036=85\%$.

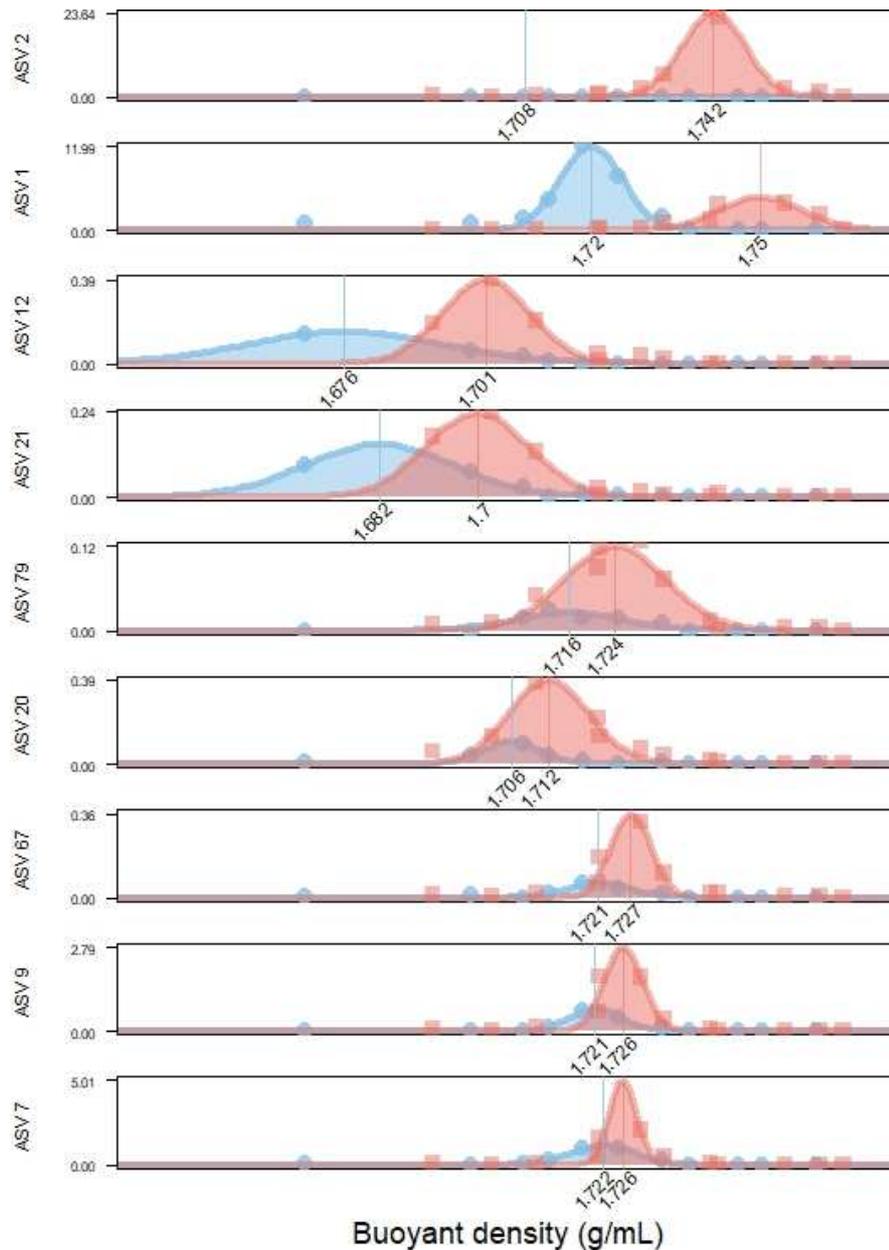


Figure S 3 : Gaussian fits of the 9 most labeled ASVs.

The amount of DNA for the top 9 ASVs (in ng) is plotted against the density of the Cesium gradient (in g/mL). The blue color is in the control bottle. The red color indicates the amount of DNA in the bottle supplemented with 3.2 μg of ^{13}C in the ^{13}C -labeled T4 bacteriophages. The dots indicate the actual measures performed after 24h, i.e. the amount of DNA of each ASV (Qbit was combined with the 16S rDNA sequencing) in each fraction whose density was measured by refractometry. The lines indicate the Gaussian distributions to accurately estimate the mean buoyant density. The mean buoyant density of ASV 2 (*Tolomonas* sp.) was estimated with the theoretical value in the ^{12}C bottle, as ASV2 did not grow sufficiently in that bottle to fit a reliable Gaussian fit. The pie charts indicate the ratios of the nine ^{13}C -labeled ASV in the ^{13}C and ^{12}C bottles after 24h and their proportion in the initial sample is reported in the X axis. For example, the pie of *Aeromonas* is roughly balanced because ASV 1 (*Aeromonas* sp.) represented 19% and 8% in the ^{12}C and ^{13}C bottles respectively. In contrast, ASV 2 (*Tolomonas* sp.) only grew substantially in the ^{13}C bottle (red).

STEP6: To complete the mass balance of the ^{13}C -atoms of the labeled T4 phages, we multiply the total carbon content of each species by its labeling level. For example, ASV1 (*Aeromonas* sp.) represents $6.28 \cdot 10^{-8} \times 0.85 = 5.33 \cdot 10^{-8}$ g of carbon (Table S3).

STEP7: To estimate the mass of carbon needed to account for the carbon content observed each species, we assume that the carbon use efficiency for each ASV is 33% (see pure culture experiment). It should be noted that we measured the yield for ASV1 (*Aeromonas* sp.) and we then we assume the same yield for every ASV. Once corrected by the carbon use efficiency (i.e. the bacterial yield), the estimation of ^{13}C needed by each species is compared to the $3.2 \cdot 10^{-6}$ g of ^{13}C incorporated in the $2.28 \cdot 10^{10}$ ^{13}C -labeled T4 phages (since each T4 viral particle contains $1.49 \cdot 10^{-16}$ g C and we assume that they were 100% labeled with ^{13}C because of their production method). For example, we estimated $2.09 \cdot 10^6$ newly synthesized cells of ASV1 (*Aeromonas* sp.), which account for $6.28 \cdot 10^{-8}$ g ^{13}C therefore correspond to 5% of the ^{13}C atoms initially present. Adding the contributions of the 9 most-labeled ASVs accounts for 41% of the initial mass of ^{13}C (Table below).

Table S 3 : ^{13}C mass balance of the isotopically labeled T4 bacteriophages.

This table indicates the rationale for the ^{13}C mass balance following the steps described above. For example, ASV 1 (*Aeromonas* sp.) represents 8% of the $2.47 \cdot 10^8$ 16S rDNA copies found at the end of the experiment, which represents 5% of the total amount of ^{13}C present in the initial T4 phages because the 30fgC-cells labeled at 85% needed $5.3 \cdot 10^{-8}\text{g}$ of ^{13}C if we consider a 33% yield.

STEP	Description	ASV 1	ASV 2	ASV 7	ASV 9	ASV 12	ASV 20	ASV 21	ASV 67	ASV 79
1	Absolute number of 16S rDNA copies in the initial sample	9.78 10^7								
	Absolute number of 16S rDNA copies in the final sample	2.47 10^8								
2	Counts in the initial sample (out of 3748 sequences)	0	0	148	132	197	123	0	46	53
	Counts in the final ^{13}C sample (out of 3578 sequences)	303	1545	37	62	52	55	55	41	55
	Relative initial abundance of 16S rDNA of each ASV	0%	0%	4%	4%	5%	3%	0%	1%	1%
	Relative final abundance of 16S rDNA of each ASV	8%	43%	1%	2%	1%	2%	2%	1%	2%
	Absolute number of 16S rDNA copies in the initial sample of each ASV	0	0	$3.86 \cdot 10^6$	$3.44 \cdot 10^6$	$5.14 \cdot 10^6$	$3.21 \cdot 10^6$	0	$1.20 \cdot 10^6$	$1.38 \cdot 10^6$
	Absolute number of 16S rDNA copies in the final sample of each ASV	$2.09 \cdot 10^7$	$1.07 \cdot 10^8$	$2.55 \cdot 10^6$	$4.28 \cdot 10^6$	$3.59 \cdot 10^6$	$3.80 \cdot 10^6$	$3.80 \cdot 10^6$	$2.83 \cdot 10^6$	$3.80 \cdot 10^6$
	Number of newly synthesized 16S copies	$2.09 \cdot 10^7$	$1.07 \cdot 10^8$	0	$8.36 \cdot 10^5$	0	$5.87 \cdot 10^5$	$3.80 \cdot 10^6$	$1.63 \cdot 10^6$	$2.41 \cdot 10^6$
3	Number of 16S rDNA copies per genome of each ASV ²	10	10	4	4	1	2	1	2	2
	Number of newly synthesized cells of each ASV	$2.09 \cdot 10^6$	$1.07 \cdot 10^7$	0	$2.09 \cdot 10^5$	0	$2.94 \cdot 10^5$	$3.80 \cdot 10^6$	$8.15 \cdot 10^5$	$1.21 \cdot 10^6$
4	Carbon content (g/cell)	$3.00 \cdot 10^{-14}$								
	Total Carbon content in each ASV (g)	$6.28 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$3.20 \cdot 10^{-7}$	0	$6.27 \cdot 10^{-9}$	0	$8.81 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$1.14 \cdot 10^{-7}$	$2.45 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$3.62 \cdot 10^{-8}$
5	Mean ^{12}C density (g/mL)	1.72	1.7	1.72	1.72	1.68	1.71	1.68	1.72	1.72
	Goodness_fit_in_ ^{12}C (R^2)	0.98	0.4	0.99	0.97	0.99	0.97	0.98	0.88	0.89
	Mean corrected ^{12}C density	1.72	1.71	1.72	1.72	1.68	1.71	1.68	1.72	1.72
	Mean ^{13}C density	1.75	1.74	1.73	1.73	1.7	1.71	1.7	1.73	1.72
	Goodness_fit_in_ ^{13}C (R^2)	0.89	0.99	0.9	0.89	0.98	0.93	0.99	0.94	0.94
	Labeling Level (%)	85%	95%	10%	14%	71%	19%	49%	16%	23%
6	^{13}C carbon content in each ASV (g)	$5.3 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$3.0 \cdot 10^{-7}$	0	$8.8 \cdot 10^{-10}$	0	$1.7 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$5.6 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$3.9 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$8.3 \cdot 10^{-9}$
7	Carbon use efficiency (i.e. Bacterial yield)	0.33								
	Contribution to the ^{13}C mass balance (out of the $3.2 \mu\text{g}$ of ^{13}C in the bacteriophages)	5% ¹	29% ¹	0% ¹	0% ¹	0%	0%	5%	0%	1%
	^{13}C mass balance	41%								

¹, 83% of the predation of T4 phages is due to *Gammaproteobacteria*, which also include *E. coli*, the natural host of T4 phages.

1.3 Taxonomy of the ¹³C-labeled ASVs

Table S 4 : Taxonomic affiliation of the ASVs that are significantly labeled with ¹³C

This table indicates the taxonomy of the labeled ASV performed by DADA2 with the Siva138 dataset. The taxonomy was also checked by blasting on the NCBI database.

seq_ID.x	Class	Order	Family	Genus
ASV 2	Gammaproteobacteria	Aeromonadales	Aeromonadaceae	Tolumonas
ASV 1	Gammaproteobacteria	Aeromonadales	Aeromonadaceae	Aeromonas
ASV 12	Ignavibacteria	Ignavibacteriales	PHOS-HE36	NA
ASV 21	Ignavibacteria	Ignavibacteriales	PHOS-HE36	NA
ASV 79	Bacteroidia	Chitinophagales	Saprospiraceae	Haliscomenobacter
ASV 20	Bacteroidia	Chitinophagales	Saprospiraceae	NA
ASV 67	Anaerolineae	Ardenticatenales	NA	NA
ASV 7	Gammaproteobacteria	Burkholderiales	Rhodocyclaceae	NA
ASV 9	Gammaproteobacteria	Burkholderiales	Rhodocyclaceae	Dechloromonas

2 Isolation of Aeromonas isolate 007 and subsequent experiments

Following the SIP experiment, we could luckily isolate a strain of *Aeromonas* sp (ASV1) from the initial sample using the *Aeromonas* Isolation Agar medium (Sigma 17118) with ampicillin since *Aeromonads* are resistant to ampicillin. Therefore, we could confirm that *Aeromonas* sp. was indeed able to assimilate the carbon of the T4 phages. Furthermore, we could show that *Aeromonas* could use T4 phages as carbon and nitrogen source with a 33% yield and scan the genome of *Aeromonas_isolate_007* for putative mechanisms by which *Aeromonas* could capture, digest the T4 phage proteins and transfer the generated peptides into the intracellular space.

2.1 Pure culture experiment

We incubated 50 *Aeromonas* cells with 10^{11} T4 phages in 1mL. After 24h, we counted $1.63 \cdot 10^8$ *Aeromonas* cells. Converting 10^{11} T4 phages into $1.6 \cdot 10^8$ ASV1 (*Aeromonas* sp.) cells (Figure S 4) corresponds to $9.14 \cdot 10^{-14}$ g of carbon (613 bacteriophages of $1.49 \cdot 10^{-16}$ gC) per *Aeromonas* cell containing $3 \cdot 10^{-14}$ of carbon, hence a carbon use efficiency of 33% (also called bacterial yield). The number of generations in 2880 minutes was estimated to $(\ln 1.6 \cdot 10^8/58)/\ln(2) = 21.3$, hence 134 minutes per generation.

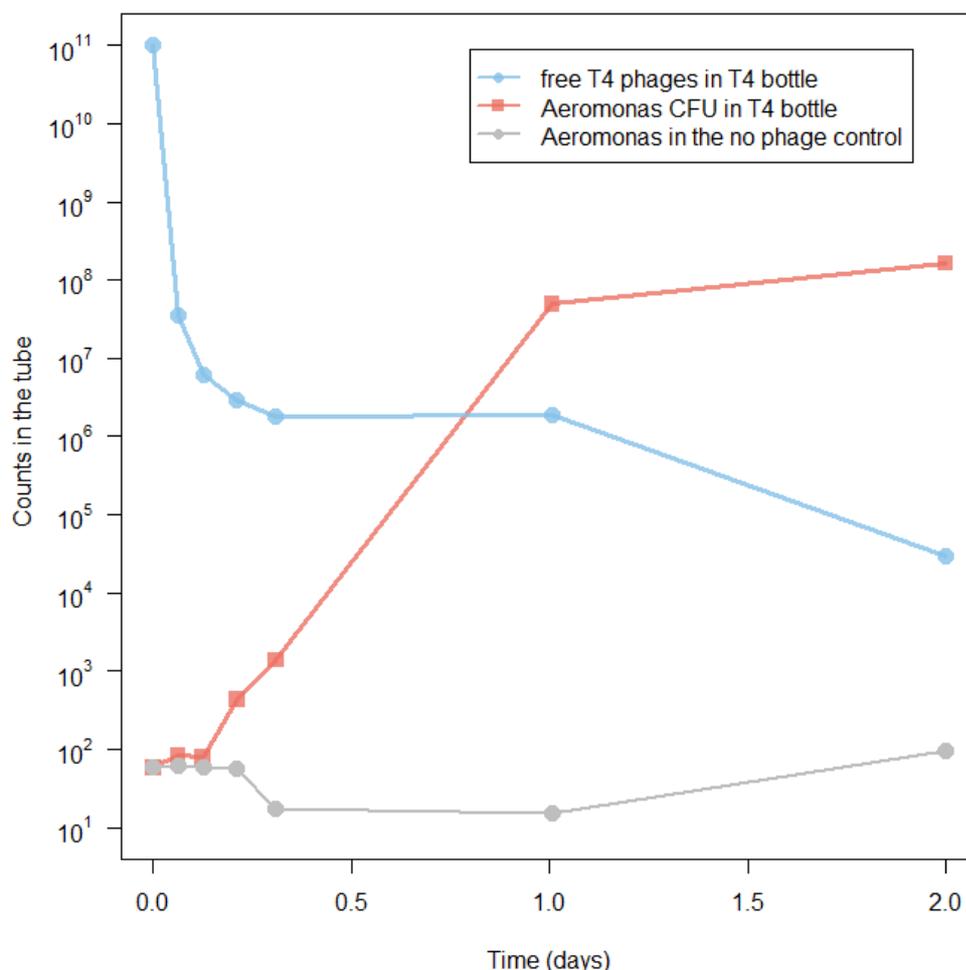


Figure S 4 : Bacteriophage decrease and *Aeromonas_isolate_007* growth in pure culture

The red line indicates the number of colony-forming units over time when 50 *Aeromonas* cells are supplemented with 10^{11} T4 bacteriophages (blue line). The grey line demonstrates that the SM buffer in which the T4 bacteriophages are conserved is not responsible for the growth.

2.2 Whole genome sequencing

2.2.1 Sequencing technique and statistics

The whole genome sequencing was performed on the GeT-Plage facility in Toulouse.

Briefly, *Aeromonas* DNA was fragmented by sonication and sequencing adaptators were ligated. 8 cycles of PCR were applied to amplify libraries. Library quality was assessed using an Advanced Analytical Fragment Analyzer and libraries were quantified by QPCR using the Kapa Library Quantification Kit. DNA-seq experiments were performed on an Illumina Miseq using a paired-end read length of 2x300 pb with the Illumina MiSeq Reagent Kits v3. The sequences were quality trimmed with fastp v0.20.0⁵, assembled by Spades v3.14.1⁶ after removing the residual phiX by using bowtie2 v2.3.5.1⁷, and filtering scaffolds smaller than right insert size quantile 525nt and coverage smaller than 50X. The assembly statistics of the *Aeromonas* genome are below:

- Total genome size : 4667413 nt
- Max scaffold size : 1964260 nt
- Min scaffold size (after scaffold coverage and size filtering) : 504 nt
- Nb scaffold : 29
- Nb contig : 31
- N50 scaffold size : 947468 nt
- Average scaffold size : 160945.28 nt
- Nb Total gene : 4172
- % complete gene : 99.73
- 16S rRNA nb fragment : 2
- 16S rRNA fragment size : 1016 nt + 531 nt
- nb of 16S rRNA copies based on ratio with scaffold coverage : 10.89
- nb of 16S rRNA copies based on reference database ²: 10

2.2.2 Phylogenetic tree of *Aeromonas_isolate_007*

The whole genome sequencing of the *Aeromonas_isolate_007* by Illumina Miseq narrows down the phylogeny of the strain and offers suggestions with respect to degradative enzymes that may help bacteriophage digestion (Table S5).

Tree scale: 0.01

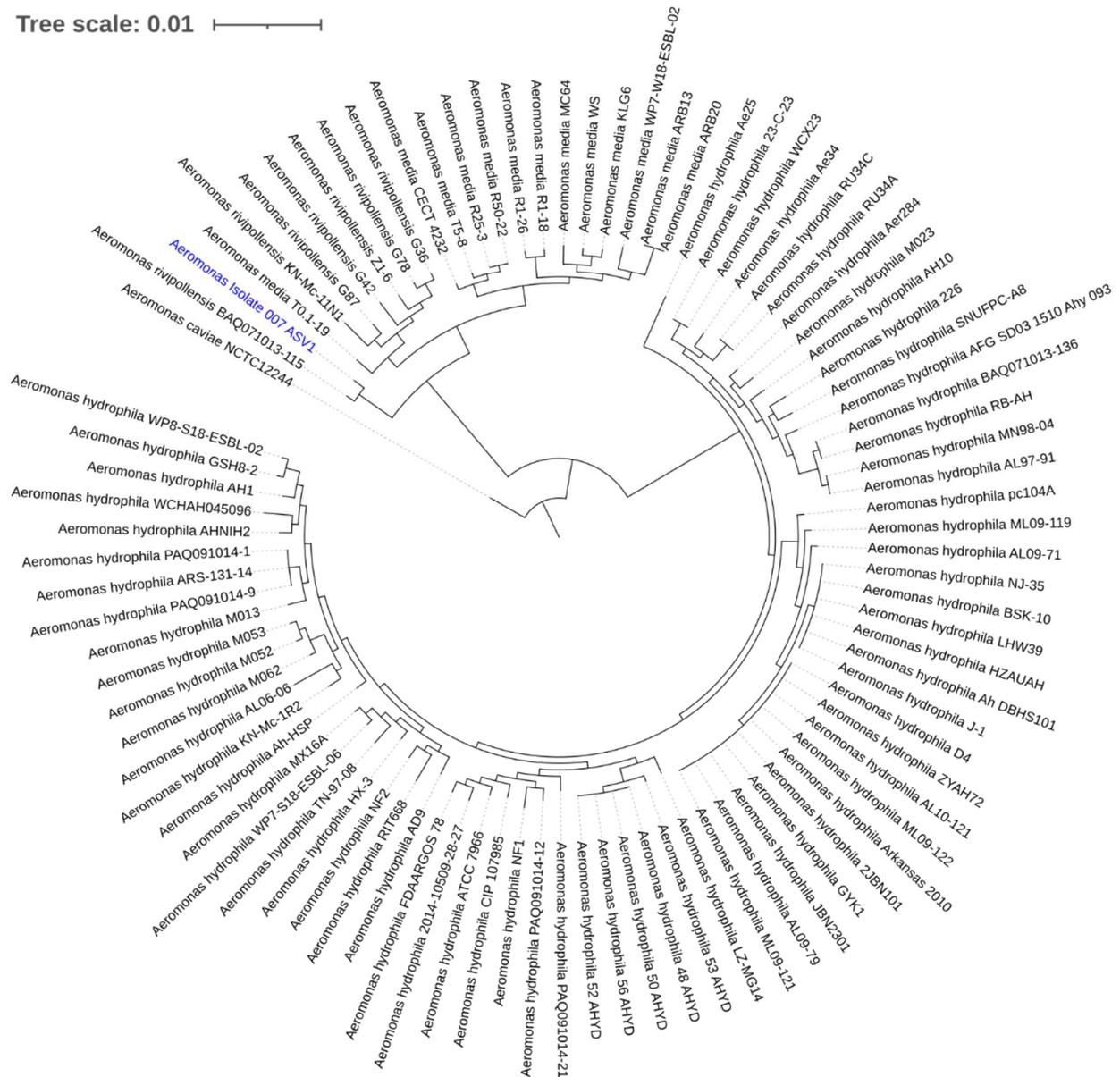


Figure S 5 : Phylogenetic tree of *Aeromonas_Isolate_007_151020*

The analysis of the whole genome confirms that *Aeromonas_Isolate_007_151020* belongs to an intermediate clade between *Aeromonas media* and *Aeromonas rivipollensis* species.

2.2.3 Schematic model of the phage predation

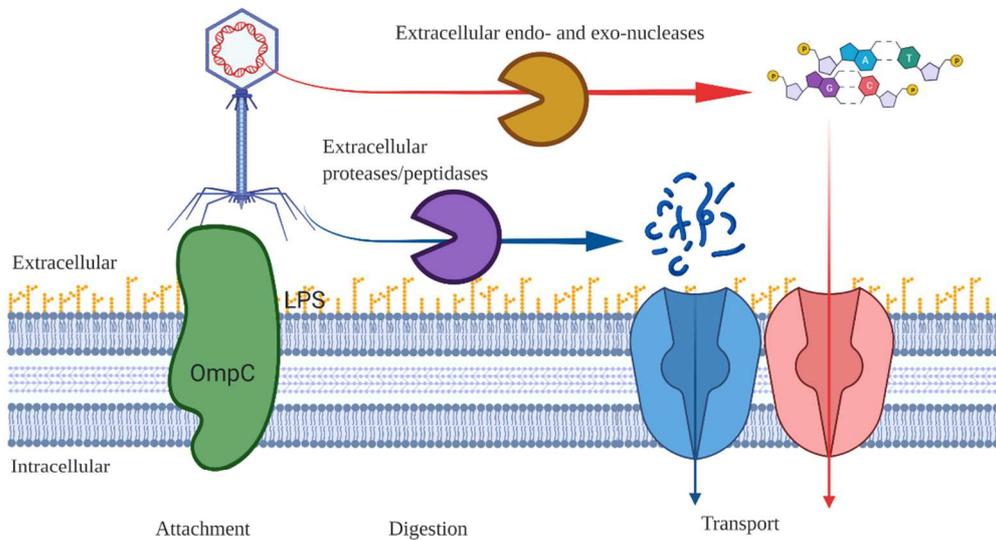


Figure S6: Schematic representation of the capture, digestion and absorption of the T4 phages by *Aeromonas* sp

Since T4 phages are large particles (not to scale in the figure), we assume that *Aeromonas* captures the T4 phages due to its similarity with the cell wall of *E.coli*. Once captured, the proteins of the capsid may be digested by the extracellular proteases present in *Aeromonas* sp and the DNA could be degraded as well. The products of these degradations could be ingested by *Aeromonas* via common transporters.

2.2.4 Annotation of the putative genes involved in phage predation

The functional annotation was performed with RAST8, eggNOG-mapper (v2.0.0)9 and TMHMM10 to predict the extracellular location of the proteins. The results are reported in the table below.

Table S 5 : Annotation of the *Aeromonas* proteins putatively involved in the capture, digestion and absorption of T4 phages, which are reported in the table below.

Putative function	RAST protein id	contig id	RAST_function	TMHMM inside	TMHMM transmembrane	TMHMM outside
CAPTURE	fig 642.77 0.peg.2774	NODE_2_length_947 468_cov_91.192050	Outer_membrane_porin_OmpC	1	1	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1967	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368		0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.3181	NODE_3_length_439 005_cov_94.027299		0	0	1
Extracellular DIGESTION of large proteins	fig 642.77 0.peg.202	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	putative_extracellular_serine_protease	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.309	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Uncharacterized_protease_YhbU	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.653	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Tail-specific_protease_precursor_(EC_3.4.21.102)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.664	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Lon_protease_homolog_YcbZ	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.903	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	ATP-dependent_protease_La_(EC_3.4.21.53)_Type_I	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.904	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	ATP-dependent_Clp_protease_ATP-binding_subunit_ClpX	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.905	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	ATP- dependent_Clp_protease_proteolytic_subunit_ClpP_(EC_3.4.2 1.92)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.919	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Protease_III_precursor_(EC_3.4.24.55)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.976	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	ATP-dependent_Clp_protease_ATP-binding_subunit_ClpA	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1312	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Protease_II_(EC_3.4.21.83)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1793	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Uncharacterized_protease_YegQ	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1989	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Vibriolysin_extracellular_zinc_protease_(EC_3.4.24.25)_@_ Pseudolysin_extracellular_zinc_protease_(EC_3.4.24.26)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.2147	NODE_2_length_947 468_cov_91.192050	Uncharacterized_protease_YdcP	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.3280	NODE_3_length_439 005_cov_94.027299	Protease_II_(EC_3.4.21.83)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.3795	NODE_5_length_206 066_cov_93.597574	ATP-dependent_hsl_protease_ATP-binding_subunit_HslU	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.3796	NODE_5_length_206 066_cov_93.597574	ATP-dependent_protease_subunit_HslV_(EC_3.4.25.2)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.12	NODE_10_length_72 653_cov_95.226534	Oligopeptidase_A_(EC_3.4.24.70)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.67	NODE_10_length_72 653_cov_95.226534	Xaa-Pro_dipeptidase_PepQ_(EC_3.4.13.9)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.308	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Uncharacterized_peptidase_U32_family_member_YhbV	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.319	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Peptidase_B_(EC_3.4.11.23)	0	0	1
fig 642.77 0.peg.324	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Peptidase_B_(EC_3.4.11.23)	0	0	1	

	fig 642.77 0.peg.496	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Aminopeptidase_PepA-related_protein	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.654	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Membrane_alanine_aminopeptidase_N_(EC_3.4.11.2)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1189	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Oligoendopeptidase_F-like_protein	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1360	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Tripeptide_aminopeptidase_(EC_3.4.11.4)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1462	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Probable_endopeptidase_NlpC	0	0	1
Extracellular DIGESTION of large proteins	fig 642.77 0.peg.1502	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	FIG009095:_D_D-carboxypeptidase_family_protein	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1638	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Peptidase_M23/M37_family	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1722	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Membrane_proteins_related_to_metalloendopeptidases	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1792	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	L_D-transpeptidase_>_YbiS	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1981	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	L_D-transpeptidase_>_YbiS	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.2129	NODE_2_length_947 468_cov_91.192050	Alpha-aspartyl_dipeptidase_Peptidase_E_(EC_3.4.13.21)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.2153	NODE_2_length_947 468_cov_91.192050	Thermostable_carboxypeptidase_1_(EC_3.4.17.19)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.2266	NODE_2_length_947 468_cov_91.192050	Methionine_aminopeptidase_(EC_3.4.11.18)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.2291	NODE_2_length_947 468_cov_91.192050	Peptidase_M13_family	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.2456	NODE_2_length_947 468_cov_91.192050	γ -glutamyltranspeptidase_(EC_2.3.2.2)_ @_Glutathione_hydrolase_(EC_3.4.19.13)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.3506	NODE_4_length_411 610_cov_92.800192	Xaa-Pro_aminopeptidase_(EC_3.4.11.9)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.3576	NODE_4_length_411 610_cov_92.800192	Prolyl_endopeptidase_(EC_3.4.21.26)	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.4017	NODE_6_length_154 685_cov_89.330397	Oligoendopeptidase_F-like_protein	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.4147	NODE_7_length_126 480_cov_93.962673	Bacterial_leucyl_aminopeptidase_(EC_3.4.11.10)	0	0	1
	DNA DIGESTION	fig 642.77 0.peg.760	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Extracellular_and/or_outer_membrane_deoxyribonuclease_Nuc H/SO1066	0	0
fig 642.77 0.peg.1409		NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	UPF0294_protein_YafD (exo- and endo- nuclease family)	0	0	1
fig 642.77 0.peg.1884		NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	DNA/RNA_endonuclease_G	1	1	1
fig 642.77 0.peg.1925		NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Extracellular_and/or_outer_membrane_deoxyribonuclease_Nuc H/SO1066	0	0	1
Peptide TRANSPORT into the cell	fig 642.77 0.peg.2135	NODE_2_length_947 468_cov_91.192050	Succinyl-CoA_synthetase__alpha_subunit	0	0	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.274	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	ABC_transporter__permease_protein_1_(cluster_5__nickel/pep tides/opines)	4	6	3
	fig 642.77 0.peg.275	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	ABC_transporter__permease_protein_2_(cluster_5__nickel/pep tides/opines)	3	5	3
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1213	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Oligopeptide_ABC_transporter__permease_protein_OppC_(T C_3.A.1.5.1)	4	6	3
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1214	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Oligopeptide_ABC_transporter__permease_protein_OppB_(T C_3.A.1.5.1)	4	6	3
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1215	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Oligopeptide_ABC_transporter__substrate- binding_protein_OppA_(TC_3.A.1.5.1)	1	1	1
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1819	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	Dipeptide_ABC_transporter__permease_protein_DppC_(TC_3 .A.1.5.2)	4	6	3
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1820	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	ABC_transporter__permease_protein_1_(cluster_5__nickel/pep tides/opines)	4	6	3
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1913	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	ABC_transporter__permease_protein_2_(cluster_5__nickel/pep tides/opines)	4	6	3
	fig 642.77 0.peg.1914	NODE_1_length_196 4260_cov_90.024368	ABC_transporter__permease_protein_1_(cluster_5__nickel/pep tides/opines)	4	6	3

DNA TRANSPORT into the cell	fig 642.77 0.peg.2922	NODE_3_length_439 005_cov_94.027299	Na+_dependent_nucleoside_transporter_NupC	5	9	4
	fig 642.77 0.peg.2967	NODE_3_length_439 005_cov_94.027299	Na+_dependent_nucleoside_transporter_NupC	4	8	4
	fig 642.77 0.peg.3112	NODE_3_length_439 005_cov_94.027299	Na+_dependent_nucleoside_transporter_NupC	4	8	4
	fig 642.77 0.peg.4145	NODE_7_length_126 480_cov_93.962673	Predicted_nucleoside_ABC_transporter__permease_1_compon ent	6	1 0	5
	fig 642.77 0.peg.4146	NODE_7_length_126 480_cov_93.962673	Predicted_nucleoside_ABC_transporter__permease_2_compon ent	4	7	4
	fig 642.77 0.peg.177	NODE_13_length_22 868_cov_91.969299	DNA_uptake_protein	0	0	1

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