

1 **Profiling acetogenic community dynamics in**
2 **anaerobic digesters - comparative analyses**
3 **using next-generation sequencing and T-RFLP**

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5 Running title: Comparative analysis of acetogenic community

6

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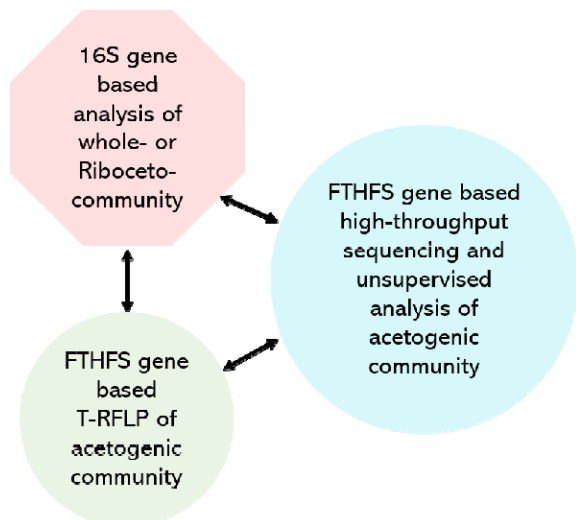
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15 **GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT**

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19 **ONE SENTENCE SUMMARY**

20 Our high-throughput FTHFS gene AmpSeq method for barcoded samples and unsupervised
21 analysis with AcetoScan accurately reveals temporal dynamics of acetogenic community
22 structure in anaerobic digesters.

23 **ABSTRACT**

24 Acetogens play a key role in anaerobic degradation of organic material and in maintaining
25 biogas process efficiency. Profiling this community and its temporal changes can help
26 evaluate process stability and function, especially under disturbance/stress conditions, and
27 avoid complete process failure. The formyltetrahydrofolate synthetase (FTHFS) gene can be
28 used as a marker for acetogenic community profiling in diverse environments. In this study,
29 we developed a new high-throughput FTHFS gene sequencing method for acetogenic
30 community profiling and compared it with conventional T-RFLP of the FTHFS gene, 16S
31 rRNA gene-based profiling of the whole bacterial community, and indirect analysis via 16S
32 rRNA profiling of the FTHFS gene-harboring community. Analyses and method
33 comparisons were made using samples from two laboratory-scale biogas processes, one
34 operated under stable control and one exposed to controlled overloading disturbance.
35 Comparative analysis revealed satisfactory detection of the bacterial community and its
36 changes for all methods, but with some differences in resolution and taxonomic
37 identification. FTHFS gene sequencing was found to be the most suitable and reliable method
38 to study acetogenic communities. These results pave the way for community profiling in
39 various biogas processes and in other environments where the dynamics of acetogenic
40 bacteria have not been well studied.

41 **Keywords:** 16S rRNA gene, acetogen, FTHFS gene, T-RFLP, biogas

42 INTRODUCTION

43 Anaerobic digestion (AD) is a microbiological process through which almost any
44 biodegradable material can be transformed into renewable biofertiliser and biogas, which is
45 mainly a mixture of methane (60-70%) and carbon dioxide (30-40%) (Petersson and
46 Wellinger 2009; SGC 2012; Ma, Yin and Liu 2017; Ruan *et al.* 2019). Anaerobic digestion
47 technology currently serves the purpose of carbon recycling of various waste streams via
48 biogas and organic fertiliser, but also has immense potential in alleviating climate change and
49 hypertrophication (Scarlat, Dallemand and Fahl 2018; Winqvist *et al.* 2019). The amount and
50 composition of the biogas produced, and the efficiency and stability of the process, are
51 influenced by various parameters such as feedstock composition, digester technology,
52 operating parameters and the composition and activity of the microbiological community
53 engaged in the process (Pöschl, Ward and Owende 2010; Angelidaki *et al.* 2011; Herrmann *et*
54 *al.* 2012; Wellinger, Murphy and Baxter 2013; Lebuhn *et al.* 2015; Horváth *et al.* 2016;
55 Schnürer and Jarvis 2017).

56

57 The AD process comprises four major complex and interrelated microbiological steps
58 (hydrolysis, acidogenesis, anaerobic oxidation, methanogenesis) carried out by a complex
59 microbial community composed of archaea, obligate and facultative anaerobic bacteria and
60 anaerobic fungi (Zhou *et al.* 2002; Hattori 2008; Thauer *et al.* 2008; Angelidaki *et al.* 2011;
61 Dollhofer *et al.* 2015; Schnürer 2016; Vinzelj *et al.* 2020). Acetogenic bacteria play a critical
62 role in the AD process by performing both reductive acetogenesis and syntrophic oxidation of
63 organic acids, and thus act as a vital link between the hydrolysing and fermenting microbial
64 community and the methanogenic archaea (Ryan, Forbes and Colleran 2008; Ryan *et al.*
65 2010; Hori *et al.* 2011; Ivarsson *et al.* 2016; Drake *et al.* 2017; Williams, Joblin and Fonty
66 2020). The overall community is influenced by many parameters, *e.g.* organic substrate,

67 hydraulic retention time (HRT), organic loading rate (OLR) and temperature (Sun *et al.* 2014;
68 Moestedt *et al.* 2016). For an efficient biogas process, different microbiological steps must be
69 balanced and synchronised, otherwise the process can experience disturbance and
70 accumulation of degradation intermediates such as volatile fatty acids (VFA) (Schnürer 2016;
71 Schnürer and Jarvis 2017). One strong regulating parameter for the microbial community is
72 the ammonium/ammonia level, set by the substrate and operating conditions (De Vrieze *et al.*
73 2015; Robles *et al.* 2018). High levels of free ammonia often result in significant inhibition of
74 methanogenesis and sometimes also of hydrolysis and fermentation (Siegert and Banks 2005;
75 Wang *et al.* 2009; Franke-Whittle *et al.* 2014; Schnürer 2016; Westerholm, Moestedt and
76 Schnürer 2016; Schnürer and Jarvis 2017; Czatzkowska *et al.* 2020). As a consequence,
77 ammonia inhibition also results in accumulation of VFA, particularly propionate, which can
78 further enhance inhibition, cause process instability and reduced methane production
79 (Schnürer and Nordberg 2008; Rajagopal, Massé and Singh 2013; Frank *et al.* 2016;
80 Moestedt *et al.* 2016; Schnürer 2016). Under such stress conditions, acetogenesis/syntrophic
81 acetate oxidation involving specialist methanogens (less sensitive towards ammonia) for
82 methane production is the major pathway which drives the process forward (towards
83 methanogenesis) (Hori *et al.* 2011; Westerholm *et al.* 2011; Schnürer 2016; Westerholm,
84 Moestedt and Schnürer 2016). Conclusively, the acetogenic community can be a good marker
85 when monitoring the health and stability of the biogas process (Hattori 2008; Müller *et al.*
86 2016; Singh *et al.* 2020).

87

88 In recent years, various molecular biological techniques have been applied to investigate and
89 understand the composition, structure and dynamics of the AD microbiome and its
90 implications for the biogas process (Cabezas *et al.* 2015; Lebuhn *et al.* 2015; Schnürer 2016).
91 Advanced and accurate meta-omics technologies (metagenomics, metaproteomics,

92 metatranscriptomics, metabolomics) can help resolve the phylogeny, interactions and
93 functions of microbial species (Vanwonterghem *et al.* 2016). However, these methodologies
94 are generally used to obtain snapshots of the microbial community (Prosser 2015) and are
95 less practical (too expensive, laborious and resource-intensive) for tracking the temporal
96 dynamics over extended periods (Greninger 2018; Martin *et al.* 2018). Thus, less expensive
97 and relatively easier molecular marker-based analysis techniques are generally used to track
98 the temporal dynamics of the whole microbial community involved in the biogas process or a
99 selected fraction of that community. These techniques include fluorescence *in-situ*
100 hybridisation (FISH), single-strand conformation polymorphism (SSCP), denaturing gradient
101 gel electrophoresis (DGGE), quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR),
102 terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism (T-RFLP) and amplicon sequencing
103 (AmpSeq) of the 16S rRNA gene (Čater, Fanedl and Logar 2013; Robles *et al.* 2018).
104 However, few studies have specifically focused on acetogenic community dynamics or on
105 developing a high-throughput method for reliable acetogenic community profiling (Singh *et*
106 *al.* 2020). Since acetogenesis is a physiological process, and not a phylogenetic characteristic,
107 development of acetogen-specific 16S rRNA gene primers is practically impossible
108 (Ljungdahl 1986; Drake 1994a; Lovell 1994; Lovell and Leaphart 2005; Drake, Gößner and
109 Daniel 2008; Singh *et al.* 2019, 2020). Therefore, established molecular analysis
110 methods/pipelines based on the 16S rRNA gene cannot be used for analysis of the acetogenic
111 community. The Wood-Ljungdahl pathway (WLP) is a characteristic of acetogens (Drake
112 1994b; Peretó *et al.* 1999; Lever 2012; Poehlein *et al.* 2012) and the marker gene
113 formyltetrahydrofolate synthetase (FTHFS) has been successfully used to decode the
114 potential acetogenic community (Hori *et al.* 2011; De Vrieze and Verstraete 2016; Müller *et*
115 *al.* 2016). While FTHFS is also present in the genome of non-acetogenic bacteria, sulphate-
116 reducing bacteria and methanogens, still it has been successfully used for over two decades as

117 the marker of choice in acetogenic community analysis (Ljungdahl 1986; Lovell, Przybyla
118 and Ljungdahl 1990; Lovell and Leaphart 2005; Ohashi *et al.* 2007; Drake, Gößner and
119 Daniel 2008; Gagen *et al.* 2010; Moestedt *et al.* 2016; Schuchmann and Müller 2016; Singh
120 *et al.* 2019, 2020). Recently, we published a database (AcetoBase) (Singh *et al.* 2019) and an
121 analysis pipeline (AcetoScan) (Singh *et al.* 2020), and successfully demonstrated proof-of-
122 concept for targeting the potential acetogenic community in biogas reactor samples and
123 unsupervised analysis of FTHFS AmpSeq data. Our previous studies showed that AcetoBase
124 and AcetoScan can be used for reliable monitoring of the acetogenic community in
125 multiplexed samples in biogas reactors.

126

127 The aims of the present study were to 1) further evaluate AcetoBase and AcetoScan for
128 profiling and monitoring the temporal dynamics of acetogenic communities in biogas reactors
129 and 2) compare this new high-throughput AmpSeq method targeting the acetogenic
130 community with conventional methods such as T-RFLP and 16S rRNA gene sequencing.
131 Specifically, three different methods (16S rRNA gene AmpSeq, T-RFLP and AmpSeq of
132 FTHFS gene) were evaluated for their ability to monitor the dynamics of the potential
133 acetogenic community in two laboratory-scale biogas processes. In addition, the FTHFS
134 gene-harboring community was analysed indirectly by profiling the corresponding 16S
135 rRNA genes using the 16S rRNA database RibocetoBase (this study), which was deduced
136 from the Silva rRNA database (Quast *et al.* 2013). The selected biogas reactors were operated
137 with food waste under high-ammonia conditions. Method comparisons were performed using
138 samples from a stable control reactor and a reactor exposed to controlled overloading
139 resulting in instability, followed by a recovery phase. Samples from these biogas digesters
140 were used because the dynamics of both the acetogenic and syntrophic acetate-oxidising
141 bacterial community had been identified in our previous studies, enabling comparative

142 analysis (Westerholm *et al.* 2015; Müller *et al.* 2016; Singh *et al.* 2020). We evaluated the
143 overall potency and utility of the different methods by visualisation of potential acetogenic
144 community dynamics in a biogas environment.

145

146 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

147 **Sample collection and processing**

148 Samples were collected in a time-series manner (Supp. data 1) from two parallel mesophilic
149 (37 °C) continuously stirred-tank biogas reactors (active volume 5 L), denoted GR1
150 (experimental) and GR2 (control), in the Anaerobic Microbiology and Biotechnology
151 Laboratory, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Uppsala, Sweden. Both reactors
152 were operated with mixed food waste at an OLR of ~2.5 g volatile solids (VS) L⁻¹ day⁻¹,
153 ammonium-nitrogen (NH₄⁺-N) ~5.4 g/L (free ammonia (NH₃) 0.6-0.9 g/L) and HRT 30 days,
154 while other operating parameters were as described previously (for reactor D^{TE}37
155 (Westerholm *et al.* 2015). Before the start of the experiment, both reactors had a stable
156 carbon dioxide (32-35%) and methane content (58-60%). To disrupt the stable microbial
157 community, a controlled overloading disturbance was induced in GR1 by increasing the OLR
158 to ~4.09 g VS L⁻¹ day⁻¹, while control reactor GR2 continued at OLR ~2.5 g VS L⁻¹ day⁻¹. The
159 increase in organic load (Δ ~1.59 g VS L⁻¹ day⁻¹) marked the start of the experiment (day 0).
160 The first sample was taken one day after the start of the experiment and the reactors were
161 operated for 350 days with subsequent sampling. Monitoring was based on gas composition
162 and total VFA in the reactors, using GR2 as reference. The OLR for GR1 was returned to
163 ~2.5 g VS L⁻¹ day⁻¹ when the carbon dioxide content in biogas was observed to be ~50 % (at
164 ~125 days). Extraction of genomic DNA from the samples was performed in triplicate using
165 the FastDNATM Spin kit for soil (MP Biomedicals), with an additional wash step with 5.5 M

166 guanidinium thiocyanate (Sigma-Aldrich 2020) for humic acid removal (Singh 2020a).
167 Samples and extracted DNA were stored at -20 °C until further use.

168 **Experimental T-RFLP library preparation and data analysis**

169 Sixteen samples from different time points (Fig. 1; Supp. data 1) were used for T-RFLP
170 profiling and partial FTHFS gene amplicons were generated by the primer pairs and PCR
171 protocol developed in our previous study (Müller, Sun and Schnürer 2013), with the
172 modifications of FAM labelled FTHFS_fwd (5'-FAM-CCIACICCCISYIGGNGARGGNAA-
173 3') and non-labelled FTHFS_rev (5'-ATITTIGCIAAIGGNCCNCCNTG-3'). The FTHFS
174 amplicons were purified by E-Gel[®] iBase™ Power System (Invitrogen 2012) and E-Gel[®] EX
175 with SYBR[®] Gold II, 2% SizeSelect pre-cast agarose gel (Invitrogen 2014, 2017). The eluted
176 FTHFS amplicons were digested separately with restriction enzyme AluI (NEB 2020a) and
177 Hpy188III (NEB 2020b) overnight, followed by digestion termination at 80 °C for 20
178 minutes. Digested amplicons were subjected to capillary electrophoresis for restriction
179 fragment detection, which was carried out at the genotyping facility of the SNP&SEQ
180 Technology Platform, Science for Life Laboratory, National Genomics Infrastructure,
181 Uppsala (UGC 2018). The data from the target channel were extracted from the raw data in
182 ABIF file format with the help of Peak Scanner™ software (Applied Biosystems 2006) and
183 quantitative data were saved in data-frame in .csv file format. Restriction fragment data
184 analysis was performed in Microsoft Excel 2013 (Microsoft 2013) and data visualisation was
185 done in RStudio version 3.5.2 (RStudio Team 2015). Experimental (*Ex*) TRFs in the size
186 range 50-640 bp were selected for clustering, quantitative analysis and visualisation. The
187 diversity of the *Ex* oTRFs was visualised by 1) principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) using
188 command cmdscale (package *stats* version 3.6.2) (R Core Team 2019) with Euclidean
189 distances and 2) non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) using command vegdist,
190 metaMDS (package *vegan* version 2.5-6) (Oksanen *et al.* 2019), with Bray-Curtis

191 dissimilarity (Bray and Curtis 1957). To fit the environmental parameters on the respective
192 diversity plots, command `envfit` (package *vegan*) was used.

193 ***In silico* T-RFLP analysis for AcetoBase reference FTHFS nucleotide dataset**

194 The T-RFLP profile of FTHFS gene fragments was simulated using the reference nucleotide
195 dataset retrieved from AcetoBase, which consists of ~6820 non-redundant full-length
196 taxonomically annotated FTHFS nucleotide sequences (Singh *et al.* 2019). A dataset of *in*
197 *silico* (*IS*) PCR amplicons was generated by aligning the full-length FTHFS nucleotide
198 reference dataset and FTHFS clone sequences generated in a previous study (Müller *et al.*
199 2016). Multiple sequence alignment was performed with the FAMSA alignment program
200 (Deorowicz, Debudaj-Grabysz and Gudys 2016), with 1000 bootstrap iterations and single
201 linkage guide tree. The resulting alignment was then trimmed to a length corresponding to the
202 clone sequences of approximately 588 base pairs (bp). Clone sequences were removed from
203 the alignment and all the gaps in alignment were deleted. This dataset of ungapped FTHFS
204 nucleotide reference of ~588 bp was saved as a multi-fasta formatted file and was used as an
205 input file for the *IS* restriction digestion and T-RFLP analysis program REDigest (Singh
206 2020b). For the *IS* analysis, the tagged forward (5'-CCNACNCCNNNNGGNGANGGNAA-
207 3'; 23 bp) and reverse (5'-ATNTTNGCNAANGGNCNCCNTG-3'; 23 bp) primer
208 sequences were added to the input sequences. A separate *IS* analysis with the restriction
209 enzyme AluI and Hpy188III was performed for the input file. For the quantitative and
210 taxonomic analysis, *IS* TRFs smaller than 50 bp and greater than 640 bp (approximately
211 [588+23+23]) were removed and excluded from the analysis. The moving average method
212 (Smith *et al.* 2005; Fredriksson, Hermansson and Wilén 2014) was applied for binning *IS*
213 TRFs with a size difference of ± 2 bp into an operational terminal restriction fragment unit
214 (oTRF).

215 **High-throughput sequencing library preparation**

216 The 16S rRNA gene (V3-V4) amplicon library was prepared with the primers 515F (Hugerth
217 *et al.* 2014) and 805R (Herlemann *et al.* 2011) using the protocol described by Müller *et al.*
218 (2016). Partial FTHFS gene amplicons were generated with the custom-indexed FTHFS
219 primers (FWD 5'-CCNACNCCNSYNGGNGARGGNAA-3' and REV 5'-
220 ATNTTNGCNAANGGNCNCNTG-3'), for which the barcoded strategy was adopted
221 from Hugerth *et al.* (2014). The multiplexed amplicon library was prepared by pooling equal
222 amounts (20 ng) of each sample. For both 16S rRNA and FTHFS gene amplicon libraries,
223 paired-end sequencing was performed (at the sequencing facility of the SNP&SEQ
224 Technology Platform) on Illumina MiSeq with 300 base pairs (bp) read length using v3
225 sequencing chemistry (UGC 2018).

226 **Development of RibocetoBase**

227 RibocetoBase is a subset of the 16S rRNA training dataset (Silva SSU taxonomic training
228 data formatted for DADA2, version 138) (McLaren 2020) representing the FTHFS gene-
229 harbouring accessions present in AcetoBase (Singh *et al.* 2019). To develop RibocetoBase,
230 complete genomes/genomic assemblies of taxonomic identifiers for the AcetoBase accessions
231 were downloaded from the NCBI FTP genome server (NCBI 2020) (accessed May 2020) and
232 screened for the presence of 16S rRNA gene sequences. From among 7928 AcetoBase
233 accessions, 6857 genomes/assemblies were successfully retrieved and 16S rRNA gene
234 sequences were extracted with strict filtering parameters (percentage identity 95%, evaluate 1e-
235 5, window size 0) in the BLAST+ nucleotide homology search algorithm (Camacho *et al.*
236 2009), using the Silva SSU training dataset as reference. This showed that 1071 AcetoBase
237 accessions were lacking complete genome/assembly sequences in the NCBI FTP genome
238 server and could not be used for 16S rRNA gene sequence screening. All the extracted

239 sequences were collected in a single fasta file and duplicate/redundant sequences were
240 filtered out using the DupRemover program (Singh 2020c). RibocetoBase contains 9169
241 taxonomically annotated sequences for which the size distribution range is 300-2072 bp and
242 most sequences have size around 1500 bp (Supp. Fig. S1A). The RibocetoBase database was
243 saved in a compressed multi-fasta file format and used for acetogenic community taxonomic
244 assignments based on 16S rRNA AmpSeq data. The length and taxonomic distribution of
245 RibocetoBase are shown in Supp. Fig. S1B. In referring to the FTHFS gene-harboursing
246 community inferred from 16S rRNA gene amplicons in the remainder of this paper, the term
247 ‘Riboceto-community’ is used. Etymologically, Riboceto-community is derived from
248 RibocetoBase and it refers to the acetogenic community inferred from 16S ribosomal RNA
249 gene amplicons.

250 **High-throughput sequencing data analysis**

251 For the 16S rRNA AmpSeq data, Illumina adapters and primer sequences from the raw data
252 were trimmed and quality filtering for sequences with a Phred score below 20 was performed
253 with Cutadapt (version 2.2) (Martin 2011). De-noising and generation of a taxonomy table
254 and abundance/ASV table were done in package *dada2* (version 1.14.1) (Callahan *et al.*
255 2016) in R programming language (version 3.5.2)/RStudio (version 1.2.5033) (R Core Team
256 2013; RStudio Team 2015). Genus-level taxonomic assignment of the amplicon sequence
257 variants (ASV) was done with the function `assignTaxonomy`, using the Silva taxonomic
258 training dataset (version 138) formatted for *dada2* (Version 1) (McLaren 2020). Taxonomic
259 assignment of Riboceto-community was done using the RibocetoBase training dataset
260 formatted for *dada2* (this study). The results were visualised individually for the community
261 inferred from 16S rRNA AmpSeq data (16S-community) and Riboceto-community with
262 package *phyloseq* (version 1.30.0) (McMurdie and Holmes 2013) and *vegan* (version 2.5.6)
263 (Oksanen *et al.* 2019) in RStudio (version 1.2.5033) (RStudio Team 2015).

264 Unsupervised FTHFS gene sequence data analysis was performed using the AcetoScan
265 pipeline (version 1.0) (Singh *et al.* 2020). The parameters used for the AcetoScan analysis
266 were -r 1, -m 300, -n 150, -q 21 and -c 10, while other parameters were defaults (AcetoScan
267 user-manual). Customised visualisation of the AcetoScan results was done with package
268 *phyloseq* (version 1.30.0) and *vegan* (version 2.5.6) (Oksanen *et al.* 2019) in RStudio (version
269 1.2.5033) (RStudio Team 2015). All data processing analyses were performed on a Debian
270 Linux-based system with x86_64 architecture and a 3.4 GHz Intel® Core™ i7-6700
271 processor.

272 **RESULTS**

273 **Biogas reactor operation and performance profile**

274 The performance profile of the reactors is presented in Supp. data 1. The content of carbon
275 dioxide (%) and of methane (%) and VFA levels were used as indicators of process
276 performance of both GR1 and GR2. In the reference reactor GR2, small fluctuations in
277 carbon dioxide and methane content were observed, with no accumulation of organic acids.
278 With the increased organic load in GR1 ($\Delta \sim 1.59 \text{ g VS L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$), an increase in carbon
279 dioxide content and a decrease in methane content were detected, indicating deteriorating
280 performance of GR1. An increase in the VFA concentration was also noticed in GR1 from
281 day 84, with a peak of 24.6 g/L on day 133. On returning the OLR for GR1 to $\sim 2.5 \text{ g VS L}^{-1}$
282 day^{-1} (\sim day 125), an increase in methane content was recorded, followed by a decrease in the
283 concentration of total VFA and carbon dioxide content (Supp. Data 1, Supp. Fig 2). The
284 increase in methane content and decrease in carbon dioxide content indicated recovery of the
285 process performance to a level similar to GR2.

286 **Quantitative analysis of terminal restriction fragments**

287 Quantitative analysis of *Ex* TRFs was done using the experimental data stored in data-frames
288 during the preliminary analysis. *Ex* TRFs differing by ± 2 bp in size were binned to produce
289 an *Ex* oTRF. This binning of *Ex* TRFs helped to identify, quantify and visualise the *Ex* TRFs
290 (Fig. 1, Supp. Fig. S3). Similarly, *IS* TRFs were binned in *IS* oTRFs to compare with *Ex*
291 oTRFs. However, the binning strategy caused differences in the size of a TRF generated from
292 *IS* restriction digestion of a sequence and an oTRF from the same sequence (Fig. 2).
293 Therefore, in the absence of an *IS* TRF equal to an *Ex* oTRF, the taxonomy of the *IS* oTRF (\pm
294 2 bp) is considered in the discussion. The *Ex* oTRFs 636 and 640 bp were the unrestricted
295 fragments, and are thus not considered in the discussion.

296 **Experimental T-RFLP profiles generated from GR1 and GR2**

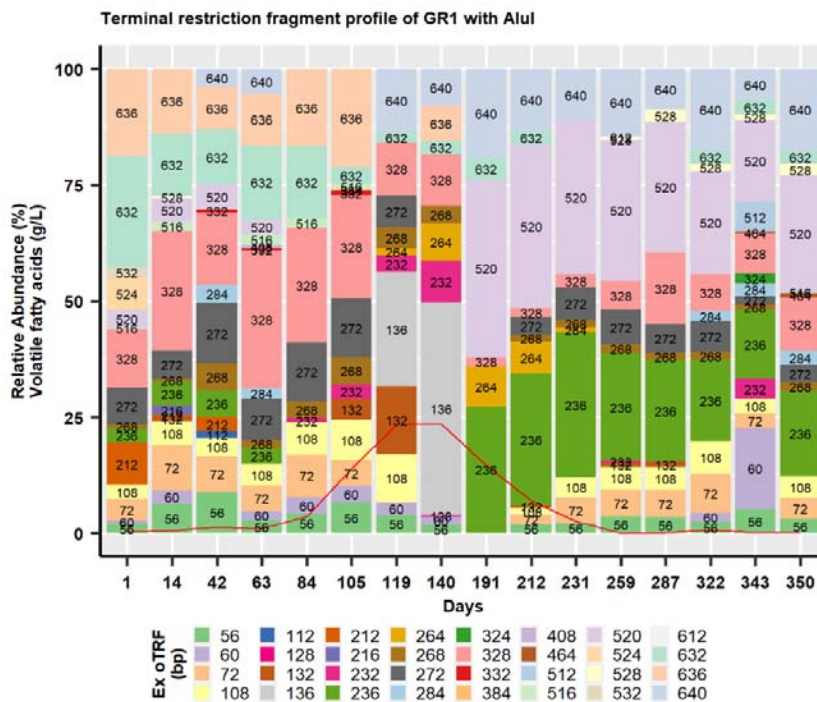
297 The restriction profile of FTHFS gene fragments from GR1 revealed significantly different
298 community dynamics during (1-125 days) and after (126-350 days) the disturbance phase.
299 The community composition in GR1 during the initial phase of disturbance was very similar
300 to that in GR2, but gradually changed under the influence of disturbance and increasing total
301 VFA concentration. The restriction profile from GR1 and GR2 with AluI consisted of 32 and
302 31 *Ex* oTRFs, respectively, with total 40 unique *Ex* oTRFs. Of these 40 *Ex* oTRFs, 23 were
303 seen in both reactors and 17 *Ex* oTRFs were unique to either GR1 (nine unique *Ex* oTRFs, of
304 size 112, 128, 264, 324, 332, 384, 512, 528 and 612 bp) or GR2 (eight unique *Ex* oTRFs, of
305 152, 296, 300, 392, 420, 436, 488 and 576 bp). Among the unique *Ex* oTRFs in GR1, two
306 (264 and 528 bp) were observed to have relative abundance (RA) $>1\%$, while none of the
307 eight unique *Ex* oTRFs in GR2 was seen to have RA $>1\%$ during the experimental period
308 (Fig. 1). In GR1, the disappearance of *Ex* oTRFs 236 and 520 bp during the early disturbance
309 phase (day 63) and their reappearance during the recovery phase (day 191) were strongly
310 connected with the increasing/high and decreasing/low level of total VFA, respectively. *Ex*

311 oTRFs 132, 136 and 264 bp were only observed between day 105 and 231, whereas *Ex* oTRF
312 72 bp disappeared between day 119 and 191, when VFA accumulation was high. *Ex* oTRF
313 528 bp was only observed (RA >1%) from day 259 to 350 (Fig. 1A). *Ex* oTRFs 272, 328 and
314 632 bp were the most prominent *Ex* oTRFs before the VFA levels increased. No such
315 significant changes were noticed in GR2, except that *Ex* oTRF 232 bp disappeared and *Ex*
316 oTRF 236 bp appeared between day 287 and day 350 (Fig. 1B). Principal coordinate analysis
317 (PCoA) of the AluI restriction profile resulted in close clustering of samples from GR2, while
318 samples from GR1 were dispersed under the influence of increased carbon dioxide content
319 (%) and total VFA concentration (g/L). The environmental vector for methane content (%)
320 was opposite to that for carbon dioxide content and total VFA concentration, indicating that
321 methane content decreased when the carbon dioxide content and total VFA concentration
322 increased and *vice versa* (Fig. 1C). Similar to the AluI restriction profiles of GR1 and GR2,
323 the restriction profile with restriction enzyme Hpy188III also resulted in visually different *Ex*
324 oTRF composition and dynamics in GR1 compared with GR2. The *Ex* oTRF profile in GR1
325 was similar to that in GR2 during the initial phase of disturbance, but gradually changed with
326 the increase, followed by a decrease, in total VFA concentration. The experimental T-RFLP
327 profile generated from Hpy188III restriction digestion is presented in additional text (Fig.
328 A1). Results of NMDS analysis for both GR1 and GR2 with restriction enzyme AluI and
329 Hpy188III showed similar trends to those seen in PCoA analysis (Supp. Fig. S7A and S7B).

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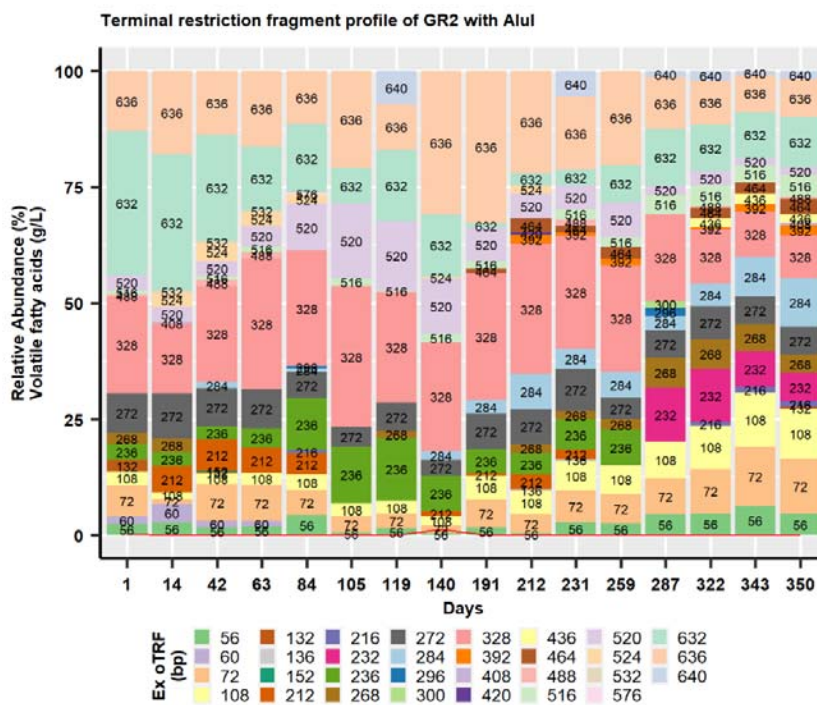
A)



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B)

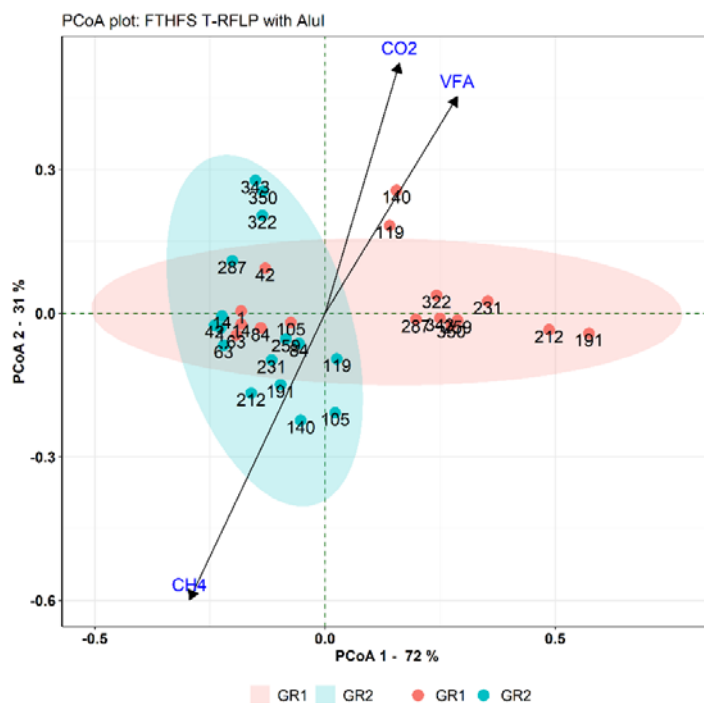


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C)

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338 **Figure 1** - Experimental terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism (T-RFLP) profile
339 representing *Ex* oTRF with restriction enzyme AluI for **A**) experimental reactor GR1 and **B**)
340 control reactor GR2. The red line represents the level of total volatile fatty acids (g/L) at the
341 respective time-point. **C**) Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) plot showing microbial beta
342 diversity reactors GR1 and GR2 using FTHFS T-RFLP profile with AluI. VFA, CH₄ and CO₂
343 are the environmental vectors which represent the level of total volatile fatty acids (g/L),
344 methane content (%) and carbon dioxide content (%), respectively.

345

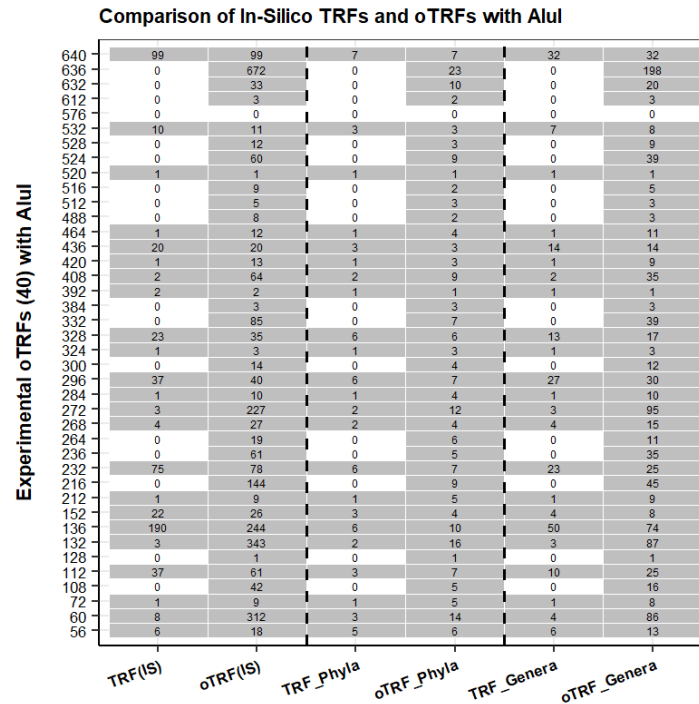
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348 ***In silico* T-RFs from AcetoBase FTHFS nucleotide dataset**

349 The *IS* restriction digestion of the FTHFS nucleotide dataset with restriction enzyme AluI
350 resulted in 360 *IS* TRFs, among which 326 *IS* TRFs were within the size range 50-640 bp
351 (Supp. Fig. S3A). With restriction enzyme Hpy188III, the total number of *IS* TRFs was 399,
352 of which 363 *IS* TRFs were within the size range 50-640 bp (Supp. Fig. S3B). These *IS* TRFs
353 with size ranging between 50 and 640 bp were used for the oTRF binning. After binning the

354 *IS* TRFs, 140 and 142 oTRFs were generated for AluI and Hpy188III, respectively, and used
 355 for further analysis and comparison (Fig. 2, Supp. data 2, Supp. Fig. S4).



356

357 **Figure 2** - Tabular plot representing the T-RFLP profile during comparison of experimental
 358 oTRF versus *in silico* TRF, *in silico* oTRF and count of taxa (phyla and genera) with
 359 restriction enzyme AluI.

360

361 **Comparison of experimental and *in silico* T-RFLP profile for AluI and taxonomic**
 362 **prediction of TRFs**

363 The taxonomic predictions for the TRFs were made by comparing the *Ex* oTRF profile to the
 364 *IS* TRF profile generated from the sequences of known taxonomy. The T-RFLP profiles of *Ex*
 365 oTRFs from GR1 and GR2 generated with AluI were different from those obtained for the *IS*
 366 TRFs in terms of the size and number of the restriction fragments (Fig. 2, Supp. Data 2). The
 367 taxonomy of the *Ex* oTRF 72 bp represented only one hit in the *IS* analysis, belonging to the
 368 phylum Actinobacteria and genus *Salinibacterium*, while *IS* oTRF represented nine hits (70

369 (2), 71 (2), 72 (1) and 73 (4) bp) belonging to five phyla and eight genera. *Ex* oTRF 132 bp
370 was represented by three *IS* TRFs (belonging to two phyla and three genera) and by 343 *IS*
371 oTRFs (16 phyla and 87 genera). The most dominant *Ex* oTRF, *i.e.*, 136 bp, between day 119
372 and 140 (Fig. 1A) represented 190 and 244 hits in the *IS* TRF and *IS* oTRF profile,
373 respectively (Fig 2). The *IS* TRF hits belonged to six phyla and 50 genera and the *IS* oTRF
374 hits belonged to 10 phyla and 74 genera (Fig. 2, Supp. Data 2), including *Clostridium* (*C.*
375 *ultunense*, *C. beijerinckii*, *C. perfringens*, *C. formicaceticum*), *Clostridioides*, *Dorea*,
376 *Eubacterium*, *Prevotella*, *Proteus*, *Sporomusa* and *Terrisporobacter* *etc.*

377 *Ex* oTRF 264 bp, which was unique to GR1, did not appear in *IS* restriction digestion, but *IS*
378 TRFs 262 (7), 263 (11), 265 (1) and 266 bp (5) were generated. This can be explained by the
379 fact that experimental and *IS* TRFs were clustered (± 2 bp), and thus specific *IS* TRF of 264
380 bp may not exist. However, if taxonomy of *IS* TRFs generated from the reference dataset is
381 considered, six out of seven *IS* TRFs of size 262 bp belonged to the genus *Treponema*. *IS*
382 TRF 263 bp was related to the genus *Blautia* and *IS* TRF 265 bp was generated from the
383 genus *Moorella* (Supp. Data 2). One out of five *IS* TRFs of size 266 bp was from the genus
384 *Acetobacterium*. *Ex* TRF 236 bp was not generated in *IS* analysis, but clustering produced 61
385 *IS* oTRFs of size 236 bp, which belonged to five phyla and 35 genera (Fig. 2, Supp. Data 2).
386 The *IS* oTRF of 236 bp consisted of *IS* TRF 235 (60) and 237 (1) bp and were taxonomically
387 associated with genera like *Blautia*, *Clostridium*, *Hungateiclostridium*, *Oxobacter*,
388 *Prevotella*. *Ex* oTRF 520 bp, present in high relative abundance in GR1, represented only one
389 hit in the *IS* analysis, belonging to the phylum Fusobacteria. However, when *IS* TRF of size
390 522 bp was also considered, there were 60 *IS* TRFs clustered into *IS* oTRF of 524 bp. Among
391 these *IS* oTRF, taxonomically nine phyla and 39 genera were represented by *IS* oTRF 524 bp,
392 including species (Candidatus) *Cloacimonetes* bacterium HGW-Cloacimonetes-1. The *IS*
393 TRF profile was lacking *Ex* oTRFs of 632 bp. However, 33 *IS* oTRFs of 632 bp were

394 generated, belonging to 10 phyla and 20 genera. The taxonomy predicted for the major AluI
395 *Ex* oTRFs and their relative abundance is presented in Supp. Fig. S5. *Clostridium* was the
396 most abundant and diverse genus, followed by *Eubacterium*, represented by the major *Ex*
397 oTRFs generated by AluI.

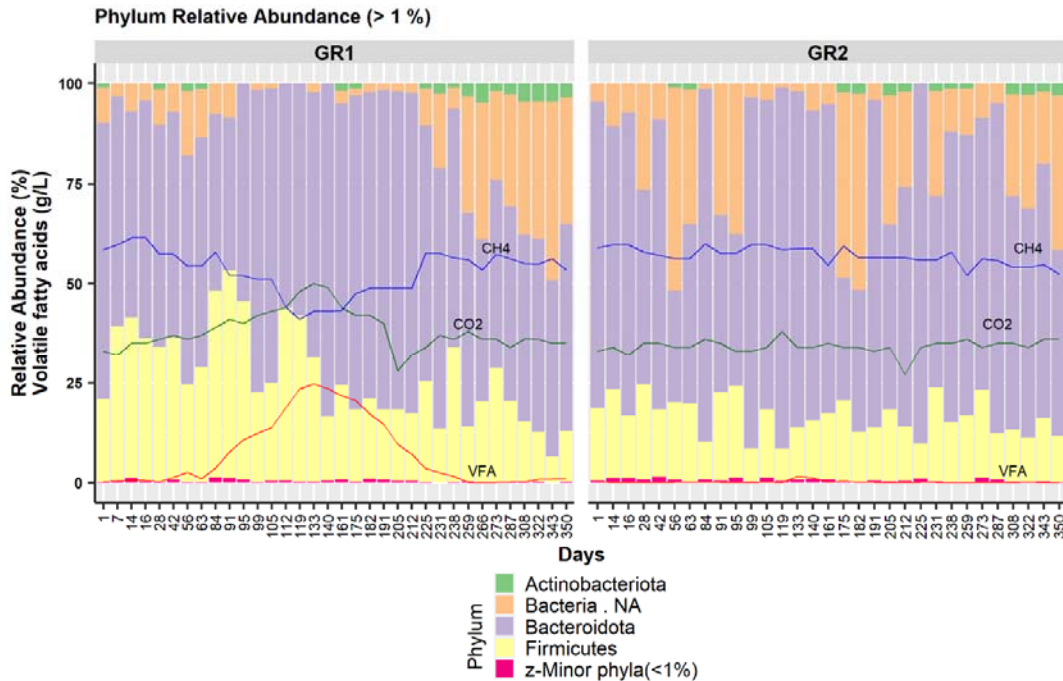
398 **Riboceto-community structure and dynamics**

399 Analysis of Riboceto-community revealed three known phyla and one unknown bacterial
400 phylum (Bacteria.NA) with RA >1%. These phyla were Actinobacteriota (RA 1-5%),
401 Firmicutes (6-52%), Bacteroidota (28-90%) and Bacteria.NA (1.1-50.6%) in both GR1 and
402 GR2 (Fig. 3A). At the class level, eight classes were found to have RA >1%, of which five
403 major classes were Bacilli (RA 1-18%), Bacteroidota (38-90%), Bacteria.NA (1.2-51%),
404 Clostridia (1.34-32%) and an unknown class of Firmicutes (1.2-13.5%) in both GR1 and
405 GR2. At the family level, the families that differed most between the experimental and
406 control reactors during the disturbance phase in G1 were an unknown family of Bacteroidales
407 and Tannerellaceae (Supp. Fig. S6). The RA of Bacteroidales.NA increased and decreased
408 with the rising and falling level of total VFA in GR1, respectively. Similarly, the RA of
409 Tannerellaceae decreased and increased with the change in VFA level of GR1. The family
410 Bacteria.NA in GR1 disappeared and reappeared with the rise and fall in total VFA level. In
411 contrast, these unknown families of Bacteroidales and Tannerellaceae had a relatively stable
412 presence throughout the operational phase in GR2. The unknown bacterial family
413 Bacteria.NA was observed to have fluctuating RA in GR2. The family Hungateiclostridiaceae
414 was only observed in GR1 (RA >2%) (Suppl. Fig. S6). Genus-level community analysis (RA
415 >1%) revealed patterns similar to the family-level analysis for Bacteria.NA and
416 Clostridia.NA genera (Fig. 3B). The most noteworthy change was the appearance of the
417 genera *Tissierella* (day 84-133) and *Proteiniphilum* (day 95-140), and an unknown member
418 of the family Tannerellaceae (day 105-182), with the increase in total VFA. These genera

419 were observed sporadically in GR2, but RA was found not to be above 2.2% during the
420 whole operational phase. PCoA analysis with weighted UniFrac distance matrix indicated
421 distinct clustering of the samples from GR1 and GR2, and the environmental vectors carbon
422 dioxide content (%) and total VFA (g/L) were opposite to methane content (%) (Fig. 3C).
423 The NMDS analysis of community based on 16S rRNA gene sequences represented the
424 separate clustering of the samples from GR1 and GR2 and dispersal of the samples under the
425 influence of environmental vectors (CH₄, CO₂ and VFA) (Suppl. Fig. S7C).

426

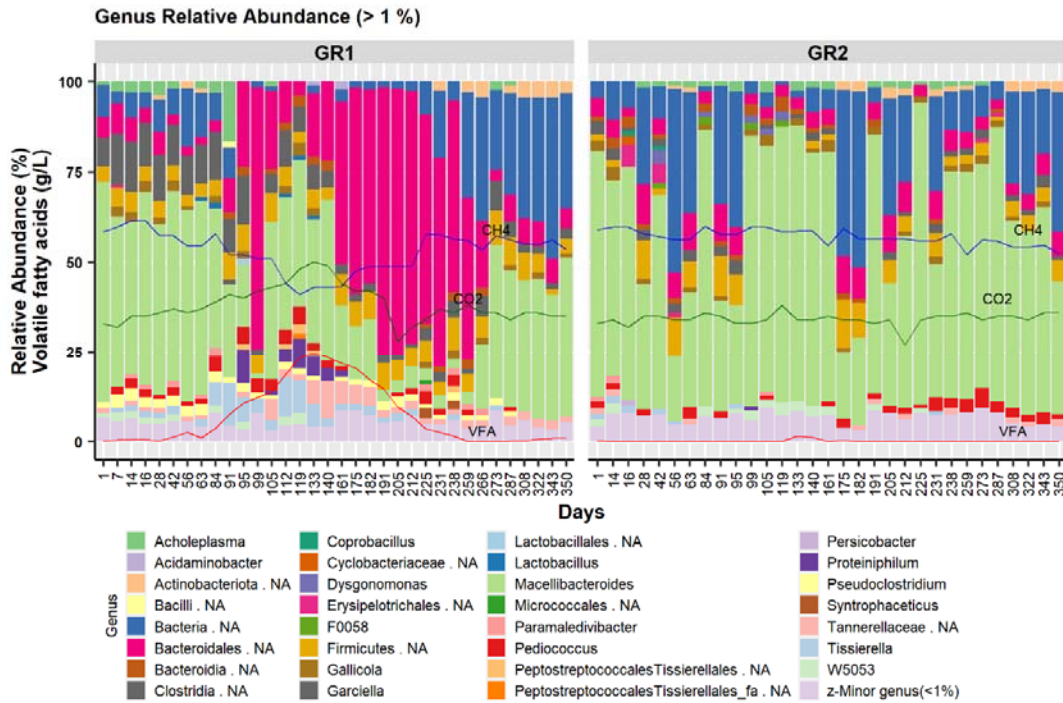
A)



427

428

B)



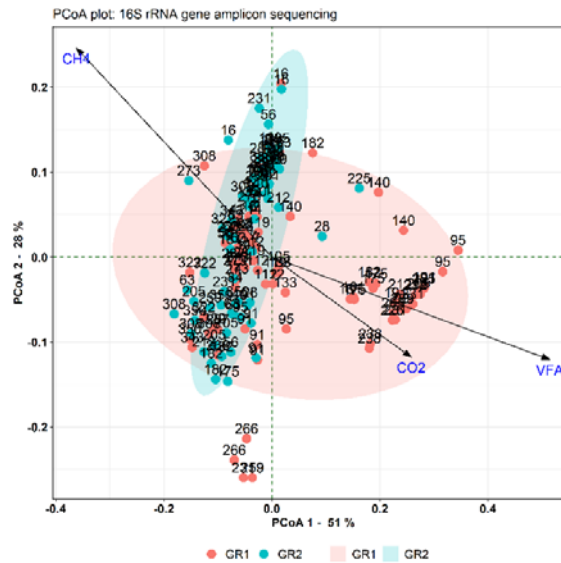
429

430

431

432

C)



433

434

435 **Figure 3** - Bar plot representing Riboceto-community in experimental reactor GR1 and
 436 control reactor GR2 at the **A**) phylum level (relative abundance (RA) >1%) and **B**) genus
 437 level (RA >1%). VFA, CH₄ and CO₂ represent the level of total volatile fatty acids (g/L),
 438 methane content (%) and carbon dioxide content (%), respectively. **C**) Principal coordinate
 439 analysis (PCoA) plot with weighted UniFrac distance matrix visualising beta diversity of the

440 whole microbial community in samples from reactors GR1 and GR2 under the influence of
441 the environmental parameters carbon dioxide content (%), total VFA (g/L) and methane
442 content (%).

443

444

445 **Potential acetogenic community structure based on FTHFS gene amplicons - “FTHFS-**
446 **community”**

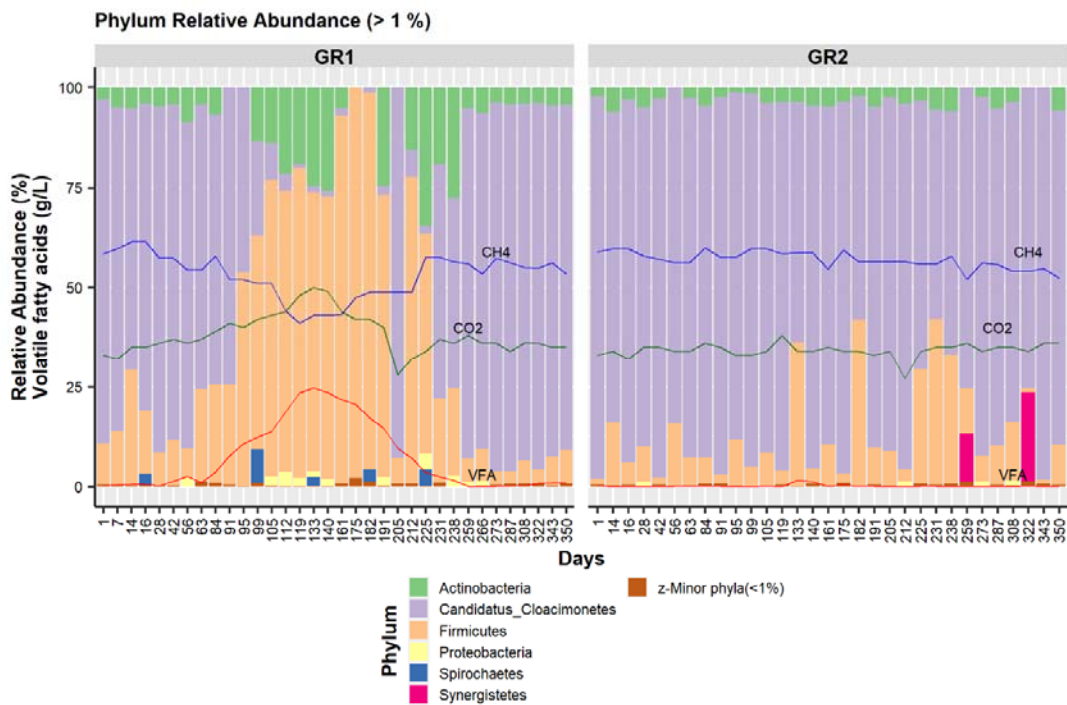
447 The high-throughput sequencing followed by data analysis with AcetoScan for FTHFS gene
448 amplicons indicated that, at the phylum level, six phyla (Actinobacteria, Candidatus
449 Cloacimonetes, Firmicutes, Proteobacteria, Spirochaetes and Synergistetes) had RA >1%.
450 Candidatus Cloacimonetes and Firmicutes were the most abundant phyla, making up
451 approximately 80% of the total community in both GR1 and GR2 during the study period. In
452 GR1, phylum Candidatus Cloacimonetes showed increased RA during days 1-125 and
453 decreased RA during days 125-350. The phyla Candidatus Cloacimonetes and Firmicutes
454 were seen to be relatively stable (with smaller occasional fluctuations in RA) in GR2 (Fig.
455 4A). At the class level, community structure and dynamics seen for the class Actinobacteria,
456 unclassified Candidatus Cloacimonetes and Clostridia were similar to those seen at the
457 phylum level for GR1 and GR2. However, an increase in RA >1% for the class Negativicutes
458 (1.2-3.2 %) was noted in GR1 from around day 91 to day 182, in line with the increase in
459 VFA levels. Occasional appearance (RA >1%) of the classes Tissierellia and Spirochaetia
460 was also seen, but only in GR1. At the order level, RA of the orders Selenomonadales,
461 Tissierelliales and Spirochaetales were found to increase (up to 8%) and decrease (to ≤1%)
462 with the increase and decrease in total VFA levels in GR1, respectively. These orders were
463 not observed in GR2, where ~90% of the community was composed mainly of an unknown
464 order of phylum Candidatus Cloacimonetes. At the genus level, appearance and increase (3-
465 40%) in the RA of an unclassified Peptococcaceae genus with the increase in VFA levels was

466 also observed, followed by appearance of the genus *Eubacterium* (RA 5-11%) from day 99 to
467 day 238. The genus *Marvinbryantia* also showed increasing RA (7-40%) from day 133 to day
468 82, and then declined again to RA <1%. The genera *Eubacterium* and *Marvinbryantia* were
469 not observed in RA >1% and unclassified Peptococcaceae did not exceed RA >2% in control
470 reactor GR2 (Fig. 4B).

471 At the species level, (Candidatus) *Cloacimonetes* bacterium HGW-Cloacimonetes-1 was only
472 seen to have RA >1% after day 259 in GR1, while in GR2 it was seen (RA >1-3%)
473 throughout the operational phase. Moreover, the species *Eubacterium limosum*, *Clostridium*
474 *beijerinckii*, *Marvinbryantia formatexigens*, *Treponema berlinense*, *Tissierella creatinophila*,
475 *Caloranaerobacter* sp. and *Pelosinus propionicus* were only detected in GR1 during the
476 disturbance phase or when the level of total VFA was high. The unknown genus of the family
477 Peptococcaceae was observed to have increasing RA (1-40%) in GR1 with the increase in
478 total VFA (0.5-18.6 g/L) and its RA decreased (to $\leq 1\%$) with the decrease in total VFA level,
479 while it was detected to have almost constant RA of $\leq 2\%$ in GR2 (Fig. 4C). PCoA analysis of
480 the potential acetogenic community inferred from FTHFS AmpSeq indicated very tight
481 clustering of the samples from the control reactor G2 (Fig. 4D). The samples from the
482 experimental reactor GR1 were dispersed along the environmental vectors for carbon dioxide
483 content (%) and total VFA (g/L), and opposite to methane content (%) (Fig. 4D). NMDS
484 analysis of FTHFS-community indicated trends similar to 16S-community beta diversity,
485 where GR1 and GR2 samples showed distinct clusters based on the experimental and
486 recovery period in GR1 and influence of environmental vectors (CH₄, CO₂, VFA) (Suppl.
487 Fig. S7D).

488

A)



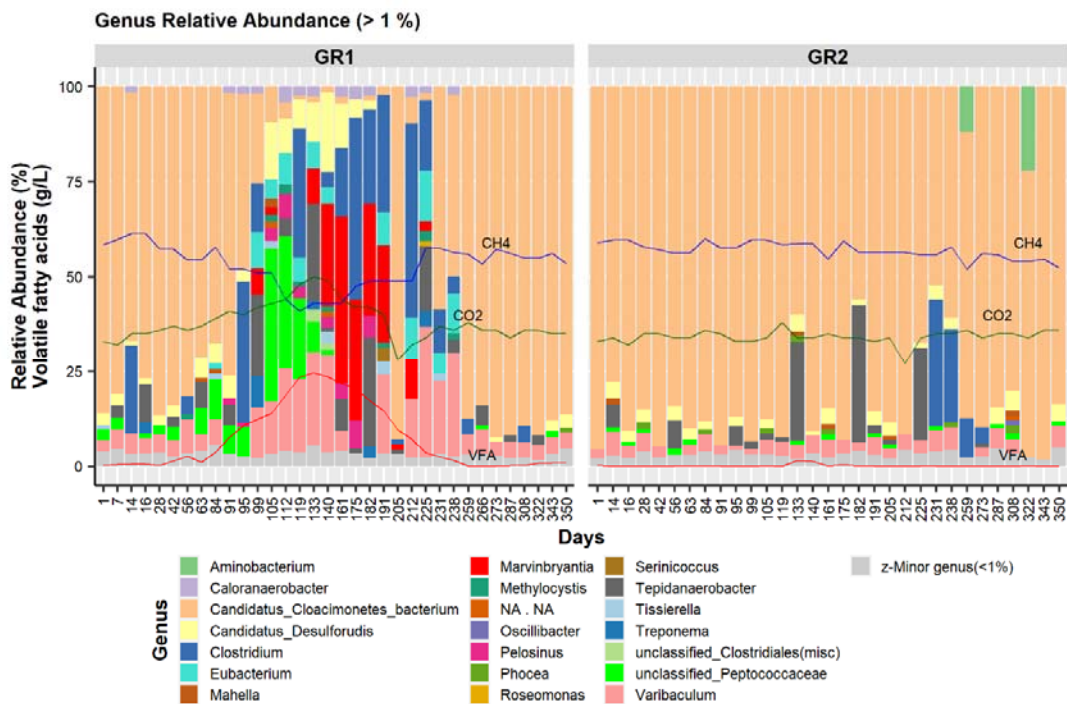
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B)

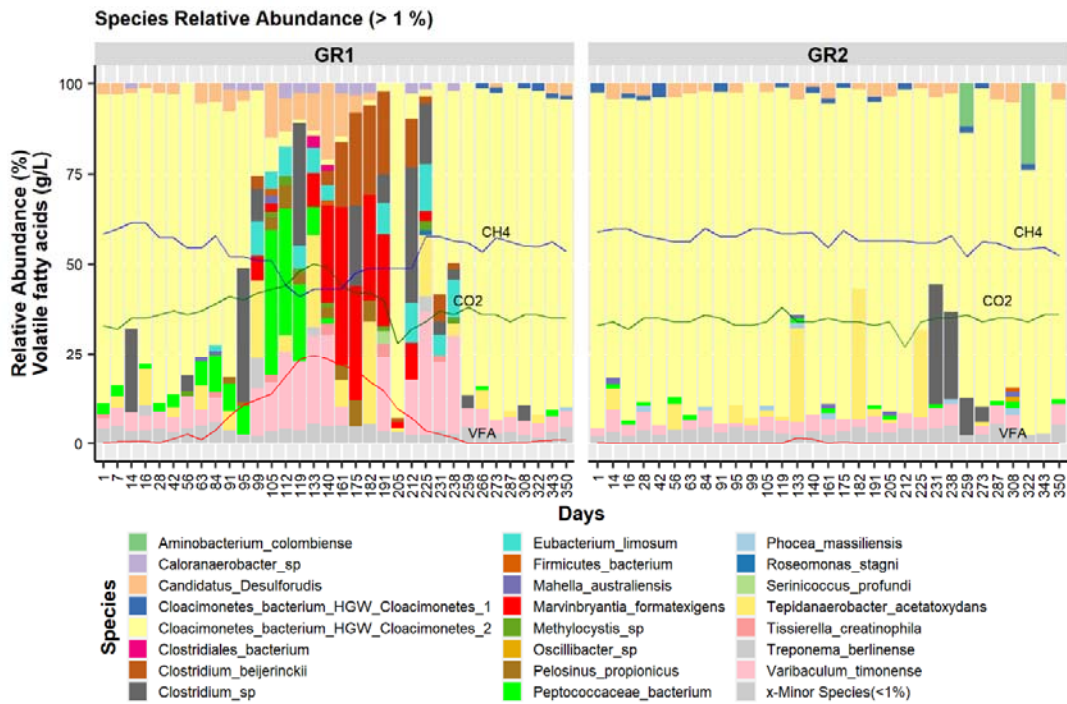
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C)

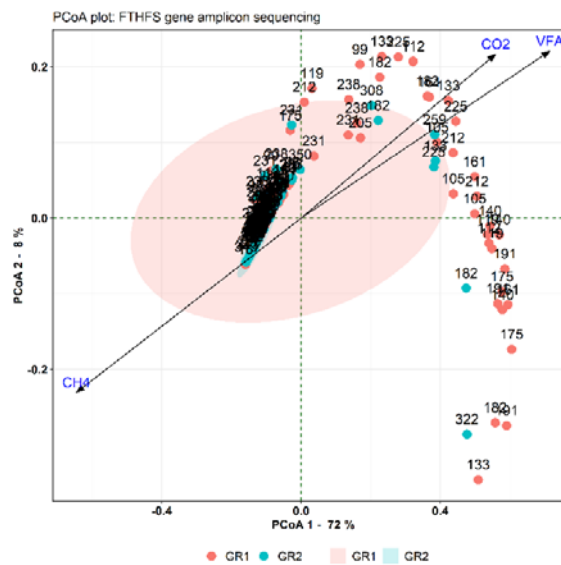


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496

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D)



498

499 **Figure 4** - Bar plot of acetogenic community based on FTHFS gene amplicons in
 500 experimental reactor GR1 and control reactor GR2 at **A**) phylum level (relative abundance
 501 (RA) >1%), **B**) genus level (RA >1%) and **C**) species level (RA >1%). VFA, CH₄ and CO₂

502 represent the level of total volatile fatty acids (g/L), methane content (%) and carbon dioxide
503 content (%), respectively. **D**) Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) plot with weighted
504 UniFrac distance matrix visualising beta diversity of the potential acetogenic community
505 inferred from FTHFS gene sequencing in samples from reactors GR1 and GR2 under the
506 influence of environmental parameters carbon dioxide content (%), total VFA (g/L) and
507 methane content (%).

508

509

510 **DISCUSSION**

511 All the methods used in this study for community analysis revealed a similar pattern in terms
512 of community dynamics during the disturbance and recovery phase in the experimental
513 reactor (GR1) and relatively stable community structure in the control reactor (GR2). An
514 increase in carbon dioxide content (%) and total VFA concentration (g/L) and decrease in
515 methane content (%) were the main indicators of disturbance in both FTHFS- and 16S-
516 community structure for GR1 compared with GR2. However, there were considerable
517 differences in the community profile when taxonomy associated with the method taken into
518 consideration. Differences arose because different methods produce slightly differing results
519 and have their advantages and disadvantages. However, detailed comparison of the methods
520 revealed 1) similarity in temporal dynamics, taxonomy and RA abundance of respective
521 taxa/TRFs and 2) some differences and plausible reasons for these.

522 **Comparison of T-RFLP profile and structure and dynamics of Riboceto-, 16S-, FTHFS-** 523 **community**

524 ***FTHFS gene-based community dynamics: T-RFLP versus AmpSeq***

525 On comparing the FTHFS gene-based community and taxonomic predictions of AluI *Ex*
526 oTRFs, it was observed that unknown bacteria of the family Peptococcaceae and *M.*
527 *formatexigens* were present in significantly high relative abundance in FTHFS-community in
528 GR1, but were not detected in the *Ex* oTRF profile (via its taxonomic prediction). This was

529 likely because, as the *in silico* digestion results indicated, the TRFs generated by these two
530 species were smaller than 50 bp (Supp. Data 2), and thus were not included in the T-RFLP
531 analysis. In the *IS* T-RFLP profile of AluI and Hpy188III, some *IS* oTRFs were represented
532 by several genera, such as *Clostridium* (*C. ultunense*, *C. beijerinckii*, *C. perfringens*, *C.*
533 *formicaceticum*), *Clostridioides*, *Dorea*, *Eubacterium*, *Prevotella*, *Proteus* and *Sporomusa*,
534 *Terrisporobacter* etc. Although no exact match for a particular genus (species) was found for
535 *IS* oTRFs, all of these genera are relevant for the community dynamics because they include
536 most of the known acetogens (Drake, Gößner and Daniel 2008; Singh *et al.* 2019). The
537 appearance and increase in RA of certain *EX* oTRFs in GR1 and their predicted taxonomy
538 illustrate the important role of these acetogens in VFA metabolism. Comparison of dynamics
539 deduced from the FTHFS gene T-RFLP and AmpSeq indicated similar trends in the RA of
540 associated or predicted taxa. However, our *in silico* analysis suggested that accurate
541 identification and prediction of exact taxa based on TRF identity is not feasible.

542 ***Congruence of RibocetoBase taxonomic annotations with 16S-community***

543 Analysis of Riboceto-community (Fig. 3) showed similar trends to those seen for 16S-
544 community dynamics (additional text, Fig. A2). At phylum level, the major phyla observed in
545 Riboceto-community and 16S-community were very similar, although increased resolution
546 for these dynamics was observed for Riboceto-community (*e.g.*, acetogenic community) (Fig.
547 3A) compared with 16S-community (additional text, Fig. A2A). At phylum level, 16S-
548 community in GR1 showed complete disappearance of the phylum Cloacimonadota between
549 day 95 and day 225 and presence of phylum Actinobacteriota in only a few samples. In line
550 with this, Riboceto-community indicated reduced RA of the phylum Cloacimonadota during
551 days 95-225, although unlike in 16S-community it did not completely disappear. In Riboceto-
552 community, the phylum Actinobacteriota (RA >1% intermittently) was observed in both GR1
553 and GR2. 16S-community showed similar trends to Riboceto-community at phylum level,

554 where Candidatus Cloacimonetes was highly reduced during the disturbance but did not
555 disappear and Actinobacteriota was observed in both reactors. In the comparison of Riboceto-
556 community (Fig. 3A) and 16S-community (additional text, Fig. A2A), it was noticed that the
557 phylum Cloacimonadota was annotated “NA” in Riboceto-community. This is because
558 RibocetoBase taxonomy is based on NCBI taxonomy (Federhen 2012), while 16S rRNA
559 gene reference dataset taxonomy is based on Arb-Silva (Quast *et al.* 2013), recently amended
560 with GTDB taxonomy (Chaumeil *et al.* 2019; Parks *et al.* 2020). If the taxonomy of the “NA”
561 sequences in the Riboceto-community fraction is traced using Silva aligner (Quast *et al.*
562 2013) or RDP sequence match (Cole *et al.* 2014), and taxonomy is compared to GTDB
563 taxonomy, the taxonomic affiliations of ASVs can be compared/validated for “NA” taxa.
564 Thus, these differences in the taxonomic classification systems created differences between
565 the taxonomy associated with the community dynamics. Other reasons for the assignment of
566 phylum Cloacimonadota (GTDB taxonomy) or Candidatus Cloacimonetes (NCBI taxonomy)
567 as unknown bacterial phylum in the RibocetoBase dataset are: 1) lack of complete
568 genomes/genomic assemblies for the Candidatus Cloacimonetes accessions present in
569 AcetoBase and 2) absence of 16S rRNA gene sequences in these genomes/genomic
570 assemblies, with 5S or 23S subunits mostly present in these genomic assemblies. Thus, the
571 16S rRNA gene sequence could not be extracted from the Cloacimonadota/Candidatus
572 Cloacimonetes genomes for the RibocetoBase dataset and identified ASVs could not be
573 annotated. A comparison of FTHFS-community and 16S-community also indicated the
574 reason for the high RA of Actinobacteria in the FTHFS profile and its low RA in the 16S
575 rRNA gene profile. The genus *Varibaculum timonense*, which was previously classified in
576 the family Actinomycetaceae (AcetoBase) (Singh *et al.* 2019) under old NCBI taxonomy
577 (Federhen 2012) has been reclassified to *Urmitella timonensis* in the family Tissierellaceae
578 (GTDB 2020a) according to GTDB taxonomy (Chaumeil *et al.* 2019). Hence, amendments in

579 RibocetoBase taxonomy according to GTDB taxonomy would be required for correct
580 taxonomic annotations and community profiling. However, indirect inference using
581 RibocetoBase, *i.e.* FTHFS gene-harbouring bacteria from AcetoBase, would be a satisfactory
582 method for potential acetogenic community profiling in cases where the 16S rRNA gene can
583 be used as the marker of choice.

584 ***Resolution of acetogenic community structure: functional gene versus taxonomic***
585 ***marker***

586 The FTHFS gene is a functional gene marker of the acetogenic community. A prominent
587 genus in FTHFS-community *i.e.*, Peptococcaceae bacterium (Fig. 4B), was not observed in
588 16S-community (additional text, Fig. A2B). Further analysis of the Peptococcaceae
589 bacterium operational taxonomic unit (OTU) sequence showed that this OTU was 88.7%
590 similar to the species Peptococcaceae bacterium 1109. There are several possible reasons
591 why Peptococcaceae bacterium 1109 could not be detected in 16S-community, *e.g.* 1) it has
592 been reclassified as class Limnochordia, family DTU010 and genus 1109 according to recent
593 GTDB taxonomy (GTDB 2020b), 2) this species was not targeted by our 16S rRNA gene
594 primers (515F-805R). The genera H1, PeH15, *Proteiniphilum* and LNR_A2-18, which were
595 predominantly seen in 16S-community, were not observed in FTHFS-community. This was
596 because H1, PeH15 and *Proteiniphilum* belong to the phylum Bacteroidota and LNR_A2-18
597 belongs to the Cloacimonadota. As Bacteroidota do not include any known acetogen (Drake,
598 Gößner and Daniel 2008; Pierce *et al.* 2008; Müller and Frerichs 2013; Singh *et al.* 2019),
599 our FTHFS primers might be unable to target these genera. The genus LNR_A2-18 is not
600 included in AcetoBase because there is no information available for this genus apart from the
601 16S rRNA gene sequence.

602 *Marvinbryantia formatexigens* was represented in high RA in FTHFS-community during the
603 disturbance period in GR1 (Fig. 4C). This species is a known acetogen (Drake, Gößner and

604 Daniel 2008; Müller and Frerichs 2013; Singh *et al.* 2019) belonging to the family
605 Lachnospiraceae. However, neither *M. formatexigens* nor family Lachnospiraceae was
606 detected to have a significant presence in 16S-community during the disturbance period in
607 GR1 (Fig. A2, Supp. Fig. S8). To validate the coverage of bacterial community by our
608 FTHFS primers, the top phyla and classes from FTHFS-community and 16S-community
609 were compared. In the comparison at phylum level, 16S-community showed higher coverage
610 of Firmicutes than in FTHFS-community (Supp. Fig. S9A, S9B). This is reasonable, since
611 not all Firmicutes contain the FTHFS gene and were therefore targeted in 16S-community,
612 but FTHFS-community. At class level, FTHFS-community illustrated better coverage of class
613 Negativicutes compared with 16S-community (Supp. Fig. S9C, S9D). Since phylum
614 Cloacimonadota has been proposed as an indicator taxon pertaining to reactor disturbances
615 (Calusinska *et al.* 2018; Klang *et al.* 2019; Poirier *et al.* 2020), its correct profiling is very
616 important. Fluctuations (near-disappearance) in RA of the phylum Cloacimonadota and class
617 Cloacimonadia were observed in the control reactor profile of 16S-community (Supp. Fig.
618 S9B, S9D) but not that of FTHFS-community (Supp. Fig. S9A, S9C). Thus, comparative
619 analysis of FTHFS-community and 16S-community illustrated that our FTHFS gene-based
620 sequencing approach appears more accurate and reliable in targeting the correct coverage,
621 dynamics and classification of known and potential acetogens.

622 ***Acetogenic community dynamics in the biogas environment***

623 Since there is a lack of studies targeting acetogenic bacteria and examining their role in
624 biogas digester environments, a clear causal attribution for the microbial community changes
625 regarding process parameters is challenging. However, many studies have reported high
626 importance of the acetogenic community in biogas environments and the present study
627 contributed further insights regarding the acetogenic community structure in AD
628 environments. This study also clearly revealed the dynamics and changes in the structure of

629 this community with an increase and decrease in total VFA concentration. Among the major
630 taxa detected in FTHFS-community, the dynamics of the phylum Candidatus Cloacimonetes,
631 genus Peptococcaceae bacterium and *Marvinbryantia* are worth mentioning. Candidatus
632 Cloacimonetes was found to be highly reduced during the disturbance phase. It has
633 previously been reported to be present in high abundance in high-ammonia systems and is
634 suggested to have a specialist function (syntrophic propionate-oxidation) (Müller *et al.* 2016;
635 Poirier *et al.* 2020) and to be a potential acetogenic candidate (Pelletier *et al.* 2008; Juste-
636 Poinapen *et al.* 2015; Lucas *et al.* 2015; Nobu *et al.* 2015; Ahlert *et al.* 2016; Stolze *et al.*
637 2018, 2016; Calusinska *et al.* 2018; Nazina *et al.* 2018; Braz *et al.* 2019; Klang *et al.* 2019).
638 In line with the results in the present study, a decrease abundance in the phylum
639 Cloacimonetes in association with process disturbance has been seen previously (Klang *et al.*
640 2019). The role of the genus Peptococcaceae bacterium or the family Peptococcaceae has not
641 yet been well studied, but several studies suggest a role as an acetogen/syntrophic bacterium
642 in natural and methanogenic environments (Müller *et al.* 2010, 2016; Liu and Conrad 2011;
643 Kato and Yumoto 2015; Tveit *et al.* 2015; Liu *et al.* 2016). Peptococcaceae bacterium 1109 is
644 suggested to be a syntrophic acetate oxidising bacterium (Buettner *et al.* 2019). Therefore the
645 increased RA of this species during the VFA increase in the present study could potentially
646 be associated with high levels of acetate in the disturbance phase, which are suggested to be
647 of importance for other known syntrophic acetate-oxidising bacteria (Westerholm, Moestedt
648 and Schnürer 2016). *Marvinbryantia formatexigens*, which showed increased RA during the
649 period of VFA decrease, is a well-known acetogen in the gut environment (Wolin *et al.* 2003;
650 Rey *et al.* 2010), but its role in biogas environments is not well studied. However, the species
651 has cellulolytic and saccharolytic activity and produces acetate as a sole or main product from
652 its metabolism (Wolin *et al.* 2003). In summary, in this study we successfully revealed the

653 temporal dynamics of the acetogenic community and changes in the structure of this
654 community structure due to perturbation.

655 **CONCLUSIONS**

656 This study compared temporal changes in the acetogenic community in biogas reactors under
657 the influence of induced disturbance, using three methods widely applied for microbial
658 analysis. Despite differences and limitations of the 16S rRNA gene AmpSeq, T-RFLP and
659 AmpSeq of FTHFS gene methods, all were able to track the temporal dynamics of the
660 microbial community and coherence was found in community profiles at higher taxonomic
661 levels inferred by individual methods. However, T-RFLP and AmpSeq of FTHFS gene were
662 found to be more descriptive and reliable in tracking the dynamics of the acetogenic
663 community. Overall, high-throughput FTHFS gene sequencing of barcoded samples and
664 unsupervised analysis with AcetoScan was found to be a more promising method for
665 monitoring acetogenic community dynamics in biogas reactors than 16S rRNA gene
666 sequencing targeting the whole bacterial community and laborious/limited T-RFLP
667 community profiling. If the recent taxonomic changes and differences between Arb-
668 Silva/GTDB and AcetoBase/NCBI taxonomy are masked, AmpSeq of FTHFS gene may
669 accurately reveal the microbial profile and dynamics of the acetogenic community in
670 anaerobic digesters and in various natural environments (soil, marine, lake sediments, hot
671 springs *etc.*) and gut/oral (insects, animals, human) environments.

672

673 **FUTURE PERSPECTIVES**

674 The FTHFS gene has been used for more than three decades to identify/track the dynamics of
675 potential acetogenic candidates. In this study, we developed an alternative approach for the

676 same purpose, using 16S rRNA gene sequences from FTHFS gene-harboursing bacteria. This
677 approach can have wide application in tracking the microbial population when complemented
678 with indirect analysis of potential acetogenic candidates. Further development and
679 improvement of RibocetoBase with more acetogen-specific 16S rRNA gene sequences
680 and amending the NCBI taxonomy with GTDB taxonomy will further assist in
681 identification of FTHFS gene-harboursing candidates with acetogenic potential. Use of
682 FTHFS gene AmpSeq in screening diverse environments could also provide a deeper
683 understanding of acetogenic community structure and its temporal dynamics in natural or
684 constructed environments.

685

686 **SUPPLEMENTARY DATA**

687 Supplementary data are available online.

688 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

689 The raw sequence data from the multiplexed Illumina MiSeq sequencing for the FTHFS and
690 16S rRNA gene have been submitted to NCBI, with BioProject accession number
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