Chlorobaculum tepidum Outer Membrane Vesicles May Transport Biogenic Elemental Sulfur.

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Keywords: Chlorobiaceae, *Chlorobaculum tepidum*, sulfur globules, outer membrane vesicles, proteomics, Raman spectroscopy, NanoIR spectroscopy

ABSTRACT

Outer membrane-derived vesicles (OMVs) have been studied in different phyla of Gram-negative bacteria, most extensively in the Pseudomonadota, where they have been shown to participate in diverse biological and environmental processes. To date, the production of OMVs has not been reported in the Chlorobiaceae within the phylum Chlorobiota. *Chlorobaculum. tepidum* is the model organism for the Chlorobiaceae that synthesizes and consumes insoluble extracellular sulfur (S(0)) globules by an unknown mechanism. Here, we report evidence implicating outer membrane vesicles in biogenic S(0) globule synthesis. We demonstrate that *Cba. tepidum* secretes OMVs in the extracellular milieu, and that OMV concentration and size vary with growth conditions, particularly sulfide concentration. A core of 31 proteins involved in diverse biological processes such as cell wall biogenesis, inorganic ion transport and metabolism were found to be shared between OMVs, extracellular S(0) globules and *Cba. tepidum* intact cells. Multiple analytical methods indicated that OMVs contain S(0) and that OMVs and biogenic S(0) globules share protein and polysaccharide signatures, including lipooligosaccharides. Together these lines of evidence indicate that *Cba. tepidum*'s OMVs are one component of sulfur transport between cells and extracellular sulfur globules.

IMPORTANCE

All living cells must exchange material with their environment while maintaining cellular integrity. This is a particular challenge for materials that are not water soluble, yet many bacteria utilize insoluble materials for energy conservation and as nutrients for growth. Here we show that *Cba. tepidum* makes outer membrane vesicles and that these vesicles are likely involved in the exchange of material with extracellular elemental sulfur globules formed and consumed by *Cba. tepidum* as part of its energy metabolism based on oxidizing reduced sulfur compounds like hydrogen sulfide. These data expand our basic understanding of *Cba. tepidum*'s metabolism. As elemental sulfur is an industrial by-product with a limited number of uses, the information here may help enable the use of additional sulfur compounds by *Cba. tepidum* to drive the synthesis of biomass and/or specialty biochemicals from waste elemental sulfur by this autotrophic bacterium.

INTRODUCTION

Many microbes interact with solids as part of their energy metabolism or to obtain elements required for growth. In either case, insoluble materials must pass through the cell envelope while maintaining cellular envelope integrity. Microbe-mineral interactions often occur in the context of redox reactions for energy metabolism. Examples include the production of extracellular sulfur globules (S(0)) by sulfide oxidation and their further oxidation to sulfate by phototrophic bacteria (1) or the utilization of Fe- and Mn-oxides as terminal electron acceptors (2, 3). These microbe-mineral interactions drive many biogeochemical cycles and the bioremediation of organic and inorganic pollutants (4). In Gram-negative bacteria, outer membrane vesicles (OMVs) are one mechanism used to interact with surfaces for multiple functional outcomes (5). For example, *Acinetobacter baumannii* OMVs enriched in TonB-dependent transporters enabled the acquisition of insoluble nutrients such as iron (6). Recently, OMVs containing a truncated form of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) were implicated as a key mechanism of *Geobacter sulfurreducens*' elimination of uranium particles (7). Although OMVs have been intensively studied in heterotrophic Pseudomonadota, less is known about the production, composition, and physiological role of OMVs outside of this phylum.

OMVs are small (20-300 nm) spherical structures produced by Gram-negative bacteria via OM vesiculation (21). OMVs contain phospholipids, LPS or lipooligosaccharides (LOS), and outer membrane proteins (OMPs). OMVs also contain cargo that may include nucleic acids (DNA and RNA), periplasmic components, housekeeping proteins, and enzymes (22–24). OMVs were once regarded as cell debris or microscopy artifacts. Nowadays, OMVs have been shown to participate in diverse biological processes, such as transferring and delivering their components to the extracellular environment (25) and host-microbe interactions (26).

Chlorobaculum tepidum (Cba. tepidum) is an anaerobic photoautotrophic Gram-negative bacterium, but little is known about the composition and metabolism of the outer membrane

(OM) in this organism or the Chlorobiaceae more broadly. *Cba. tepidum* is a model organism of
the Green Sulfur Bacteria (GSB) due to rapid growth in culture (8), a sequenced and annotated
genome (9), and genetic tools (10–12). *Cba. tepidum* utilizes a variety of inorganic sulfur
compounds as electron donors to fix CO_2 through the reverse TCA cycle (13, 14). *Cba. tepidum*
both forms and consumes extracellular S(0) globules, but the details of how this occurs are
unclear (1). However, the enzymes catalyzing S(0) production and consumption are believed to
reside in the periplasm between the OM and cell membrane (15, 16). As S(0) is extracellular,
there must be a transport mechanism for S(0) to cross the outer membrane during its production
and consumption. Time-lapse microscopy of *Cba. tepidum* documents S(0) globules appearing in
cultures with no visible connection to cells and increasing in size during growth on sulfide. S(0)
globules produced by the wild type *Cba. tepidum* strain are roughly spherical and 1-2 µm in
diameter (17, 20), while those produced by a mutant strain that cannot oxidize S(0) are larger, up
to ~8 µm in diameter (1). *Cba. tepidum* cells are typically ~0.5 µm wide by 1-2 µm long (1, 17,
20).
94
Cba. tepidum grows well with elemental sulfur that it has synthesized, i.e. biogenic S(0)
globules, as a sole electron donor and a sub-population of cells is tightly attached to S(0) during
its utilization (1). *Cba. tepidum* S(0) globules have a proteome (1, 19) that includes proteins
CT1320.1 and CT1305, OM proteins only found in the Chlorobiaceae and *Geobacter* spp., which
also rely on interactions with insoluble minerals for energy metabolism (18). Biogenic S(0)
globule utilization cannot be catalyzed by small metabolites or secreted soluble proteins as
separating *Cba. tepidum* cells from biogenic S(0) with dialysis membranes ranging from 50 to
100 kDa prevented growth. Thus, relatively large proteins or complexes are required for biogenic
S(0) utilization (1). Separately, time-lapse phase contrast microscopy showed that while some
cells directly contact biogenic S(0), individual S(0) globules can be formed and consumed in
cultures without direct contact by cells (17). Growth rates of cells that were not attached to S(0)
globules were the same as those attached to S(0). Thus, material is released that allows cells at a
distance from S(0) globules to grow as well as those that are attached. Spectroscopic
characterization of *Cba. tepidum* S(0) globules indicated the presence of proteins and
polysaccharides as an organic coating that was proposed to slow the conversion of amorphous
biogenic S(0) to crystalline sulfur (20). *Cba. tepidum* biogenic S(0) globules stained with the
membrane specific dye FM 1-43FX (20), suggesting that they contain lipids. Collectively, these
observations from prior experiments suggest that *Cba. tepidum* S(0) globule formation and
consumption involves components that contain outer membrane proteins, polysaccharides, lipids,
in complexes larger than 100 kDa, but smaller than the resolution limits of phase-contrast
microscopy. OMVs are a good candidate for these components.
116
Microbial production of extracellular S(0) associated with organic materials is well known, but
mechanistic details underlying its formation are scarce (1, 17, 20, 27–29). S(0) transport by
cytoplasmic membrane vesicles has been observed in Archaea, e.g. Gorlas *et al.* (30) reported

that *Thermococcus* species produced vesicles containing S(0) solely when S(0) was added to the

growth medium. They hypothesized this was to remove excess S(0) not used for growth,

preventing the accumulation of toxic levels in the cytoplasm. Alternatively, the formation of

organic associated amorphous S(0) has been proposed to be a precipitation process during sulfide

oxidation in the presence of organics that can occur in spent medium in the absence of cells; a

process called organomineralization (27, 28, 31, 32).

We hypothesize that *Cba. tepidum* produces OMVs that participate in S(0) transport between

cells and extracellular S(0) globules. If the hypothesis is correct, then we predict proteomic

analysis of OMV cargo should detect previously identified S(0) globule proteins (CT1305 and

CT1320.1) and that there should be substantial overlap between OMV and S(0) globule

proteomes. We would also expect lipid A in the form of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) or

lipooligosaccharide (LOS) should be present in both OMVs and S(0) globules. Finally, we would

also expect that OMV abundance will be higher when S(0) is actively being produced or

consumed by *Cba. tepidum*. Here, we test these predictions through a combination of OMV

purification, proteomic and LPS analysis of both OMVs and S(0) globules, and OMV

quantification under different growth conditions. Raman spectroscopy was used to investigate

the chemical signatures of OMVs and S(0). The data are consistent with a model where OMVs

participate in extracellular S(0) globule formation characteristic of the Chlorobiota. Furthermore,

the results reported here provide significant new information on OM structure and function

outside the Pseudomonadota. In the following sections, we use the term 'particle' to describe

materials that were analyzed to determine if they were OMVs or not. We only use the term OMV

after presenting data that their size and molecular composition of *Cba. tepidum* extracellular

particles is consistent with them indeed being OMVs.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

***Cba. tepidum* secretes extracellular particles during growth.**

While OMV secretion is considered a universal process among Gram-negative bacterial species

(33, 34), most observations to date are from heterotrophic members of the phylum

Pseudomonadota, formerly Proteobacteria (35–37). *Cba. tepidum* is a member of the phylum

Chlorobiota, which is sister to the phylum Bacteroidota and distantly related to the

Pseudomonadota. Therefore, we examined *Cba. tepidum* cultures for extracellular particles by

microfluidic resistive pulse sensing (MRPS) analysis of 0.2 μm culture filtrates after 8 h (lag

phase), 14 h (early-exponential phase), and 24 h (late-exponential phase) of growth. Briefly,

MRPS detects and measures particles based on changes in electrical resistance as particles pass

through a microfluidic pore that is charged held at a set voltage. The size range of particles

detectable in these experiments was from ~40 nm to 400 nm. The number of particles detected

was highest during the early-exponential growth phase (14 h of growth, Fig. 1A) and these

particles contained protein (Fig. 1B). Protein and particle concentrations displayed the same

pattern across growth phases. We chose early-exponential phase samples to produce large

amounts of particles for more detailed analysis because of the larger particle concentration and to
minimize capturing debris deriving from cell death or nutrient limitation during later growth
stages (41–43). Direct observation of *Cba. tepidum* cells in 14 h culture samples by TEM found
vesicles at the outer membrane (Fig. 2A, B) suggesting that *Cba. tepidum* actively produces
particles via OM blebbing. Particles purified from the early-exponential imaged by negative stain
TEM were spherical and displayed a cavity surrounded by a stained membrane (Fig. 2C, D).
These data demonstrate particle production by *Cba. tepidum* shares similarities with OMV
production: growth phase-dependence, particles appear to be produced by OM blebbing, and
TEM images resembling a deflated ball.

Particles produced by *Cba. tepidum* are the same size as OMVs and contain
lipooligosaccharides.
Cba. tepidum can grow on sulfide, thiosulfate, or biogenic S(0) as electron donors. Therefore, we
examined whether particles differed when they were purified (Fig. S1) from cultures grown on
single electron donors or the combination of sulfide and thiosulfate in Pf-7, the standard growth
condition (1, 8). *Cba. tepidum* growth rate was not significantly different between the growth
conditions (data not shown). Particles were characterized both by transmission electron
microscopy (TEM) and MRPS. TEM imaging requires sample concentration by
ultracentrifugation and chemical treatment prior to imaging, while MRPS provides information
on particle size and concentration after 0.2 µm filtration of the supernatant as the sole sample
preparation step (Fig. S1B). Therefore, we utilized MRPS to compare the concentration and size
of particles across growth conditions, while TEM image analysis was used to check particle
morphology and size. Mature S(0) globules produced by *Cba. tepidum* are larger than 0.2 µm
and should not be present in these samples (1, 17). The particle size distributions by TEM (10-
105 nm) and MRPS (40-125 nm) overlapped (Fig. S2), with the difference likely being the size
limit of detection for the MRPS cartridge being ~40 nm. Particles produced when thiosulfate was
the sole electron donor were slightly larger by MRPS than particles released under other
conditions, but the size distribution of *Cba. tepidum* particles purified from all conditions
overlapped and is consistent with published values for OMVs (Fig. 3A). Regardless of the
electron donor, the counted particles contained protein, with a linear relationship between
particle and protein concentrations (Fig. 3B), suggesting that particles have a constant
concentration of protein per unit of particle volume
191
Lipopolysaccharide (LPS), the major component of the outer leaflet of the OM, plays a crucial
role in the stability and permeability of the OM and should be present in *Cba. tepidum* particles
if they are OMVs. Therefore, we tested whether particles and biogenic S(0) produced by *Cba.*
tepidum contain LPS. The *Cba. tepidum* genome does contain genes for lipid A biosynthesis
(data not shown), but the structure of the outer membrane lipids has not been established to our
knowledge. Tricine SDS-PAGE was used to visualize material produced by an LPS purification
protocol: material from *Cba. tepidum* whole cells or purified particles (Fig. S1A) resolved in a
single low molecular weight band (Fig. 3C) while material purified from biogenic S(0) resolved

into two bands (Fig. 3D), with the lower molecular weight band migrating identically to that
from cells and particles. The *E. coli* purified LPS standard produced a laddered pattern
characteristic of an O antigen (Fig. 3C). Therefore, we conclude that *Cba. tepidum* makes
lipooligosaccharide (LOS), composed of lipid A and an inner core oligosaccharide (band 1).
Bacteroides thetaiotamicron, a member of the phylum Bacteroidota more closely related to *Cba.*
tepidum than *E. coli*, also synthesizes LOS (44). Similarly, Meißner *et al.* (45) showed that
purified OM lipid from *Chlorobium vibrioforme* had no O antigen repeating units, i.e. it is LOS.
The identity of band 2 observed in biogenic S(0) is unclear, but the staining method used is
specific for sugars, e.g. glycolipids like those in LPS and LOS. These samples did not contain
any material that stained with SYPRO Ruby (data not shown), indicating that the LPS
preparations were protein-free.
211
The identity of the material in the LPS preparations was further established by mass
spectrometry and an HPLC assay for the inner core sugar 2-ketodeoxy-octulosonic acid (KDO).
Masses consistent with lipid A were observed in electrospray ionization Fourier transform MS
after mild acid hydrolysis of LOS isolated from whole cells, OMVs, and biogenic S(0). Different
forms of lipid A were detected in each sample. The hepta-acyl form was found in WC, HS-OMV,
and S(0) (*m/z* 1851, 1894, 1925, 1926, 1912), while the penta-acyl form was found only in Pf7-
OMV (*m/z* 1659, 1705, 1795). The observed diversity of lipid A forms in *Cba. tepidum* suggests
some differences in their acyl chain length and number depending on growth condition, which
may in turn affect or be a result of OMV production (46–48). KDO was detected in all samples
tested, with the highest level found in whole cells (Fig. 2E). No KDO was detected in any mock
samples: PBS and chemical sulfur purchased from Sigma-Aldrich using the same reagents and
buffers for preparing the samples. Taken together with the data above on particle size, TEM
appearance, and protein content, the detection of glycolipid staining, Lipid A, and KDO in
particles produced by *Cba. tepidum* confirms that these are indeed OMVs and this term will be
used hereafter. Detection of these signatures in biogenic S(0) supports a hypothesis where OMVs
may be one route of transfer of S(0) to extracellular S(0) globules, which is consistent with prior
data on the composition of *Cba. tepidum* S(0) globules (1, 19, 20).
229
Proteome analysis of *Cba. tepidum* OMVs versus whole cells and biogenic Sulfur
Previously, we showed that *Cba. tepidum* S(0) globules contained the proteins CT1305 and
CT1320.1 (1), which are only shared with *Geobacter* spp. that also interact with insoluble phases
for energy metabolism. Deeper analysis of these extracts by shotgun proteomics indicated that
biogenic S(0) contained a significant proteome of at least 96 proteins (Supplemental Table S1),
which is lower than the 696 S(0)-associated proteins recently identified by Lyratzakis *et al.* (19).
Here, we generated new shotgun proteomic datasets for *Cba. tepidum* OMVs, biogenic S(0), and
whole cells of *Cba. tepidum* to control for S(0)-attached cells that are difficult to separate from
biogenic S(0) (1). The whole cell samples were diluted to an equal concentration of
bacteriochlorophyll (Bchl) *c* observed in biogenic S(0). This assumes that Bchl *c* in biogenic

S(0) is from adherent cells and was done to normalize the total amount of protein in the whole
cell samples to that of adhered cells in biogenic S(0). This is needed for label-free quantification
comparisons between samples. A total of 1,447 unique proteins were identified across all
samples (Fig. 4A), with 757 of these detected in S(0) globules, somewhat more than the number
observed by Lyratzakis *et al.* (19). OMVs from thiosulfate-only cultures only contained two
proteins, CT0068 and CT2144, which are both outer membrane beta-barrel proteins, suggesting
that electron donors might play a key role in shaping the cargo carried by OMVs. For example,
Liu *et al.* (49) showed that differences in redox potential might impact the packaging of specific
molecules (lipids, enzymes, proteins, toxins) into OMVs. Based on the limited proteome in
thiosulfate-OMVs, this condition was excluded from further comparative analysis.
250
OMV proteomes from cultures grown on sulfide (HS-OMVs), sulfide + thiosulfate (PF7-OMVs),
purified biogenic S(0) globules, and diluted whole-cells shared 31 proteins detected in at least
two independent samples for each group (Table 1), which we considered to be the OMV core
proteome. This is a more conservative estimate than the Venn diagram (Fig. 4A), which only
required detection of a protein in one of the three independent samples within a group. The
functional annotations of the 31 proteins include porin activity, electron transfer activity, and
trafficking of unfolded proteins. Furthermore, two periplasmic proteins, SurA (CT2264) and
DegP (CT1447), identified in the initial S(0) globule proteome (Supplemental Table S1), were
also found in HS-OMVs. Based on experimental evidence (50) and a computational model (51),
SurA is believed to be involved in the trafficking of unfolded outer membrane proteins, while
DegP has protease activity and is involved in the degradation of misfolded proteins, preventing
the accumulation of waste in the periplasm. CT1305, one of two poorly characterized proteins
shared with *Geobacter* spp. and detected in the initial S(0) proteome (Supplemental Table S1),
was detected in PF7-OMVs, S(0) globules, and whole cells, but not HS-OMVs, so it was not
included in the OMV core. The other, CT1320.1, was not detected in any of the samples.
266
We assessed the relationship between protein composition and sample characteristics using
Principal Components Analysis (PCA, Fig. 4B) of log2 transformed label-free quantification
abundance data. Our analysis showed that the first two components accounted for a high
proportion of the total variation (87.9%) between samples, with those of each group clustering
together. The OMV and S(0) samples were well separated from whole cells on the PC1 axis
(80.6% of variation). The OMV and S(0) samples also separated along the PC2 axis (7.3% of
variation), indicating that they are distinct from one another. Proteins were grouped by their
predicted subcellular localization and the cumulative loadings for these groups (Fig. 4B, blue
dashed arrows) indicate that cytoplasmic proteins are responsible for separation of the whole cell
samples from the others. The loadings for predicted outer membrane, periplasmic and
extracellular proteins are very similar and aligned along the PC2 axis, suggesting that they
strongly contribute to separation of samples in this dimension.
279

The effect of electron donors on OMV abundance.

The relationship between the proteomes of OMV and biogenic S(0) prompted us to examine whether sulfide concentration modulated OMV production. We hypothesized that increasing sulfide concentrations will cause *Cba. tepidum* to release more vesicles to prevent accumulation of S(0) produced by sulfide oxidation, thus playing a key role in sulfur detoxification as proposed for Archaea (30). The presence of the SurA and DegP may indicate that S(0) induces unfolded protein stress as another signal for OMV production. *Cba. tepidum* was grown on a range of sulfide concentrations (2-7 mM), and OMVs from each sulfide concentration were analyzed by MRPS. The data showed that, as sulfide concentrations are increased, particle concentration increases versus 2 mM sulfide (Fig. 5A) by 2.8-fold at 4 mM sulfide and ~10.7-fold at 5 mM, with no further significant increase at 7 mM. This result suggests that growing *Cba. tepidum* at 5 mM sulfide produced the maximum number of particles. MRPS also provides size information and documented an increase in median particle diameter from 61 nm at 2 mM sulfide to 65-67 nm at 4-5 mM while those from 7 mM cultures were 88 nm in diameter. OMV yields can be expressed in different terms, such as lipid concentration, amount of protein, total dry weight harvested, or counts by TEM, making the comparison of OMV yield using all these methods simultaneously difficult because the measurements also encompass non-vesicular materials (52, 53). TEM comparison of vesicles from 4 mM and 7 mM cultures independently confirmed the increase in OMV concentration in the 7 mM sulfide OMVs (Fig. 5 C, D). OMVs from 7 mM sulfide cultures were larger in the TEM images than those from 4 mM sulfide, but this was not significant (p = 0.12, t-test, 1-tailed, homoscedastic, n = 13 particles each). We feel the MRPS data strongly supports an increase in OMV size with increased sulfide due to the larger number of particles measured and a consistent increase of larger sizes at all sulfide concentrations in this experiment (Fig. 5B, points in the 80-110 nm range). The peak position for 7 mM may be influenced by clumping indicated by TEM (Fig. 7D), but clumping could also be a TEM sample preparation artefact. Finally, we directly compared OMVs from these samples at higher magnifications (Fig. S3) and are confident that the OMVs have the same overall structure across all samples. Collectively, these data confirm that OMV numbers and sizes vary with increased sulfide concentrations.

Molecular Composition of S(0) globules and OMVs.

The molecular composition of S(0) globules or OMVs was probed with Raman microscopy and atomic force microscopy coupled with infrared (AFM-IR) spectroscopy. Raman microscopy is a non-destructive method that gives a linear correlation of compound concentration to signal strength (31). Raman microscopic analysis of biogenic S(0) and HS-OMV samples deposited on aluminum revealed signals at 425-550 cm^{-1} (S-S, Sulfur), 580-680 cm^{-1} (C=S, thiocarbonyl), 1050-1130 cm^{-1} (carbohydrate), 1220-1290 cm^{-1} (amide III), and 1660-1680 cm^{-1} (amide I) (Fig. 6A). Different intensities of characteristic spectral regions showed that Sulfur, polysaccharides, and protein concentration were higher in S(0) globules than in HS-OMVs. S(0) may be added to a growing S(0) globule by an alternative route, possibly by excreted polysulfides as suggested by

Marnocha *et al.* (17). Porin proteins (e.g. OmpA and OmpH) detected in *Cba. tepidum* OMVs
may provide channels through which anionic polysulfide can diffuse and increase S(0)
concentration. Additional organic materials may also be accumulating in S(0) globules by
organomineralization processes (32).

AFM-IR spectra were collected for individual S(0) globules and OMVs. These show
characteristic bands for proteins (1400-1650 cm^{-1}), polysaccharides (1150-1200 cm^{-1}), and
sulfoxide (1030-1060 cm^{-1}) (Fig. 6b). Sulfur is an essential component of proteins; thus,
sulfoxide found in these samples could originate from sulfur-containing amino acids such as
methionine, cysteine, and homocysteine. However, Steudel *et al.* (54) collated multiple lines of
evidence to indicate that bacterial S(0) globules contain long-chain polythionates, which may
also be the source of this signature. The bands around 1650 and 1460 cm^{-1} correspond to amide I
and II vibrations of the peptide backbone, respectively. The presence of polysaccharides and
proteins is confirmed by the presence of the aliphatic group C=O bonds (around 1660 cm^{-1}) (55),
the weak peak around 1330-1430 cm^{-1} characteristic for a hydroxyl group, and a weak C-H peak
at 1370-1390 cm^{-1}. The pyranose band was observed in the regions around 1150 and 1192 cm^{-1}.
Though there are advantages to the usage of AFM-IR for single S(0) and OMVs characterization,
smaller vesicles or S(0) (15-50 nm) may not provide a strong IR signal for a consistent
characterization. Furthermore, the range of IR wavelengths available on the AFM IR instrument
was 950-1900 cm^{-1}, which would miss the strongest absorbance peaks for S-S bonds that occur
below 550 cm^{-1}. The Raman instrument was capable of probing this region and detected the
expected S-S scattering, increasing confidence in the interpretation of these data.

OMVs from high sulfide cultures contain S(0).
While Raman and IR spectroscopy analyses were consistent with elemental sulfur being a
component of HS-OMVs, the most basic question is whether purified OMVs contain elemental
sulfur in significant amounts. Thus, HPLC of hexane extracts was used to quantify sulfur found
in HS-OMVs. HPLC analysis confirmed the presence of elemental sulfur in HS-OMV (Fig. 6C)
that were harvested from 20 mL cultures and extracted with 1 mL of hexanes. S(0) in the HS-
OMV fraction was 94 $\pm$ 6 µM after accounting for the centrifugal concentration of the OMV
sample before extraction.
349
We calculated the maximum possible [S(0)] in the OMV fraction of a *Cba. tepidum* culture with
7 mM sulfide as follows. The particle concentration of purified OMVs at the time of sampling
(14 hrs) was 1.29 x 10^{12} particles/mL and the mean OMV diameter was 88 nm. The volume per
OMV, assuming they are spherical, is 3.82 x 10^{-16} mL. The total OMV volume per mL of culture
is then 4.92 x 10^{-4} mL. Different density values have been reported for biogenic S(0), 1.22 g cm^{-3}
(56), 1.31 g cm^{-3} (57) or 2.08 g cm^{-3} (58). Based on these values, the predicted [S(0)] if OMVs
were composed of solely of biogenic S(0) ranged from 18.8-32.0 mM, which is far more sulfide
than was provided to the culture. The observed S(0) concentration in OMVs is ~1-2% of the 7
mM sulfide provided to the culture, which is consistent with the hypothesis that OMVs are a

transient pool of S(0) with the presence of a complex proteome and LPS in these samples
confirming that S(0) is not the only cargo.
361
Conclusions
The data above clearly indicate that *Cba. tepidum*, and by extension the Chlorobiaceae,
synthesize LOS, secrete OMVs, and that OMVs likely contribute to material exchange between
cells and S(0) globules during their production and consumption. In addition, the data presented
here partially support our hypotheses that previously identified S(0) globule proteins would be
found in OMVs and that there should be substantial overlap between OMV and S(0) globule
proteomes. While CT1305 was found in OMVs, CT1320.1 was absent; such differences in OMV
protein cargo might be related to the bacterial growth stage at which OMVs were isolated or
difference in the proteomic sample preparation methods used. Several other pieces of evidence
agree with our hypotheses and indicate the roles of OMVs in sulfur metabolism: (i) OMVs and
S(0) globules share a substantial number of proteins; (ii) OMV abundance is higher when S(0) is
produced and consumed by *Cba. tepidum*; and (iii) OMVs and S(0) share a significant number of
chemical constituents, including elemental sulfur as documented by multiple independent
methods.
376
Taking the observations made here and by others, we propose a mechanism where *Cba. tepidum*
oxidizing sulfide produces OMVs to release accumulating S(0) and unfolded proteins from the
periplasmic space (Fig. 7). Following the accumulation of these cargos, the OM can bulge
outwards and pinch off as vesicles. We hypothesize that porins in the core OMV proteome (e.g.
e.g. OmpA/CT1353 or OmpH/CT0254) in the growing S(0) globules may also allow for
additional S(0) to accumulate perhaps by diffusion of polysulfides from cells. Clearly, additional
mechanisms of transport and/or globule maturation occur, otherwise the chemical and proteome
compositions of OMVs and S(0) globules would be nearly identical. Previous measurements of
Cba. tepidum S(0) globule elemental composition indicate that they are > 99% S (1). A
maturation process may explain why purified S(0) globules contain higher relative amounts of S,
polysaccharides, and amides than OMVs based on the IR and Raman spectroscopy data
presented above. A simple possibility could be the exclusion or expulsion of water and
hydrophilic OMV cargos if multiple S(0) payloads condense by hydrophobic attraction.
Experiments to observe OMV fusion and S(0) globule maturation in over time from purified
OMVs and determining if S(0)-loaded OMVs can be used for growth by *Cba. tepidum* are
obvious next steps to further dissect this process.
393
MATERIALS AND METHODS
Bacterial strain and growth conditions
Cba. tepidum strain WT2321 was used in all cultures and grown in Pfennig's (Pf-7) medium, as
previously described by (59) with an anaerobic headspace composed of 5% CO_2 and 95% N_2
passed through a heated copper scrubber. *Cba. tepidum* cultures used for OMVs isolation were

incubated at 47°C with light provided by incandescent bulbs at an intensity of 20 μmol photons
m^{-2} s^{-1} measured with a light meter equipped with a quantum PAR sensor (LI-COR, Lincoln,
NE). *Cba. tepidum* liquid cultures were grown to different growth phases as noted in figure
legends. Electron donors (sulfide or thiosulfate) were added to individual bottles from
concentrated, anoxic stock solutions for biogenic S(0), sulfide and thiosulfate-only cultures.
Other growth conditions, such as light intensity and temperature, remained unchanged.
405
Extracellular particle isolation and purification
Extracellular particles were isolated and purified by differential centrifugation (53). One liter of
Cba. tepidum culture was centrifuged at 10,000 x *g* for 10 min at 4°C in a JA-14 rotor (Beckman
Coulter), and the supernatant was centrifuged again at 12,000 x *g* to remove cells and large
debris. The supernatant was filtered through a 0.22-μm pore-size polyvinylidene difluoride
(PVDF) filter membrane (Millipore, USA). Particles from the filtrate were concentrated by
ultracentrifugation at 100,000 x *g* for 2 h at 4°C using an SW32Ti rotor in an Optima LE-80K
centrifuge (Beckman Coulter). The pellets from different centrifuge tubes were pooled and
resuspended in 1 mL of 1X PBS and pelleted again by ultracentrifugation at 165,700 x *g* for 2 h
at 4°C in a TLA-55 rotor (Beckman Coulter). The pellet was resuspended in 500 μL of 1X PBS
and stored at -20°C until use. The total protein concentration of purified OMVs was determined
using the fluorometric Qubit protein assay (ThermoFisher Scientific) according to the
manufacturer's guidelines.
419
Particle characterization by MRPS
Particle samples for quantification from cultures were prepared by centrifugation through a 0.2
μm filter device at 16,000 x *g* for 2 minutes in an Eppendorf 5418 centrifuge. The flow through
was used diluted 100-fold with 0.02 μm filtered 1X PBS with 0.1% w/v BSA before analysis.
MRPS was performed using an nCS1 instrument (Spectradyne, Torrance, CA, USA) equipped
with disposable polydimethylsiloxane cartridges (mold ID 103S and box number 221118). The
running buffer was 0.2 μm filtered 1X PBS with 1% (v/v) Tween-20. Diluted OMV samples (7
μL) were loaded, and the particle detection threshold was set after three 10-s acquisitions. Data
was collected until the error associated with the concentration measurement was < 3%. The
collected data were analyzed with nCS1 Data Analyzer software (Spectradyne). The particle
distribution of the dilution buffer was also measured and subtracted from OMV sample data to
produce the OMV size and frequency distributions shown. Examples of raw nCS1 particle count
data are provided in supplemental materials (Fig. S4).
433
Electron microscopic imaging of purified particles
The particle suspension from *Cba. tepidum* was negatively stained with aqueous 2% (w/v) uranyl
acetate. Briefly, 400-mesh carbon-coated copper grids (Electron Microscopy Sciences) were
glow discharged using a PELCO easiGlow™ glow discharge system (Ted Pella) and then floated
on a drop of the vesicle suspension for several seconds. The grids were washed with four drops

of water and then negatively stained with aqueous 2% uranyl acetate. Samples were examined in
the bioimaging core facility at the University of Delaware using a Zeiss Libra 120 TEM
equipped with a Gatan Ultrascan1000 CCD (Fig. 2) or a Thermo Scientific Talos L120C TEM
equipped with a Thermo Scientific Ceta-M camera (Fig. 5). For each analysis, at least 15 fields
were imaged. To examine particles attached to cells, *Cba. tepidum* culture fixed with 0.4%
formaldehyde was centrifuged at 10,000 x *g* for 5 minutes, the supernatant was removed, and the
pellet was processed for TEM imaging as described above. Particle size was determined by
analysis with ImageJ software (v1.54g). ImageJ was also used to select and scale individual
regions of interest from different experiments to the same magnification to compare particle
structure across experiments (Fig. S3).
449
LPS purification and analysis
LPS was extracted from a suspension of 4×10^{10} particles mL^{-1} by a previously described method
(60). LPS was separated by SDS-PAGE using 16% Tricine protein gels (1.0 mm, 14 wells,
BioRad) and Tricine SDS running buffer with LPS from *E. coli* O55:B5 as a standard
(InvivoGen). The gel was run at 125 V for 120 min at room temperature and stained with Pro-Q
Emerald 300 (Thermo Fisher) per the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, the gel was oxidized
with periodic acid and then washed with 3% glacial acetic to remove residual periodate. The gel
was then incubated in 25-fold diluted Pro-Q Emerald 300 staining solution. Gel images were
collected on a BioRad ChemiDoc system using Image Lab software version 5.0. Images were
automatically contrast adjusted by the software and exported as a TIFF file to produce the figures
here.
461
Mass spectrometry of lipid A
Mild acid hydrolysis was used to separate lipid A from LPS/LOS by resuspending 0.6 mg of
lyophilized purified LPS in 1 mL sodium acetate (10 mM, pH = 4.5) and 1% w/v sodium
dodecyl sulfate (SDS). The suspension was boiled (100 ºC, 1h) and then lyophilized. Lyophilized
material was washed once with 1 mL of ice-cold acidified ethanol, followed by three washes
with ice-cold 95% ethanol to remove SDS from the solid material collected by centrifugation
(3,500 x *g*; 4 ºC; 5 min). The final lipid A samples were lyophilized before analysis by mass
spectrometry. Samples were reconstituted in 10 uL methanol, then diluted into 5:4:1
chloroform:methanol:water. Lipid A analysis was performed on an UltiMate 3000 UPLC system
coupled with an Orbitrap Q-Exactive (Thermo Fisher Scientific) mass spectrometer. A 5 μL
sample was injected by syringe at a flow rate of 0.2 mL/min, with the column temperature set at
40 °C. Samples were separated in isocratic mode (50:50 0.1% (v/v) formic acid in LC-MS grade
H_2O:0.1% (v/v) formic acid in LC-MS grade acetonitrile). After separation, the mass
spectrometry data were acquired on a Q-Exactive Orbitrap (Thermo Fisher Scientific) equipped
with heated electrospray ionization (HESI-II) operating in negative ionization mode. The HESI-
II was maintained at a spray voltage of -3.5 kV, and the mass range was set from 600-2200 m/z.
Data were processed using Thermo Scientific Xcalibur software version 3.1 (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). The lipid A molecular species were identified based on using observed mass to
charge (m/z) ratios to search the Lipid MAPS databases (61).
481

Quantification of 2-Keto-3-Deoxy-D-Mannooctanoic Acid (KDO)

KDO was derivatized with 1,2-diamino-4,5-methylenedioxybenzene dihydrochloride (DMB,
Sigma-Aldrich), and the resulting derivatives were quantified by HPLC following a previously
described method (62). Briefly, a KDO standard (Sigma-Aldrich), and purified LPS samples
were hydrolyzed using trifluoroacetic acid (TFA). DMB solution (5 mM, 125 mL) prepared
according to Hara et al., 1987 (63) was added to hydrolyzed samples, and the mixture was placed
in a heat block (50 ºC, 2.5 hrs) covered with aluminum foil. Subsequently, samples were placed
on ice (10 min), centrifuged (5 min, 10,000 rpm, 4 ºC), and analyzed using a Shimadzu SCL-40
HPLC system. A Prevail C18 (150 x 4.6 mm, 5 µm particle size, Alltech) analytical column was
used; 10 µL of sample was injected; separation was in isocratic mode (86% of 0.1%TFA, 7%
Acetonitrile, and 7% Methanol) at 1.3 mL min^{-1} for 20 min. DMB derivatives were detected by
fluorescence with excitation at 373 nm and emission at 448 nm.
494

Raman Microscopy-Spectroscopy

Samples (40 µL) of S(0) globules or OMVs in 1X PBS were pipetted onto aluminum foil held by
an HPLC screw top cap taped to a microscope slide and allowed to dry. Aluminum foil is a non-
reactive substrate for Raman measurements. A confocal Raman microscope (LabRam HR
Evolution, Horiba Scientific, Kyoto, Japan) was used to record data at the Surface Analysis
Facility, University of Delaware. A 532-nm laser was used, and the laser power applied was set
at 100%, which corresponds to a laser power of 20 mW on samples. Raman Spectra were
obtained over 5 seconds of acquisition time with a wavenumber from 400-4000 cm^{-1} with six
accumulations per spectrum.
504

Combined Atomic Force Microscopy and Infrared Spectroscopy (AFM-IR)

AFM-IR analysis was performed with a NanoIR2 instrument (Anasys Instruments, Santa
Barbara, CA, USA, now Bruker) at the Advanced Materials Characterization Laboratory,
University of Delaware. A 5 µL aliquot of samples was spread on a zinc sulfide sampling flat
and placed on the stage of the AFM-IR instrument. All AFM-IR measurements and images were
done under contact mode. A 1 μm × 1 μm scan area was imaged at a scan rate of 0.6 Hz with a
resolution of 384 pixels in both x and y axes. Individual AFM-IR spectra were collected using a
MIRcat-2400 laser (Daylight Solutions, San Diego, CA, USA) across the 950-1900 cm^{-1}
frequency range. The IR laser produced pulses of 140 ns at the repetition rate of 350 kHz.
Analysis Studio software (Anasys Instruments, Santa Barbara, CA, USA) was used for image
and spectral data collection.

S(0) Globule Purification

Cultures (1 L) of strain WT2321 were grown on sulfide-only Pf-7 (4 mM sulfide) in narrow-
mouth screw-cap bottles with an open phenolic cap and butyl rubber septa at 30 µmol photon m^{-2}

s^{-1} for 36 h. To qualitatively assay for the presence of sulfide, equal volumes of culture
supernatant were mixed with 10 mM CuCl$_2$, where the formation of a distinct grey precipitate
indicated the presence of sulfide greater than 0.2 mM. Sulfide was added to cultures when it was
no longer detectable by this assay. Cultures were transferred into sterile 250 ml centrifuge bottles
with o-ring sealing caps (Nalgene, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Cells and S(0) were collected by
centrifugation (1,000 × g, 10 min, 10 °C, JA-14 rotor). The supernatant was removed and cells
plus S(0) were suspended in a minimal volume of S-free Pf-7 that was layered over 25 ml of
sterile 2.5 M sucrose solution in sterile 50 ml centrifuge tubes with o-ring sealing caps (Nalgene,
Thermo Fisher Scientific); at a density of 1.32 g ml^{-1}, the sucrose retains cells in the supernatant
and selectively pellets S(0) when centrifuged (6,000 × g, 50 min, 4 °C, JS-13.1 rotor). The
supernatant was removed, and the resuspended pellet was centrifuged through 2.5 M sucrose two
more times. The collected S(0) pellet was washed three times to remove sucrose by suspending
in S-free Pf-7 and centrifuging (17,500 × g , 5 min, 10 °C, JS-13.1 rotor). S(0) was suspended in
S-free Pf-7 and immediately distributed into aliquots for characterization studies; aliquots were
stored at -80 °C until use.

Proteomic profiling of OMVs, S(0) globules, and whole cells
Purified OMVs, S(0) globules and whole cell pellets were dissolved in SDS buffer (2% SDS, 50
mM DTT, and 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0) and sonicated for 3 min (pulse: 20s on, 20s off). After
sonication, the suspension was incubated at 95 ºC for 10 min. A clear lysate was obtained after
centrifugation (16,000 x g, 10 min, 25 ºC, Eppendorf 5415 centrifuge). Proteins in the lysate
were processed for proteomics analysis following the E3 filter procedure described recently (64).
The digests were desalted using C18-based StageTips (CDS Analytical, Oxford, PA). Liquid
chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) was performed on an Ultimate 3000
nanoLC system coupled to an Orbitrap Eclipse Tribrid mass spectrometer with FAIMS Interface
(Thermo Scientific). Peptides were separated on a C18 reversed phase column (PepMap100 C18,
25 cm × 75 μm i.d., 3 μm; Thermo Scientific) at a flow rate of 250 nl/min. Mobile phase A
consisted of 0.1% formic acid in water. Mobile phase B consisted of 0.1% formic acid in
acetonitrile. A gradient separation was used: mobile phase B was held at 1% for 5 min, increased
to 25% over 90 min, reached to 35% at 110 min, increased to 80% over 10 min, then re-
equilibrated at 1% mobile phase B for 15 min. For data-dependent MS acquisition, the spray
voltage was set to 1.8 kV, funnel RF level at 50%, and heated capillary temperature at 275 °C.
The MS data were acquired in Orbitrap mode at 60,000 resolution, followed by MS/MS
acquisition of the most intense precursors for 1 s. For MS2 analysis, collision was set by HCD at
30% normalized collision energy (NCE). For FAIMS settings, a 3-CV experiment (-40|-55|-75)
was applied.

Peptide identification and quantitation used MaxQuant and Andromeda software (version
1.6.3.4) with most default settings. *Cba. tepidum* proteome database (Taxon ID 194439; 2,251
sequences) was obtained from UniProt Knowledgebase. The enzyme specificity was set to
'Trypsin'; oxidation of methionine, and acetyl (protein N-terminus) were set as variable

modification; carbamidomethylation of cysteine was set as fixed modification. Up to 2 missed
cleavages were allowed. The false discovery rate (FDR) was set to 1% for protein and peptide
identifications. MaxLFQ function embedded in MaxQuant was enabled for label-free
quantitation, and the LFQ minimum ratio count set to 1.

Bioinformatic classification of identified proteins
Visualization of quantitative proteomic data was mainly performed using Perseus software
(version 1.6.2.3) (65). Label-free quantitation intensities generated by MaxQuant were log2-
transformed and imported into Perseus with protein annotations. As noted in the Results, the
thiosulfate OMV samples were removed, and data were filtered to only contain proteins observed
in at least 2/12 samples (n = 1,447 unique proteins). Uniprot accessions for proteins associated
with each sample type were exported for to FunRich v. 3.1.3 (66) to construct a Venn diagram
(Fig. 4A). NaNs were replaced using randomly selected values from a normal distribution with
the default settings (downshift value = 1.8 standard deviations, width = 0.3). The NaN replaced
data were used for principal component analysis (PCA). The PCA scores and loadings for each
protein were exported from Perseus to Excel to produce the plots (Fig. 4B and 4C) The
subcellular localization of each protein was predicted using the PSORTb subcellular localization
tool version 3.0.3 (https://www.psort.org/psortb/) and merged with the data from Perseus in
Excel to color loading values of individual proteins based on predicted localization (Fig. 4B).
The Perseus session file and Excel file containing all data in Figure 4 are available at:
https://hansonlabgit.dbi.udel.edu/hanson/ctep_omv_manuscript
579
S(0) Quantification in OMVs
Three independent 20 mL cultures of *Cba. tepidum* were grown with 7 mM sulfide for 14 hrs.
OMVs were purified from the entire volume of each culture as above and resuspended in 20
microL of 1X PBS after the second ultracentrifugation. A 15 microL aliquot of OMV suspension
was extracted with 1 mL of hexanes (Sigma Aldrich). S(0) was quantified in the hexane phase by
HPLC on a 4.6 x 150 mM Prevail C18 column eluted with 90% methanol at 1 mL min^{-1}
following absorbance at 280 nm on a Shimadzu SCL-40 HPLC system. Sulfur powder (Sigma-
Aldrich) dissolved in chloroform was diluted to known concentrations in hexane to generate a
standard curve. The remaining OMV suspension was used for TEM imaging as described above.
589

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS
This research was partially supported by a National Science Foundation research grant to TEH
(1244373). VLN was partially supported by a grant from the W.M. Keck Foundation
(16A01455). ATL was supported by an NSF Graduate Research Fellowship Program award
(0750966). Research reported in this publication was supported by the National Institute of
General Medical Sciences of the National Institutes of Health under Award Numbers
T32GM133395 (partial support for VLN) and P20GM104316 for the Orbitrap Eclipse MS
instrument. Microscopy equipment was acquired with Unidel Foundation support and a Major
Research Instrumentation award (1828325) for the purchase of the LabRam HR Evolution.

Microscopy access was supported by grants from the NIH-NIGMS (P20GM103446), the NIGMS (P20GM139760) and the State of Delaware. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the W.M. Keck Foundation, the National Institutes of Health, or the National Science Foundation.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST DISCLOSURE

Y.Y. is a named inventor on a patent application (PCT/US2023/020215) for the E3 technology, which has been licensed exclusively to CDS Analytical LLC (Oxford, PA).

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790
791 **FIGURES**

Figure 1. The effect of *Cba. tepidum* growth phase on extracellular particle concentration in cultures and protein concentration in purified particle preparations. See Fig. S1A for details on purification. **A)** Extracellular particles concentration from different growth phases. **B)** Total protein concentration of particles purified at different growth phases. Error bars represent the standard error, n = 3 with * indication p < 0.05 and ** indicating p < 0.01 (t-test, two tailed, unequal variance).

Figure 2. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of *Cba. tepidum*'s OMVs. **A)** and **B)** TEM images show spherical OMVs budding out of rod-shaped *Cba. tepidum* after 8h and 14h of growth, respectively (white arrows). **C)** and **D)** TEM analysis of OMVs purified via serial ultracentrifugation from a 14 h old *Cba. tepidum* culture.

Figure 3. Analysis of *Cba. tepidum* extracellular particles for hallmark characteristics of OMVs including size (A), protein (B), LPS or LOS (C), KDO (D).

Figure 4. Comparative proteome analysis of *Cba. tepidum* whole cells, OMVs from cultures grown on sulfide (HS-OMV) or sulfide + thiosulfate (PF7-OMV), and biogenic sulfur globules (S(0) glob.). **A)** Venn diagram indicating the distribution of 1,447 proteins across sample group (n = 3 samples per group). **B)** Principal component analysis score plot of samples based on label free quantification. The first and the second principal components (PC) account for 80.6% and 7.3% of the variability in the data, respectively. Loadings for PC1 and PC2 are displayed (blue dashed arrows) for proteins grouped by PSORTb predicted localization: Cytoplasmic, Unknown, Inner Membrane (IM), Outer Membrane (OM), Periplasmic (Peri), and Extracellular (ExC).

Figure 5. OMVs concentration and size vary with increased sulfide (HS) concentration. A) OMV concentrations measured after 14 h of growth with different concentrations of sulfide as the sole electron donor. B) MRSP-based size distribution of particles purified from the cultures in panel A (see Fig. S1A for purification details). C) and D) TEM analysis of OMVs purified from 4 mM and 7 mM sulfide cultures in panel A corresponding to the green and black traces in panel B.

Figure 6. OMVs and S(0) share multiple characteristic. Characteristic Raman scattering **(A)** or IR absorption **(B)** spectra for purified OMVs (black), biogenic S(0) (red), and PBS (blue). Scattering (A) or absorption (B) wavenumbers are indicated by vertical dashed lines for sulfur (orange), polysaccharide (pink), and protein (black). **(C)** Chromatograms of elemental sulfur standards (0-0.3 mM S(0), black traces) and OMV's purified from three independent 7 mM sulfide *Cba. tepidum* cultures (orange traces). The standards indicate the peak from OMV samples co-migrates with authentic S(0) and the replicates are within the range of detection.

Figure 7. Summary of the proposed OMV S(0) transport mechanism. A) *Cba. tepidum* produces both OMVs and polysulfides during growth that contribute to the growth of extracellular S(0) globules. B) Enlarged view of the periplasm and OM with increased detail. Sulfide oxidation may induce unfolded protein stress that leads to OMV production. The dashed arrows for sulfide and polysulfide indicate possible routes to enter and exit either OMVs or S(0) globules. SQR = sulfide:quinone oxidoreductase (CT0117 and CT1087), Psr = putative polysulfide oxidoreductase complex (CT0496-CT0494). C) Enlarged view of a *Cba. tepidum* OMV with selected cargo molecules detected by proteomics analyses denoted at the right. Created in BioRender https://BioRender.com/bzod9yf

Table 1. OMV core proteins identified in ≥ 2 independent samples from each group (whole cells, S(0) globules, HS-OMV, and PF7-OMV) by label-free quantitative proteomics.

Locus Tag	Uniprot ID	PSORTb result	Description
CT0017	Q8KGF1	Unknown	Uncharacterized protein
CT0068	Q8KGA0	Unknown	Hemagglutinin-related protein
CT0073	Q8KG95	Unknown	Cytochrome c-555, membrane-bound
CT0075	Q8KG93	Periplasmic	Cytochrome c-555
CT0154	Q8KG16	Unknown	50S ribosomal protein L7/L12
CT0254	Q8KFR8	Unknown	Outer membrane protein OmpH
CT0351	Q9F722	InnerMembrane	Isocitrate dehydrogenase [NADP]
CT0529	Q8KFH5	Cytoplasmic	Co-chaperonin GroES
CT0530	Q8KF02	Cytoplasmic	Chaperonin GroEL
CT0636	Q8KEQ0	Periplasmic	Protein TolB homolog
CT0638	Q8KEP8	OuterMembrane	Peptidoglycan-associated protein
CT0640	Q8KEP6	Unknown	YfiO domain-containing protein
CT0643	Q8KEP3	Cytoplasmic	Chaperone protein DnaK
CT0865	Q8KE27	Cytoplasmic	Adenylylsulfate reductase, alpha subunit
CT0958	Q8KDT6	Extracellular	Uncharacterized protein
CT0984	Q8KDR1	OuterMembrane	Uncharacterized protein
CT1017	Q8KDM9	Unknown	Sulfur oxidation protein SoxY
CT1018	Q8KDM8	Unknown	Sulfur oxidation protein SoxZ
CT1054	Q8KDJ6	InnerMembrane	Carboxyl-terminal protease
CT1157	Q8KD97	Unknown	DUF4136 domain-containing protein
CT1201	Q8KD53	Unknown	DUF2934 domain-containing protein
CT1353	Q8KCR0	OuterMembrane	OmpA family protein
CT1447	Q8KCH4	Periplasmic	Serine protease, manually annotated as DegP
CT1745	Q8KBP0	Unknown	Uncharacterized protein/Transporter
CT1804	Q8KBI3	OuterMembrane	Porin_4 domain-containing protein
CT1900	Q8KB89	Unknown	Uncharacterized protein
CT1943	Q46367	Unknown	Chlorosome protein C
CT1953	Q8KB41	OuterMembrane	Ferric siderophore receptor, putative, TonB receptor family
CT1970	Q8KB28	Unknown	Heat shock protein, Hsp20 family
CT2054	Q46383	Unknown	Chlorosome envelope protein B
CT2144	Q8KAL2	OuterMembrane	Outer surface protein, putative
CT2191	Q8KAH0	Cytoplasmic	Elongation factor Tu
CT2264	Q8KAA2	Periplasmic	Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase SurA
CT2270	Q8KA97	Unknown	Uncharacterized protein