- 1 Functional role of lanthanides in enzymatic activity and transcriptional
- 2 regulation of PQQ-dependent alcohol dehydrogenases in Pseudomonas putida
- 3 **KT2440**

7

11

13

- 5 Matthias Wehrmann^a, Patrick Billard^{b,c}, Audrey Martin Meriadec^{b,c}, Asfaw Zegeye^{b,c}, Janosch
- 6 Klebensberger^a#
- 8 University of Stuttgart, Institute of Technical Biochemistry, Stuttgart, Germany^a; Université de
- 9 Lorraine, LIEC UMR7360, Faculté des Sciences et Technologies, Vandoeuvre-lès-Nancy, France^b;
- 10 CNRS, LIEC UMR7360, Faculté des Sciences et Technologies, Vandoeuvre-lès-Nancy, France^c
- 12 Running title: Functional role of lanthanides in *Pseudomonas putida*
- 14 #Address correspondence to Janosch Klebensberger, janosch.klebensberger@itb.uni-
- 15 <u>stuttgart.de</u>
- 17 Keywords: lanthanides, *Pseudomonas putida*, PQQ, volatiles, protein function, alcohol
- dehydrogenase, functional redundancy, gene regulation

ABSTRACT

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

The oxidation of alcohols and aldehydes is crucial for detoxification and efficient catabolism of various volatile organic compounds (VOCs). Thus, many Gram-negative bacteria have evolved periplasmic oxidation systems, based on pyrrologuinoline guinone-dependent alcohol dehydrogenases (PQQ-ADHs), which are often functionally redundant. Using purified enzymes from the soil-dwelling model organism Pseudomonas putida KT2440, the present study reports the first description and characterization of a lanthanide-dependent PQQ-ADH (PedH) in a nonmethylotrophic bacterium. PedH exhibits enzyme activity on a similar substrate range as its Ca²⁺-dependent counterpart PedE, including linear and aromatic primary and secondary alcohols as well as aldehydes, however, only in the presence of lanthanide ions including La³⁺, Ce³⁺, Pr³⁺, Sm³⁺ or Nd³⁺. Reporter assays revealed that PedH not only has a catalytic function, but is also involved in the transcriptional regulation of pedE and pedH, most likely acting as a sensory module. Notably, the underlying regulatory network is responsive to as little as 1-10nM of lanthanum, a concentration assumed to be of ecological relevance. The present study further demonstrates that the PQQ-dependent oxidation system is crucial for efficient growth with a variety of volatile alcohols. From these results we conclude that functional redundancy and inverse regulation of PedE and PedH represents an adaptive strategy of P. putida KT2440 to optimize growth with volatile alcohols in response to different lanthanide availability.

IMPORTANCE

Due to their low bioavailability, lanthanides have long been considered as biologically inert. In recent years however, the identification of lanthanides as a cofactor in methylotrophic bacteria has attracted tremendous interest among various biological fields. The present study reveals that one of the two PQQ-ADHs produced by the model organism *P. putida* KT2440 also utilizes lanthanides as a cofactor, thus expanding the scope of lanthanide employing bacteria beyond the methylotrophs. Similar to methyloptrophic bacteria, a complex regulatory network is involved in the lanthanide-responsive switch between the two PQQ-ADHs encoded by *P. putida* KT2440. We further show that functional production of at least one of the enzymes is crucial for efficient growth with several volatile alcohols. Overall, our study provides a novel understanding for the redundancy of PQQ-ADHs observed in many organisms and further highlights the importance of lanthanides for bacterial metabolism, particularly in soil environments.

INTRODUCTION

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

As a soil-dwelling organism, Pseudomonas putida can encounter a large diversity of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) from different sources (1-3). The ecological role of many VOCs is not clearly defined but the number of known specific functions is rapidly increasing. These functions include the growth promotion of plants, anti-herbivore, -bacterial, and -fungal activities, and signaling both within the same and between different species (4-7). Among many other chemicals, VOCs include cyclic, acyclic, aromatic, and terpenoid structures with alcohol and aldehyde moieties, which are mainly derived from the metabolism of bacterial, yeast, fungal, or plant species. Beside their specific molecular function, they can also serve as carbon and energy sources for a wide range of microorganisms. To efficiently use volatile alcohols and aldehydes, it is advantageous if their metabolism is initiated by pyrrologuinoline quinone (PQQ)-dependent alcohol dehydrogenases (PQQ-ADHs) for at least two different reasons. Firstly, by using a periplasmic oxidation system, the organism is able to rapidly detoxify the often harmful chemicals without prior transport into the cytoplasm (8, 9). Secondly, the periplasmic location of the enzymes allows the rapid capture of a volatile carbon source by the conversion to and accumulation of acidic products with decreased volatility. The reaction mechanism of PQQ-ADHs is still not completely resolved, but most likely proceeds via an ion-assisted direct hydride transfer from the substrate to the C5 of the non-covalently bound cofactor PQQ (10-12). PQQ-ADHs can be divided into different subclasses depending either on their molecular composition (quinoproteins or quinohemoproteins), or whether they are membrane bound or freely soluble within the periplasm (13). Many organisms express different classes or even multiple PQQ-ADHs of the same type, indicating the importance of

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

these enzymes (14-16). The genome of P. putida KT2440 encodes two PQQ-ADHs, namely PP 2674 (pedE) and PP 2679 (pedH), which have been shown to be involved in the metabolism of different substrates (17-19). PedE is a homolog of ExaA (QEDH) from Pseudomonas aeruginosa, which represents the most intensively studied member of the class of soluble ethanol dehydrogenases (20-24). ExaA and homologs thereof accept a wide variety of substrates and rely on a Ca²⁺ ion in the active site, in addition to the PQQ cofactor, for the oxidation of primary and secondary alcohols, as well as aldehydes (18, 24). Despite their broad substrate range, ExaA-like enzymes show only very poor conversion of methanol. Not surprisingly, methano- and methylotrophic bacteria, which can use methane and methanol as a source of carbon and energy, encode a different type of PQQ-dependent enzyme, the MxaFtype of methanol dehydrogenases (MxaF-MDH) (25, 26). These enzymes display high substrate specificity for methanol and formaldehyde and also depend on a Ca²⁺ as cofactor (27). Interestingly, methano- and methylotrophic bacteria encode an additional type of PQQdependent methanol dehydrogenases, the XoxF-MDH type, which utilizes rare earth metals (REM) of the lanthanide series as cofactor instead of calcium (28–30). Since their discovery, several XoxF-type MDHs from different methano- and methylotrophs have been identified and characterized (31-33). Phylogenetic analysis of available sequence information suggests that lanthanide dependency is an ancestral feature of PQQ-ADHs, and that these enzymes are more abundant than their Ca²⁺-dependent counterparts (15, 34). In addition, a very recent publication described the first lanthanide-dependent ethanol dehydrogenase in M. extorquens AM1 (16). As a consequence, REM-dependent enzymes and the microorganisms which produce them have sparked a lot of academic and commercial interest, as they might be

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

exploited in a broad variety of biotechnological fields (35, 36). Potential applications range from the development of new biocatalysts and biosensors to the use of the associated microorganisms in biomining, bioleaching, and recycling processes for REMs. However, so far lanthanide-dependent PQQ-ADHs have been limited to methano- and methylotrophic bacteria. In the present study, we report the first description and detailed characterization of a lanthanide-dependent PQQ-ADH (PedH) in the non-methylotrophic bacterium Pseudomonas putida KT2440, which represents a model organism for industrial and environmental applications (37-40). We demonstrate that PedH exhibits enzymatic activity only in the presence of lanthanides, including but not limited to lanthanum, praseodymium and cerium, and show that this enzyme has a similar substrate range as PedE, the recently characterized Ca²⁺-dependent PQQ-ADH from KT2440 (18). By the use of deletion mutants and transcriptional reporter fusions, we provide evidence that the functional redundancy of the PQQ-ADHs reflects the variable availability of lanthanides in the natural environment of P. putida KT2440 and show that these enzymes are crucial for efficient growth with a variety of volatile alcohols. Finally, we reveal that PedH plays an important role in the regulatory switch between pedH and pedE transcription, most likely acting as a sensory module. From these data, we conclude that KT2440 responds to lanthanide availability with the inverse transcriptional regulation of the two PQQ-ADHs to optimize growth with volatile alcoholic and aldehyde substrates.

RESULTS

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

Biochemical characterization of PedE and PedH. Like many other organisms, Pseudomonas putida KT2440 harbors more than one gene annotated as a PQQ-ADH, namely PP 2674 (PedE/QedH; GI: 26989393) and PP 2679 (PedH; GI: 26989398). To study the rationale for this redundancy, we purified and characterized the corresponding enzymes. A one-step affinity chromatography method produced soluble C-terminally His-tagged PedE and PedH to visible purity (Fig. S1) from cell lysates of E. coli BL21 (DE3). Under optimized reaction conditions, which include the presence of 1 mM Ca²⁺, the specific activities of purified PedE with a variety of substrates were determined (Table 1). For all linear primary alcohols and aldehydes, comparably high enzyme activities ranging from 1.9 ± 0.2 U mg⁻¹ to 6.7 ± 0.9 U mg⁻¹ were found. Similarly, 2-phenylethanol, the secondary alcohol 2-butanol, cinnamyl alcohol, and the acyclic sesquiterpene farnesol were efficiently converted with specific activities ranging from 6.7 ± 1.1 U mg⁻¹ to 2.0 ± 0.3 U mg⁻¹. Methanol, 2.3-butanediol, and ethanolamine were poor substrates for the enzyme with about 10-fold decrease in specific activity compared to ethanol or 2phenylethanol. From all substrates tested, cinnamyl aldehyde was the only compound with which no activity was detected for PedE. When we assayed purified PedH under the optimized reaction conditions used for PedE, no activity for any of the tested substrates was observed (data not shown). Comparison of the active sites of both enzymes, using homology models based on the crystal structure of the ethanol dehydrogenase ExaA of P. aeruginosa (PDB: 1FLG) revealed that, similar to other characterized representatives of the PQQ-dependent ethanol dehydrogenase type, the PedE protein harbors a serine residue at amino acid position 295, which is involved in the

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

coordination of the Ca²⁺ ion (Fig. 1A). In contrast, in PedH this residue is exchanged to an aspartate (Fig. 1B). As this aspartate residue has recently been associated with the coordination of trivalent lanthanide ions in the active site of PQQ-dependent methanol and ethanol dehydrogenases in methylotrophs (15, 16), we tested PedH for activity with ethanol in the presence of a variety of rare earth metals (Fig. 2). From these experiments we found that PedH showed no activity when 1 μ M of Er³⁺, Sc³⁺, Y³⁺ or Yb³⁺ was added to the reaction mixture. However, in the presence of 1 μM of the lanthanides La³⁺, Ce³⁺, Pr³⁺, Nd³⁺, Sm³⁺, Gd³⁺ or Tb³⁺ enzymatic activities were detected, with maximal specific activities observed with Pr³⁺ and Nd³⁺, and only very low activities with Gd^{3+} or Tb^{3+} . Under optimized conditions, which include the supplementation with 1 µM Pr³⁺ instead of Ca²⁺, PedH showed a similar activity pattern as PedE (Table 1), but exhibited about 2-fold higher specific activities. Further, the functional concentration range of the cation cofactor differed dramatically for the two enzymes (Fig. S2A). While PedE showed enzyme activity at concentrations from 10 µM to 10 mM CaCl₂ with a peak in activity at 1 mM, PedH activity was found with lanthanide concentrations as little as 10 nM and up to 100 µM with a peak in activity at 1 μ M. From these data we calculated the dissociation constants (K_D) for various metals to the corresponding enzyme and found that PedH has an 850- to 2500-fold higher binding affinity for lanthanides ($K_D = 25 - 75$ nM; Fig. S2B2) as PedE does for Ca²⁺ ($K_D = 64$ μ M; Fig. S2B1). The subsequent determination of kinetic parameters with ethanol showed that V_{max} of PedH was approximately 1.7-fold higher than that observed for PedE (10.6 U mg⁻¹ vs. 6.1 U mg⁻¹; Fig. 3). However, the corresponding K_M was 2-fold lower for PedE compared to PedH (85 μ M vs. 177 μM). A similar pattern was found with acetaldehyde and 2-phenylethanol, but with

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

approximately 1.6-fold (2-phenylethanol) and 10-15-fold (acetaldehyde) lower catalytic efficiencies compared to those measured with ethanol. Statistical analysis (two-tailed t-test; $\alpha =$ 0.05; N = 3; GraphPad Prism, version 7.03) revealed that all maximal velocities (V_{max}) and binding constants (K_M) except for the K_M with ethanol were significantly different (P < 0.05) between PedE and PedH, however no significant differences could be observed in the catalytic efficiencies (k_{cat}/K_M). Growth with volatile alcohols in the presence and absence of lanthanides. In a next step, individual ($\Delta pedE$, $\Delta pedH$, Δpqq) and combinatorial ($\Delta pedE\Delta pedH$) deletion mutants were tested for growth with several VOCs using an agar plate assay in the presence and absence of 20 μM lanthanum (**Fig. 4A**). Strains KT2440 (type strain), KT2440* (Δ*upp* strain used as the parental strain for knockout mutants) and $\Delta pedH$ grew efficiently with ethanol, 1-butanol, and 2phenylethanol in the absence of La³⁺. Strain $\Delta pedE$ displayed no growth under this condition. Even more interestingly, the addition of 20 µM of La³⁺ to the agar medium not only resulted in growth of the $\Delta pedE$ strain, but also restricted the growth of $\Delta pedH$. The double mutant $\Delta pedE\Delta pedH$ and the Δpgg mutant, which is deficient in PQQ biosynthesis, showed no growth under both conditions. These experiments revealed that efficient growth with all tested alcohols, except the microbial fermentation product 2,3-butanediol, was dependent on the functional expression of PedE or PedH. To validate these findings, growth experiments in liquid M9 medium with 2-phenylethanol as sole carbon and energy source in the presence and absence of 20 μM La³⁺ were performed (Fig. 4B1-4). For this, plastic Erlenmeyer flasks were used to avoid potential contaminations of rare earth metals (REM) from the glassware (33). Growth of the liquid cultures followed a similar

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

pattern to that observed in the agar plate assay. While strain KT2440* (Fig. 4B1) showed growth after an 18-20 h lag phase and a peak in optical density at about 35 h in both conditions, the absence and the presence of lanthanum, strain $\triangle pedE \triangle pedH$ (Fig. 4B4) did not display growth in either condition. Growth of $\Delta pedE$ (Fig. 4B3) was observed exclusively in the presence of lanthanum. Lastly, strain ΔpedH (Fig. 4B2) showed growth similar to that of the KT2440* wildtype in the absence of lanthanum, but no growth was detected when 20 μ M La $^{3+}$ were supplemented. Transcriptional regulation of pedE and pedH determines growth with alcoholic volatiles. The previous experiments proved that for efficient growth with various VOCs the functional expression of at least one of the PQQ-ADHs is essential. The growth inhibition of the $\Delta pedH$ strain in the presence of lanthanum indicated a potential repression of the pedE gene in the presence of lanthanides, similar to recent reports in different methylotrophic bacteria (41–43). To proof this hypothesis, we constructed two reporter strains suitable for probing pedE and pedH promoter activities in KT2440*. When these strains were tested with 1 mM of 2phenylethanol in M9 medium (Fig. 5A), the addition of up to 10 nM La³⁺ did not affect pedE promoter activity compared to the condition in the absence of lanthanum. In contrast, the presence of 100 nM - 100 μ M of La³⁺ resulted in reduced *pedE* promoter activity. An inverse pattern was found for the pedH promoter. Here, very low activities were detected in the presence of up to 10 nM La³⁺. Upon addition of 100 nM or more lanthanum, expression from pedE promoter was induced with a peak at 10 µM. The importance of transcriptional regulation of pedE and pedH was further tested by growth experiments with 2-phenylethanol in liquid M9 medium (Fig. 5B). Growth of KT2440* was not

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

affected by the addition of up to 100 μM of lanthanum. On the other hand, strain ΔpedH showed a linear decrease in growth in the presence of increasing La³⁺ concentrations up to 1 μM, and no measurable growth when 10 μM or more La³⁺ was present in the medium. In contrast, growth of strain $\Delta pedE$ was only observed in the presence of 10 μ M or more La³⁺. Strain $\Delta pedE\Delta pedH$ did not grow under any of the tested conditions. A similar correlation between growth and promoter activity of pedE and pedH was observed for Ce³⁺, Pr³⁺, Nd³⁺, and Sm³⁺ (**Fig. S3**). These results demonstrate that KT2440 inversely regulates pedE and pedH promoter activity in response to varying lanthanide concentrations and suggests that this regulation represents the primary determinant for growth. However, in comparison to earlier studies with M. extorquens AM1, the effective lanthanide concentration needed for growth was much higher (10 µM vs. 5 nM)(41). As lanthanides are known to form very poorly soluble complexes with phosphate and hydroxide ions, we wondered whether this difference was caused by the minimal medium used for growth (MP vs. M9). When the experiments were repeated with MP medium, the same general trend and correlation of promoter activity and growth was found as described for M9 medium (Fig. 6AB). However, one difference was that the effective lanthanum concentration to trigger a transcriptional response and growth was considerably lower (1 nM and 10 nM). Another difference was that at a concentration of 10 nM La³⁺ minimal growth of both single mutant strains was observed. The latter observation indicated that environmental conditions might exist in which PedE and PedH are both functionally produced. To further test this hypothesis, an additional growth experiment was performed and indeed showed growth of

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

both single mutants in a concentration range of 1 – 15 nM La³⁺ after prolonged (48 h) incubation (Fig. S9). Impact of PedE and PedH on transcriptional regulation. In M. extorquens AM1, the transcription of methanol dehydrogenases is regulated, at least partially, by the PQQ-dependent enzymes themselves (44). To test whether a similar outside-in signaling is also present in P. putida KT2440, expression from the pedE and pedH promoter were quantified during growth with 2-phenylethanol in MP medium (Fig. 7). In the absence of lanthanum, the $\Delta pedH$ strain showed a 4-fold induction of pedE promoter activity, whereas the $\Delta pedE$ strain exhibited a slight decrease (0.5-fold) in expression from the pedE promoter compared to KT2440* (Fig. 7A). The presence of 10 nM La³⁺ resulted in a strong reduction of pedE promoter activity in all strains (21fold for KT2440*, 6-fold for $\Delta pedE$, 127-fold for $\Delta pedH$) compared to the control without lanthanum. In comparison to pedE, expression from the pedH promoter was considerably lower for all strains in the absence of lanthanum (Fig. 7B). However, when lanthanum was present, a strong induction of pedH promoter activity in strain KT2440* (37-fold) and ΔpedE (29-fold) was detected. Notably, the expression from the pedH promoter was dramatically reduced (2-fold vs. 37-fold) in the ΔpedH strain in comparison to the strains capable of producing a functional PedH protein.

DISCUSSION

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

Lanthanide-dependent enzymes have so far been found exclusively within methylotrophic organisms (16, 28-30, 32, 33). Using purified enzymes, we uncover that PedH, one of the two PQQ-dependent ADHs (PQQ-ADHs) produced by the non-methylotrophic model organism P. putida KT2440, is also a lanthanide-dependent enzyme, which utilizes La³⁺, Ce³⁺, Pr³⁺, Nd³⁺, Sm³⁺, Gd³⁺ and Tb³⁺ as metal cofactor. The highest catalytic rates were observed with Pr³⁺ and Nd³⁺. Notably, with lanthanides of higher atomic masses than Nd³⁺ the specific activity decreased gradually, eventually resulting in no detectable activity with the heaviest lanthanides tested (Er³⁺ and Yb³⁺). An analogous effect was previously reported by Pol et al., who investigated the impact of different lanthanides on growth rates of Methylacidiphilum fumariolicum SolV (33). A possible explanation for these observations is that the decreased atomic radius, which is a consequence of the lanthanide contraction, limits the more heavy lanthanides from being functionally incorporated into the active site of PedH (45). Kinetic parameters determined with Pr³⁺ and the three model substrates ethanol, acetaldehyde and 2-phenylethanol revealed that V_{max} of PedH is about twofold higher compared to its Ca²⁺dependent counterpart PedE. It has been proposed that the increased activity can be explained by the higher Lewis acidity of the lanthanides in comparison to calcium (46). Interestingly, we found that the K_M values of the lanthanide-dependent enzyme PedH with acetaldehyde or 2phenylethanol are significantly smaller than those of the Ca²⁺-dependent protein PedE. One possible explanation for this result is the higher polarity that arises in the active pocket of the trivalent cation coordinating PedH compared to the divalent cation coordinating PedE. Another explanation could be a smaller catalytic pocket, due to the higher atomic radius of Pr³⁺

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

compared to Ca^{2+} . The latter argument was proposed in an earlier study with the mxaF-type MDH of M. extorguens AM1 as a reason for decreased activities when Ca²⁺ was replaced with Ba²⁺ (47). In any case, apart from the approximately 2-fold increased specific activity of PedH compared to PedE, the substrate scope and catalytic efficiencies (k_{cat}/K_M) of both enzymes were found to be similar, which suggests that both enzymes are functionally redundant and only differ in their cofactor dependency. Functional redundancy is a well-known mechanism to improve robustness in complex systems (48). The fact that many organisms express multiple PQQ-ADHs can be interpreted as an adaptation to maintain an important function under variable environmental conditions or in different microhabitats. Our study is supportive of such a hypothesis, as we demonstrate that under conditions of high lanthanide availability, efficient growth of cells with various naturally occurring alcoholic VOCs relies on the functional production of the lanthanide-dependent ADH PedH. Similarly, for growth in the absence of lanthanides, functional production of the calciumdependent ADH PedE is mandatory. In this context it is important to note that growth in the agar plate assay used in this study is restrictive, as it depends on diffusion and evaporation of the volatile substrates. Thus, the assay most likely cannot discriminate between substrates for which PedE or PedH function are essential and substrates for which other but less efficient catabolic routes exist. We found that growth on ethanol (unpublished data) and 1-butanol (19), but not 2-phenylethanol (current study) is possible, but less efficient for a strain lacking PedE and PedH. From our and published data from a previous study (49), we therefore conclude that beside the fact that PedE and PedH is not essential for growth with short chain aliphatic alcohols

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

(C2 to C5), both enzymes provide rapid conversion of these substrates, which is crucial for efficient growth under restrictive conditions. We further show that growth phenotypes strongly correlate with inverse transcriptional regulation of pedE and pedH. Similar results have been reported for several methylotrophic bacteria (41, 42). When cells of P. putida KT2440 were grown in liquid MP medium, the addition of as little as 10 nM of lanthanides was sufficient to trigger pedE repression and a strong (20fold) concomitant induction of pedH. The transcription of pedH was found to be strongly influenced by the PedH protein itself, implying a role for PedH as a lanthanide sensory module. In M. extorquens AM1 the transcription of the calcium-dependent methanol dehydrogenase mxaF strictly relies on the presence of XoxF proteins (41, 44). Our data demonstrate that this regulation is different in P. putida, as pedE is only partially repressed by PedH. The fact that pedE repression in the presence of lanthanum is still observed in the ΔpedH mutant strain, together with the notion that the induction of pedH is not fully mediated by PedH, strongly suggests the existence of at least one additional lanthanum-responsive regulatory module. Notably, a very recent study identified that the transmembrane associated sensory histidine kinase MxaY mediates the lanthanide-responsive switch of the PQQ-dependent MDHs in Methylomicrobium buryatense (43). In P. putida KT2440 three different membrane associated sensory histidine kinases, PedS1 (PP 2664), PedS2 (PP 2671) and PP 2683, are encoded within close proximity of pedE and pedH as part of the predicted ErbR (AgmR) regulon (17). Whether one of these sensor kinases serves a similar function as MxaY needs to be determined in future studies.

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

From an ecological point of view, it is interesting that growth and inverse regulation occur even in presence of high Ca^{2+} concentrations (100 μM) when only nanomoles of lanthanum are supplied. From these data we conclude, similar to previous studies with M. buryatense or M. extorquens (32, 41), that the lanthanide-dependent enzyme PedH is the preferred PQQ-ADH when both metal cofactors are simultaneously accessible. Nevertheless, it was also demonstrated that under certain low REM concentrations, specific conditions exist in which both single mutants can grow. This suggests that the inverse regulation of the two enzymes is not a strict on-off switch, but rather operates by strongly shifting the transcription in favor of one of the enzymes depending on the REM concentration. REM utilizing PQQ-ADHs have been suggested to be ancestral and more widespread than their calcium-dependent homologues (15, 50). This might indicate that calcium-dependent enzymes have evolved to colonize different and/or additional environmental niches in which lanthanide availability is less pronounced. Compared to soil environments, especially the rhizosphere, lanthanide concentrations in the phyllosphere and endosphere, as well as in other non-plant higher organisms are comparably low (51-54). It is thus tempting to speculate, that Ca²⁺dependent enzymes are of particular relevance for interactions with multicellular organisms outside of soil environments. Metabolic interdependencies have been proposed as driving force for species co-occurrence and the emergence of mutualism in diverse microbial communities impacting their robustness, structure, and function (55-57). This is of particular interest in the context of periplasmic PQQ-ADHs, as organic alcohols and the corresponding oxidation products are not only crucial intermediates of the global carbon cycle, but can also exhibit additional functions including

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

signaling and growth inhibition (4-7, 58). A recent study reported that regulation of the MxaFand XoxF-type MDHs in a methanotrophic bacterium can be influenced by the presence of a non-methanotrophic methylotroph in co-culture experiments (59). The authors nicely demonstrate that during co-cultivation in the presence of methane and lanthanides, the methanotrophic bacterium shifts its gene expression from the xoxF- to the mxaF-type MDH. As a result of this change, leakage of methanol from the methanotroph was observed, which subsequently served as growth substrate for the non-methanotrophic partner. Although the mechanism of this phenomenon is not yet resolved, it indicates that different types of PQQ-ADHs might not only be important for potential interactions with higher organisms as discussed above, but also within microbial communities. Based on our data, one can speculate that similar interactions are not limited to methano- and methylotrophic bacteria, but are relevant in a much broader ecological context. Lastly, the discovery of lanthanides as a cofactor in biotechnological important organisms other than methylotrophic bacteria expands the possible applications one can envision for biomining, bioleaching, and recycling processes of rare earth metals (60-65). As such, we believe that future research about lanthanide-utilizing enzymes and organisms will improve our understanding of natural and synthetic microbial communities and could provide a basis for novel biotechnological tools and processes.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

Bacterial strains, plasmids, and culture conditions. Strains and plasmids used in this study (Table S1) as well as a detailed description of their construction (Text S1) can be found as supplementary material. Unless otherwise noted, Pseudomonas putida KT2440 and Escherichia coli strains were maintained on solidified (1.5% agar [w/v]) Lysogeny Broth (LB, Maniatis et al., 1982). Strains were routinely cultured in liquid LB medium, a modified M9 salt medium containing 74 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7), 18.6 mM NH₄Cl, 8.6 mM NaCl, 2 mM MgSO₄, 100 μM CaCl₂ with a trace element solution containing Na₃-citrate 51 μM, ZnSO₄ 7 μM, MnCl₂ 5 μM, CuSO₄ 4 μ M, FeSO₄ 36 μ M, H₃BO₃ 5 μ M, NaMoO₄ 137 nM, NiCl₂ 84 nM or a modified MP medium (67) containing 100 μM CaCl₂ instead of 20 μM CaCl₂ supplemented with succinate or 2phenylethanol as sole source of carbon and energy at 30°C with shaking. Where indicated, 40 µg mL⁻¹ kanamycin or 15 μg mL⁻¹ gentamycin for *E. coli* and 40 μg mL⁻¹ kanamycin, 20 μg mL⁻¹ 5fluoro uracil or 30 µg mL⁻¹ gentamycin for *P. putida* strains was added to the medium for maintenance and selection, respectively. Growth experiments in liquid medium. All liquid growth experiments were carried out using a modified M9 minimal salt medium or MP medium (see above) supplemented with 25 mM succinate or 5 mM 2-phenylethanol as carbon and energy source. To avoid potential lanthanide contaminations from glassware, all growth experiments were carried out in 125 mL polycarbonate vessels (Corning) or in polypropylene 96 well 2 ml deep well plates (Carl Roth). If not stated otherwise, precultures were grown in 5 ml minimal medium (15 mL Falcon tubes) supplemented with succinate at 30 °C and 180 rpm using a rotary shaker (HT Minitron, Infors). The next day, cultures were washed three times in fresh minimal medium without a carbon and

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

energy source and used to inoculate 1 ml (for 2 ml deep well plates) or 25 ml (for 125 ml polycarbonate vessels) of fresh medium to an initial optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) of 0.01. Subsequently, cultures were supplemented with the carbon and energy source as well as varying concentrations of lanthanides and incubated at 30°C and 180 rpm (for 125 ml polycarbonate vessels) or 800 rpm (for 2 ml deep well plates). For experiments in 125 ml polycarbonate vessels, growth was monitored by measuring the OD₆₀₀ at regular intervals using a photometer (BioPhotometer, Eppendorf). For experiments carried out in 2 ml deep well plates, OD₆₀₀ was determined after 24 h or 48 h by measuring 200 µL of cell culture transferred to a microtiter plate (Greiner bio-one) in a microplate reader (POLARstar Omega, BMG Labtech). All data are presented as the mean value of biological triplicates with error bars representing the corresponding standard deviation. Agar plates assay. For growth on solidified medium (1.5% agar [w/v]) with different substrates, M9 medium plates without addition of a carbon source and trace element solution were freshly prepared with or without the addition of 20 µM lanthanum chloride. Cell mass of the strains was obtained from LB agar plates, suspended in M9 medium without carbon and energy source, and adjusted to an optical density of 0.5. After drying the plates for 20 minutes in a laminar flow cabinet, 10 µL of each cell suspension was dropped onto the same plate and distributed using an inoculation loop on about 1/6 of the plate's surface. When all strains were distributed, a 10 μL drop of a 1:1 mixture (v/v) of ethanol, 1-butanol, 2-3 butanediol, 1-octanol, or 2phenylethanol in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) was placed in the middle of the plate. Subsequently, the plates were sealed in plastic bags and incubated at room temperature. After 48 h, growth was quantified with a digital imaging system (Vilber Lourmat, QUANTUM ST4)

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

using the standard fluorescence settings with combined white light and UV illumination (ex. 254 nm) for 1 sec, an aperture of 11 and using the preinstalled F590 nm filter. All individual pictures were subsequently sized, isolated from the background, and corrected for sharpness (+ 50%), brightness (+ 20%), and contrast (+ 40%) using the graphic formatting function in Microsoft PowerPoint. Transcriptional reporter assays. For transcriptional reporter assays, P. putida harboring either Tn7-based pedE-lux and pedH-lux transcriptional reporter fusion were grown overnight in a modified MP medium with succinate, washed three times in MP medium with no added carbon source and finally suspended in MP medium or M9 medium with 1 mM 2-phenylethanol to an OD_{600} of 0.1. For luminescence measurements, 180 μ l of cell suspension were added to 20 μ l of tenfold concentrated metal salt solution in white 96-well plates with clear bottom (µClear, Greiner Bio-One). Microtiter plates were placed in a humid box to prevent evaporation, incubated at 30°C with continuous agitation (200 rpm) and light emission as well as OD₆₀₀ were recorded at regular intervals in a FLX-Xenius plate reader (SAFAS, Monaco) for up to 6 h. For both parameters, background provided by the MP medium was subtracted, and the luminescence was normalized to the corresponding OD₆₀₀. Experiments were performed in biological triplicates and data are presented as the mean value with error bars representing the corresponding standard deviation. Enzymatic assays. Details about the expression and purification procedure for PedE and PedH can be found as supplementary material (**Text S1**). Enzyme activities of purified PedE and PedH were measured using a dye-linked colorimetric assay in 96 well microtiter plates (Greiner bioone) based on previous studies (24, 68). Under optimized conditions (Fig. S4-S8), one well

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

contained a total volume of 250 µL of assay solution supplemented with: 100 mM Tris HCl pH 8; 500 μM PMS; 150 μM 2,6-dichlorophenol indophenol (DCPIP); 25 mM imidazole; 1 mM CaCl₂ for PedE or 1 μ M PrCl₃ for PedH; 1 μ M PQQ for PedE or 50 μ M PQQ for PedH; 12.5 μ L substrate and 2.5-20 µg/ml enzyme. The reaction was started by addition of the substrate to the reaction mixture and the activity was calculated based on the change of OD₆₀₀ within the first minute upon substrate addition. The molar extinction coefficient of DCPIP was experimentally determined to be 24.1 cm⁻¹M⁻¹ at pH 8 (Fig. S2). Due to a substrate independent background activity, the assay solution without substrate was incubated for 45 minutes at 30°C prior to enzyme activity measurements. As activities were between 8- and 12-fold higher when using imidazole compared to ammonium chloride or ethylamine, imidazole was used in all experiments (Fig. S3). Negative control reactions, including the potential effect of BSA or assay mixture without the addition of enzyme, did not show any reduction of DCPIP under the conditions used (data not shown). All assays were performed in three replicates and data are presented as the mean value with error bars representing the corresponding standard deviation. Metal dependency of the enzymes. To test the metal dependency of PedE and PedH, a similar set-up as described above was used omitting CaCl₂ for PedE or PrCl₃ for PedH in the assay solution. 1 µM of different rare earth metals was added prior to incubation at 30°C. These included LaCl₃, CeCl₃, PrCl₃, NdCl₃, SmCl₃, GdCl₃, ErCl₃, YbCl₃, ScCl₃ and YCl₃. Activities were determined in triplicates as described above. Enzyme kinetics. The kinetic constants of the enzyme substrate combinations were determined using the enzyme assay described above with various substrate concentrations measured in triplicates. The resulting activity constants were calculated by fitting the enzyme activities by nonlinear regression to the Michaelis-Menten equation using the 'Michaelis-Menten' least-square fit method with no constrains in GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software, version 7.03).

Homology models. The PedE and PedH homology models were built with Swiss-Model (69). As ExaA has the highest sequence similarity with both PedE (60%) and PedH (49%) of all available crystal structures in the Swiss-Model template library, the crystal structure of the PQQ dependent ADH ExaA of **P. aeruginosa* (1FLG)* was used as a template for model construction (23). Visualization of the models was carried out using PyMOL (70).

FUNDING INFORMATION

The work of Matthias Wehrmann and Janosch Klebensberger was supported by an individual research grant from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (KL 2340/2-1). The work of Patrick Billard, Audrey Martin Meriadec and Asfaw Zegeye was supported in part by Labex Ressources21 (ANR-10-LABX-21-01).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to thank Lena Stehle and Svenja Moors for their help in the establishment of the enzymatic assay. Prof. Altenbuchner, Dr. Nadja Graf, Dr. Joanna Goldberg and Prof. Herbert Schweizer are acknowledged for providing different strains and plasmids. We further would like to thank Prof. Thorsten Thomas and Dr. Brendan Colley for critical reading of the manuscript draft and Prof. Bernhard Hauer for his continuous support. The authors further declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

REFERENCES 450 451 1. Insam H, Seewald MSA. 2010. Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in soils. Biol Fertil Soils **46**:199–213 doi:10.1007/s00374-010-0442-3. 452 453 2. Penuelas J, Asensio D, Tholl D, Wenke K, Rosenkranz M, Piechulla B, Schnitzler JP. 2014. Biogenic volatile emissions from the soil. Plant Cell Environ 37:1866–1891 454 455 doi:10.1111/pce.12340. 456 3. van Dam NM, Weinhold A, Garbeva P. 2016. Calling in the Dark: The Role of Volatiles for 457 Communication in the Rhizosphere, p. 175–210. In Blande, JD, Glinwood, R (eds.), Deciphering Chemical Language of Plant Communication. Springer International 458 459 Publishing, Cham doi:10.1007/978-3-319-33498-1 8. 460 4. Schmidt R, Cordovez V, de Boer W, Raaijmakers J, Garbeva P. 2015. Volatile affairs in microbial interactions. ISME J 9:2329-2335 doi:10.1038/ismej.2015.42. 461 Jones SE, Elliot MA. 2017. Streptomyces Exploration: Competition, Volatile 462 5. 463 Communication and New Bacterial Behaviours. Trends Microbiol 26:3167–3170 doi:10.1016/j.tim.2017.02.001. 464 Tyc O, Song C, Dickschat JS, Vos M, Garbeva P. 2016. The Ecological Role of Volatile and 465 6. Soluble Secondary Metabolites Produced by Soil Bacteria. Trends Microbiol 26:3167-466 467 3170 doi:10.1016/j.tim.2016.12.002. Bitas V, Kim H-S, Bennett JW, Kang S. 2013. Sniffing on Microbes: Diverse Roles of 7. 468 Microbial Volatile Organic Compounds in Plant Health. Mol Plant-Microbe Interact 469

26:835-843 doi:10.1094/MPMI-10-12-0249-CR. 470 Adachi O, Ano Y, Toyama H, Matsushita K. 2007. Biooxidation with PQQ- and FAD-471 8. 472 Dependent Dehydrogenases, p. 1–41. In Modern Biooxidation. Wiley-VCH Verlag GmbH & 473 Co. KGaA doi:10.1002/9783527611522.ch1. Toyama H, Mathews FS, Adachi O, Matsushita K. 2004. Quinohemoprotein alcohol 474 9. dehydrogenases: structure, function, and physiology. Arch Biochem Biophys 428:10–21 475 doi:10.1016/j.abb.2004.03.037. 476 10. Anthony C, Ghosh M, Blake CCF. 1994. The structure and function of methanol 477 478 dehydrogenase and related quinoproteins containing pyrrolo-quinoline quinone. Biochem J **304**:665–674 doi:10.1042/bj3040665. 479 480 11. Oubrie A, Dijkstra BW. 2000. Structural requirements of pyrrologuinoline guinone dependent enzymatic reactions. Protein Sci 9:1265–1273 doi:10.1110/ps.9.7.1265. 481 482 12. Kay CWM, Mennenga B, Görisch H, Bittl R. 2005. Substrate-Binding in Quinoprotein 483 Ethanol Dehydrogenase from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Studied by Electron Paramagnetic Resonance at 94 GHz. J Am Chem Soc **127**:7974–7975 doi:10.1021/ja050972c. 484 485 13. Anthony C. 2001. Pyrrologuinoline Quinone (PQQ) and Quinoprotein Enzymes. Antioxid 486 Redox Signal 3:757–774 doi:10.1089/15230860152664966. Toyama H, Fujii A, Matsushita K, Shinagawa E, Ameyama M, Adachi O. 1995. Three 487 14. distinct quinoprotein alcohol dehydrogenases are expressed when Pseudomonas putida 488 489 is grown on different alcohols. J Bacteriol 177:2442-2450.

490 15. Keltjens JT, Pol A, Reimann J, Op den Camp HJM. 2014. PQQ-dependent methanol 491 dehydrogenases: rare-earth elements make a difference. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 98:6163-83 doi:10.1007/s00253-014-5766-8. 492 493 16. Good NM, Vu HN, Suriano CJ, Subuyuj GA, Skovran E, Martinez-Gomez NC. 2016. Pyrrologuinoline Quinone Ethanol Dehydrogenase in Methylobacterium extorquens AM1 494 Extends Lanthanide-Dependent Metabolism to Multicarbon Substrates. J Bacteriol 495 496 **198**:3109–3118 doi:10.1128/JB.00478-16. 497 17. Mückschel B. Simon O. Klebensberger J. Graf N. Rosche B. Altenbuchner J. Pfannstiel J. 498 **Huber A, Hauer B.** 2012. Ethylene glycol metabolism by *Pseudomonas putida*. Appl Environ Microbiol **78**:8531–9 doi:10.1128/AEM.02062-12. 499 500 18. Takeda K, Matsumura H, Ishida T, Samejima M, Igarashi K, Nakamura N, Ohno H. 2013. 501 The two-step electrochemical oxidation of alcohols using a novel recombinant PQQ alcohol dehydrogenase as a catalyst for a bioanode. Bioelectrochemistry 94:75–78 502 doi:10.1016/j.bioelechem.2013.08.001. 503 504 19. Simon O, Klebensberger J, Mükschel B, Klaiber I, Graf N, Altenbuchner J, Huber A, Hauer B, Pfannstiel J. 2015. Analysis of the molecular response of *Pseudomonas putida* KT2440 505 506 to the next-generation biofuel n-butanol. J Proteomics 122:11–25 doi:10.1016/j.jprot.2015.03.022. 507 508 20. Kay CWM, Mennenga B, Görisch H, Bittl R. 2006. Substrate binding in quinoprotein ethanol dehydrogenase from Pseudomonas aeruginosa studied by electron-nuclear 509 double resonance. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 103:5267–5272 510

doi:10.1073/pnas.0509667103. 511 Mennenga B, Kay CWM, Görisch H. 2009. Quinoprotein ethanol dehydrogenase from 512 21. 513 Pseudomonas aeruginosa: the unusual disulfide ring formed by adjacent cysteine 514 residues is essential for efficient electron transfer to cytochrome c550. Arch Microbiol **191**:361–7 doi:10.1007/s00203-009-0460-4. 515 22. Kay CWM, Mennenga B, Görisch H, Bittl R. 2006. Structure of the pyrrologuinoline 516 517 quinone radical in quinoprotein ethanol dehydrogenase. J Biol Chem 281:1470-6 518 doi:10.1074/jbc.M511132200. Keitel T, Diehl A, Knaute T, Stezowski JJ, Höhne W, Görisch H. 2000. X-ray structure of 519 23. the quinoprotein ethanol dehydrogenase from Pseudomonas aeruginosa: basis of 520 521 substrate specificity. J Mol Biol **297**:961–974 doi:10.1006/jmbi.2000.3603. Chattopadhyay A, Förster-Fromme K, Jendrossek D. 2010. PQQ-dependent alcohol 522 24. dehydrogenase (QEDH) of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is involved in catabolism of acyclic 523 terpenes. J Basic Microbiol **50**:119–24 doi:10.1002/jobm.200900178. 524 25. Williams PA, Coates L, Mohammed F, Gill R, Erskine PT, Coker A, Wood SP, Anthony C, 525 Cooper JB. 2005. The atomic resolution structure of methanol dehydrogenase from 526 Methylobacterium extorquens. Acta Crystallogr Sect D Biol Crystallogr 61:75–79 527 528 doi:10.1107/S0907444904026964. 529 26. Chistoserdova L, Lidstrom ME. 1997. Molecular and mutational analysis of a DNA region separating two methylotrophy gene clusters in Methylobacterium extorquens AM1. 530 531 Microbiology **143**:1729–1736 doi:10.1099/00221287-143-5-1729.

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

Richardson IW, Anthony C. 1992. Characterization of mutant forms of the quinoprotein 27. methanol dehydrogenase lacking an essential calcium ion. Biochem J 287:709-715 doi:10.1042/bj2870709. 28. Nakagawa T, Mitsui R, Tani A, Sasa K, Tashiro S, Iwama T, Hayakawa T, Kawai K. 2012. A Catalytic Role of XoxF1 as La³⁺-Dependent Methanol Dehydrogenase in *Methylobacterium* extorquens Strain AM1. PLoS One 7:e50480 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0050480. 29. Hibi Y, Asai K, Arafuka H, Hamajima M, Iwama T, Kawai K. 2011. Molecular structure of La³⁺-induced methanol dehydrogenase-like protein in *Methylobacterium radiotolerans*. J Biosci Bioeng **111**:547–549 doi:10.1016/j.jbiosc.2010.12.017. Fitriyanto NA, Fushimi M, Matsunaga M, Pertiwiningrum A, Iwama T, Kawai K. 2011. 30. Molecular structure and gene analysis of Ce³⁺-induced methanol dehydrogenase of Bradyrhizobium sp. MAFF211645. J Biosci Bioeng 111:613-617 doi:10.1016/j.jbiosc.2011.01.015. Wu ML, Wessels JCT, Pol A, Op den Camp HJM, Jetten MSM, van Niftrik L. 2015. XoxF-31. type methanol dehydrogenase from the anaerobic methanotroph "Candidatus Methylomirabilis oxyfera". Appl Environ Microbiol 81:1442-51 doi:10.1128/AEM.03292-14. 32. Chu F, Lidstrom ME. 2016. XoxF acts as the predominant methanol dehydrogenase in the type I methanotroph Methylomicrobium buryatense. J Bacteriol 198:JB.00959-15 doi:10.1128/JB.00959-15. Pol A, Barends TRM, Dietl A, Khadem AF, Eygensteyn J, Jetten MSM, Op den Camp HJM. 33.

2014. Rare earth metals are essential for methanotrophic life in volcanic mudpots. 553 Environ Microbiol **16**:255–264 doi:10.1111/1462-2920.12249. 554 Taubert M, Grob C, Howat AM, Burns OJ, Dixon JL, Chen Y, Murrell JC. 2015. XoxF 555 34. 556 encoding an alternative methanol dehydrogenase is widespread in coastal marine 557 environments. Environ Microbiol 17:3937–3948 doi:10.1111/1462-2920.12896. 35. Skovran E, Martinez-Gomez NC. 2015. Just add lanthanides. Science 348:862–863 558 559 doi:10.1126/science.aaa9091. 560 36. Martinez-Gomez NC, Vu HN, Skovran E. 2016. Lanthanide Chemistry: From Coordination in Chemical Complexes Shaping Our Technology to Coordination in Enzymes Shaping 561 Bacterial Metabolism. Inorg Chem 55:10083-10089 doi:10.1021/acs.inorgchem.6b00919. 562 563 37. Nikel PI, Martínez-García E, de Lorenzo V. 2014. Biotechnological domestication of pseudomonads using synthetic biology. Nat Rev Microbiol 12:368–79 564 doi:10.1038/nrmicro3253. 565 566 38. **Loeschcke A, Thies S.** 2015. *Pseudomonas putida*—a versatile host for the production of natural products. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 99:6197-6214 doi:10.1007/s00253-015-567 6745-4. 568 569 39. Nikel PI, Chavarría M, Danchin A, de Lorenzo V. 2016. From dirt to industrial 570 applications: Pseudomonas putida as a Synthetic Biology chassis for hosting harsh biochemical reactions. Curr Opin Chem Biol 34:20-29 doi:10.1016/j.cbpa.2016.05.011. 571 572 40. Poblete-Castro I, Becker J, Dohnt K, dos Santos VM, Wittmann C. 2012. Industrial

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

biotechnology of *Pseudomonas putida* and related species. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 93:2279-2290 doi:10.1007/s00253-012-3928-0. Vu HN, Subuyuj GA, Vijayakumar S, Good NM, Martinez-Gomez NC, Skovran E. 2016. 41. Lanthanide-Dependent Regulation of Methanol Oxidation Systems in Methylobacterium extorguens AM1 and Their Contribution to Methanol Growth. J Bacteriol 198:JB.00937-15 doi:10.1128/JB.00937-15. 42. Farhan Ul Haque M, Kalidass B, Bandow N, Turpin EA, DiSpirito AA, Semrau JD. 2015. Cerium Regulates Expression of Alternative Methanol Dehydrogenases in Methylosinus trichosporium OB3b. Appl Environ Microbiol 81:7546-7552 doi:10.1128/AEM.02542-15. Chu F, Beck DAC, Lidstrom ME. 2016. MxaY regulates the lanthanide-mediated methanol 43. dehydrogenase switch in Methylomicrobium buryatense. PeerJ 4:e2435 doi:10.7717/peerj.2435. Skovran E, Palmer AD, Rountree AM, Good NM, Lidstrom ME. 2011. XoxF Is Required for 44. Expression of Methanol Dehydrogenase in Methylobacterium extorguens AM1. J Bacteriol **193**:6032–6038 doi:10.1128/JB.05367-11. **Shannon RD.** 1976. Revised effective ionic radii and systematic studies of interatomic 45. distances in halides and chalcogenides. Acta Crystallogr Sect A 32:751–767 doi:10.1107/S0567739476001551. Bogart J a, Lewis AJ, Schelter EJ. 2015. DFT study of the active site of the XoxF-type 46. natural, cerium-dependent methanol dehydrogenase enzyme. Chemistry 21:1743-8 doi:10.1002/chem.201405159.

Goodwin MG, Anthony C. 1996. Characterization of a novel methanol dehydrogenase 594 47. containing a Ba^{2+} ion at the active site. Biochem J **318**:673–679 doi:10.1042/bj3180673. 595 Wagner A. 2005. Distributed robustness versus redundancy as causes of mutational 596 48. 597 robustness. BioEssays 27:176–188 doi:10.1002/bies.20170. Arias S, Olivera ER, Arcos M, Naharro G, Luengo JM. 2008. Genetic analyses and 598 49. molecular characterization of the pathways involved in the conversion of 2-599 600 phenylethylamine and 2-phenylethanol into phenylacetic acid in *Pseudomonas putida* U. 601 Environ Microbiol **10**:413–432 doi:10.1111/j.1462-2920.2007.01464.x. Vekeman B, Speth D, Wille J, Cremers G, De Vos P, Op den Camp HJM, Heylen K. 2016. 602 50. Genome Characteristics of Two Novel Type I Methanotrophs Enriched from North Sea 603 604 Sediments Containing Exclusively a Lanthanide-Dependent XoxF5-Type Methanol 605 Dehydrogenase. Microb Ecol **72**:503–509 doi:10.1007/s00248-016-0808-7. 51. Markert B. 1987. The pattern of distribution of lanthanide elements in soils and plants. 606 607 Phytochemistry **26**:3167–3170 doi:10.1016/S0031-9422(00)82463-2. 52. Carpenter D, Boutin C, Allison JE, Parsons JL, Ellis DM. 2015. Uptake and Effects of Six 608 Rare Earth Elements (REEs) on Selected Native and Crop Species Growing in 609 Contaminated Soils. PLoS One 10:e0129936 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0129936. 610 611 53. Aubert D, Stille P, Probst A, Gauthier-lafaye F, Pourcelot L, Del nero M. 2002. Characterization and migration of atmospheric REE in soils and surface waters. Geochim 612 Cosmochim Acta 66:3339-3350 doi:10.1016/S0016-7037(02)00913-4. 613

Kabata-Pendias A, Mukherjee AB. 2007. Trace Elements from Soil to Human. Springer 614 54. 615 Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg doi:10.1007/978-3-540-32714-1. Estrela S, Brown SP. 2013. Metabolic and demographic feedbacks shape the emergent 616 55. 617 spatial structure and function of microbial communities. PLoS Comput Biol 9:e1003398 doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1003398. 618 56. Zelezniak A, Andrejev S, Ponomarova O, Mende DR, Bork P, Patil KR. 2015. Metabolic 619 dependencies drive species co-occurrence in diverse microbial communities. Proc Natl 620 621 Acad Sci **112**:6449–6454 doi:10.1073/pnas.1421834112. 57. LaSarre B, McCully AL, Lennon JT, McKinlay JB. 2017. Microbial mutualism dynamics 622 governed by dose-dependent toxicity of cross-fed nutrients. ISME J 11:337-348 623 624 doi:10.1038/ismej.2016.141. 625 58. **Schink B.** 1997. Energetics of syntrophic cooperation in methanogenic degradation. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev **61**:262–80 doi:1092-2172/97/\$04.0010. 626 Krause SMB, Johnson T, Samadhi Karunaratne Y, Fu Y, Beck DAC, Chistoserdova L, 627 59. Lidstrom ME. 2017. Lanthanide-dependent cross-feeding of methane-derived carbon is 628 linked by microbial community interactions. Proc Natl Acad Sci 114:358–363 629 doi:10.1073/pnas.1619871114. 630 631 60. Das N, Das D. 2013. Recovery of rare earth metals through biosorption: An overview. J 632 Rare Earths 31:933-943 doi:10.1016/S1002-0721(13)60009-5. 633 61. Gu W, Farhan UI Haque M, DiSpirito AA, Semrau JD. 2016. Uptake and effect of rare

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653

654

earth elements on gene expression in Methylosinus trichosporium OB3b. FEMS Microbiol Lett 363:fnw129 doi:10.1093/femsle/fnw129. Emmanuel EC, Ananthi T, Anandkumar B, Maruthamuthu S. 2012. Accumulation of rare 62. earth elements by siderophore-forming Arthrobacter luteolus isolated from rare earth environment of Chavara, India. J Biosci **37**:25–31 doi:10.1007/s12038-011-9173-3. 63. Challaraj Emmanuel ES, Vignesh V, Anandkumar B, Maruthamuthu S. 2011. Bioaccumulation of cerium and neodymium by Bacillus cereus isolated from rare earth environments of Chavara and Manavalakurichi. India. Indian J Microbiol 51:488–495 doi:10.1007/s12088-011-0111-8. Barmettler F, Castelberg C, Fabbri C, Brandl H. 2016. Microbial mobilization of rare earth 64. elements (REE) from mineral solids—A mini review. AIMS Microbiol 2:190-204 doi:10.3934/microbiol.2016.2.190. 65. Ene CD, Ruta LL, Nicolau I, Popa C V., Iordache V, Neagoe AD, Farcasanu IC. 2015. Interaction between lanthanide ions and Saccharomyces cerevisiae cells. JBIC J Biol Inorg Chem **20**:1097–1107 doi:10.1007/s00775-015-1291-1. Maniatis T, Fritsch EF (Edward F., Sambrook J, Laboratory CSH. 1982. Molecular Cloning: 66. A Laboratory Manual. Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory. 67. Delaney NF, Kaczmarek ME, Ward LM, Swanson PK, Lee M-C, Marx CJ. 2013. Development of an Optimized Medium, Strain and High-Throughput Culturing Methods for Methylobacterium extorquens. PLoS One **8**:e62957 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0062957.

655 68. Anthony C, Zatman LJ. 1964. The microbial oxidation of methanol. 2. The methanoloxidizing enzyme of *Pseudomonas sp.* M 27. Biochem J 92:614–21. 656 69. Biasini M, Bienert S, Waterhouse A, Arnold K, Studer G, Schmidt T, Kiefer F, Cassarino 657 TG, Bertoni M, Bordoli L, Schwede T. 2014. SWISS-MODEL: modelling protein tertiary and 658 quaternary structure using evolutionary information. Nucleic Acids Res 42:W252--W258 659 doi:10.1093/nar/gku340. 660 Schrodinger LLC. 2015. The PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, Version 1.8. 661 70.

FIGURES

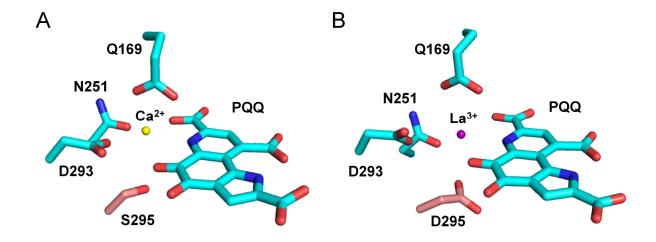


FIG 1: Homology models of PedE (**A**) (GI: 26989393) and PedH (**B**) (GI: 26989398) generated with SWISS-MODEL based on the crystal structure of ExaA from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (PDB: 1FLG) using Pymol (70). The catalytic cation (*yellow* or *violet sphere*) coordinating amino acids and the PQQ cofactor are shown as sticks using an element color code (C = cyan, O = red, N = blue). The amino acid position 295 in PedE and PedH is highlighted by using a different color code (C = light red).

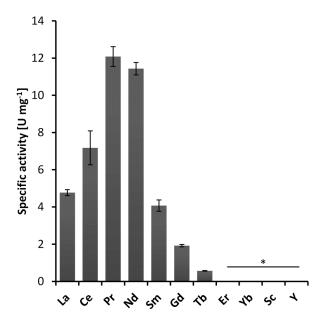


Fig 2: Specific activities of PedH in the presence of 1 μ M of various rare earth metal ions with 10 mM ethanol as substrate. Activities below detection limit are indicated (*). Data are presented as the mean value of three replicates and error bars represent the corresponding standard deviation.

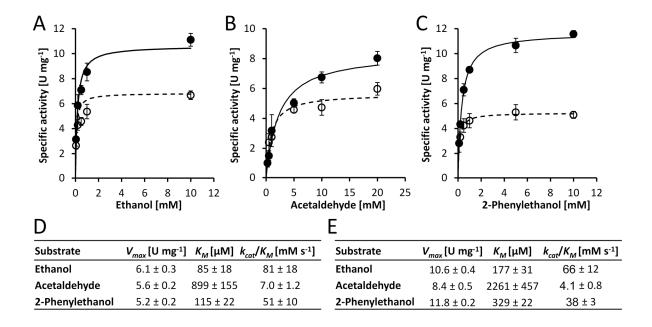


FIG 3: Kinetic parameter determination. A-C) Michaelis-Menten plot showing specific enzyme activities of PedE (*black circles*) and PedH (*white circles*) over a varying concentration of ethanol (A), acetaldehyde (B), and 2-phenylethanol (C). For PedE, 1 mM of CaCl₂ and 50 μ M PQQ was used, while for PedH, 1 μ M PrCl₃ and 1 μ M PQQ was used in the reaction mixture. The data are given as mean value of triplicate measurements with error bars representing the standard deviation. Maximum velocity (V_{max}), substrate affinity (K_M) and the catalytic efficiency (K_{cat}/K_M , were K_{cat} is the turnover frequency per cofactor molecule) of PedE (D) and PedH (E) for different substrates are derived from A-C using nonlinear regression to a Michaelis-Menten model (*continuous lines* for PedH and *dashed lines* for PedE). Kinetik constants are represented as best fit values \pm standard error.

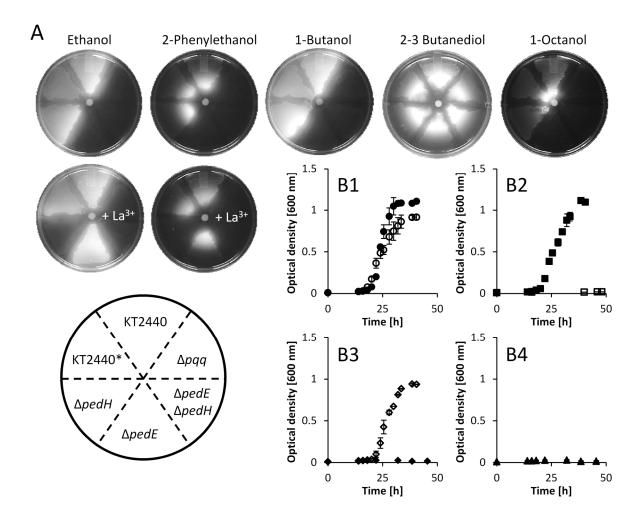


FIG 4: A) Growth with various substrates (10 μL drop of a 1:1 mix with DMSO) on M9 agar plates. Growth was quantified with a digital imaging system after 48 h using combined white light and UV illumination (ex. 254 nm). All pictures were sized, isolated from the background, and corrected for sharpness (+ 50%), brightness (+ 20%), and contrast (+ 40%). **B1-4)** Growth of KT2440* (Δupp strain used as the parental strain for knockout mutants; **B1**, *circles*), $\Delta pedE$ (**B2**, *diamonds*), $\Delta pedH$ (**B3**, *squares*), and $\Delta pedE\Delta pedH$ (**B4**, *triangles*) in M9 medium with 5 mM 2-phenylethanol in the absence (*black symbols*) or presence of 20 μM La³⁺ (*open symbols*). Growth was performed in 25 mL (125 mL plastic Erlenmeyer) at 30°C and 180 rpm shaking (Multifors) and quantified by optical density measurements at 600 nM. Data represent the mean of two

individual cultures with error bars representing the corresponding range. All error bars are depicted but might not be visible due to the size of the corresponding symbol used for the mean value.

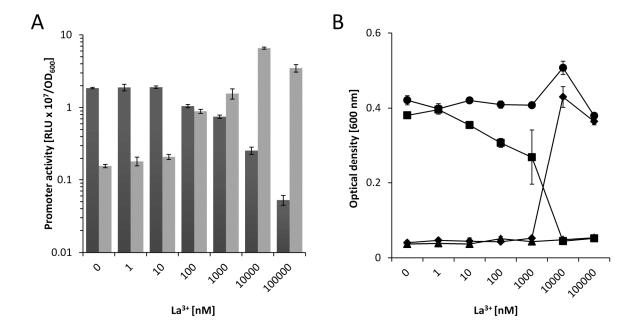


FIG 5: A) Activities of the *pedE* (*dark grey bars*) and *pedH* (*light grey bars*) promoters in strain KT2440* during incubation in liquid M9 medium (**A**) supplemented with 1 mM of 2-phenylethanol in the presence of varying concentrations of La^{3+} . Promoter activities are presented as relative light units (RLU × 10^{7}) normalized to OD₆₀₀. **B)** Growth of KT2440* (*black circles*), Δ*upp*Δ*pedE* (*black diamonds*), Δ*upp*Δ*pedH* (*black squares*) and Δ*upp*Δ*pedE*Δ*pedH* (*black triangles*) in liquid M9 medium with 5 mM of 2-phenylethanol in the presence of different concentrations of La^{3+} . Growth was determined as the optical density at 600 nm after incubation at 30°C for 24 h. Data are presented as mean values from biological triplicates and error bars represent the corresponding standard deviation.

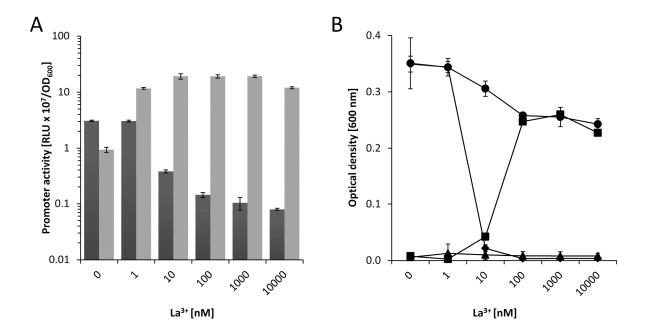


FIG 6: A) Activities of the *pedE* (*dark grey bars*) and *pedH* (*light grey bars*) promoters in strain KT2440* during incubation in liquid MP medium (A) supplemented with 1 mM of 2-phenylethanol in the presence of varying concentrations of La³⁺. Promoter activities are presented as relative light units (RLU × 10^7) normalized to OD₆₀₀. B) Growth of KT2440* (*black circles*), Δ*upp*Δ*pedE* (*black diamonds*), Δ*upp*Δ*pedH* (*black squares*) and Δ*upp*Δ*pedE*Δ*pedH* (*black triangles*) in liquid MP medium with 5 mM of 2-phenylethanol in the presence of different La³⁺ concentrations. Growth was determined as the optical density at 600 nm after incubation at 30°C for 24 h. Data are presented as the mean values from biological triplicates and error bars represent the corresponding standard deviation.

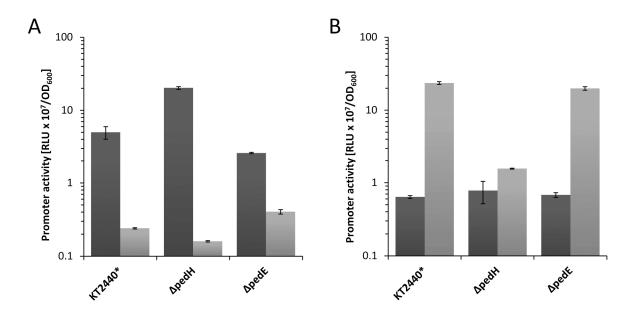


FIG 7: Activities of the *pedE* (**A**) and *pedH* (**B**) promoters in strains KT2440* (Δupp strain used as the parental strain for knockout mutants), $\Delta pedE$, $\Delta pedH$ and $\Delta pedE\Delta pedH$ in liquid MP medium with 1 mM of 2-phenylethanol in the absence (*dark grey bars*) or presence of 10 nM La³⁺ (*light grey bars*). Promoter activities are presented as relative light units (RLU × 10⁷) normalized to OD₆₀₀. Data are presented as the mean values from biological triplicates and error bars represent the corresponding standard deviation. The promoter activities for each strain in the presence and absence of lanthanides were statistically analyzed (two-tailed *t*-test; $\alpha = 0.05$; N = 3; GraphPad Prism, version 7.03) and found to be significantly different (P < 0.01).

TABLES

735

736

737

Table 1: Specific activities of PedE and PedH with various alcohols and aldehydes. Data are presented as the mean value of three independent measurements with the corresponding standard deviation. 10 mM of substrate was used in H_2O if not indicated otherwise.

Substrate	Specific activity [U mg ⁻¹]	
	PedE	PedH
Methanol	0.61 ± 0.10	0.80 ± 0.05
Ethanol	6.7 ± 0.9	11.0 ± 0.3
Ethanolamine	0.55 ± 0.09	1.6 ± 0.2
1-Butanol	5.8 ± 0.1	11.5 ± 0.7
2-Butanol	4.4 ± 0.7	7.6 ± 0.4
2,3-Butanediol	0.39 ± 0.03	0.78 ± 0.04
1-Hexanol	5.2 ± 0.1	10.4 ± 1.1
1-Octanol ^a	3.5 ± 0.2	4.7 ± 0.7
2-Phenylethanol	6.7 ± 1.1	10.2 ± 1.4
Acetaldehyde	4.7 ± 0.5	6.7 ± 0.4
Butyraldehyde	6.1 ± 0.4	10.3 ± 0.6
Hexanal ^a	3.8 ± 0.1	6.2 ± 0.3
Octanal ^a	1.9 ± 0.2	3.6 ± 0.6
Cinnamyl alcohol ^a	2.4 ± 0.1	3.9 ± 0.1
Cinnamaldehyde ^b	n. d. ^c	n. d. ^c
Farnesol ^b	2.0 ± 0.3	3.8 ± 0.5

⁷³⁹ a 10 mM substrate in DMSO.

⁷⁴⁰ b 500 μ M substrate in DMSO.

^{741 &}lt;sup>c</sup> Activity below detection limit.