1	Hydrogen production by Sulfurospirillum spp. enables syntrophic interactions
2	of Epsilonproteobacteria
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17 Abstract

18 Hydrogen-producing bacteria are of environmental and biotechnological importance in anoxic 19 environments, since hydrogen is an important electron donor for prokaryotes and of interest as an 20 alternative energy source. Epsilonproteobacteria, inhabiting ecologically, clinically or biotechnologically 21 relevant environments, are currently considered to be hydrogen-oxidizing bacteria exclusively. Here, 22 we report hydrogen production for a genus of free-living Epsilonproteobacteria, Sulfurospirillum spp. 23 inhabiting sediments, wastewater plants, bioelectrodes, oil reservoirs, contaminated areas, or marine 24 habitats. The amount of hydrogen production was largely different in two subgroups of Sulfurospirillum 25 spp., represented by S. cavolei and S. multivorans. The former is shown to be the more potent 26 hydrogen producer and excretes acetate as sole organic acid, while the latter exhibited a more flexible 27 fermentation, producing additionally lactate and succinate. The observed hydrogen production could 28 be assigned to a group 4 hydrogenase similar to Hydrogenase 4 (Hyf) in E. coli. We propose that Sulfurospirillum spp. produce molecular hydrogen with electrons derived from pyruvate oxidation by 29 pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase and reduced ferredoxin. This hypothesis is supported by 30 comparative proteome data, in which both PFOR and ferredoxin as well as hydrogenase 4 are 31 32 up-regulated. A co-culture experiment with S. multivorans and Methanococcus voltae cultivated with 33 lactate as sole substrate shows a syntrophic interaction between both organisms, since the former cannot grow fermentatively on lactate alone and the latter relies on hydrogen as electron donor. This 34 opens up new perspectives on microbial communities, since Epsilonproteobacteria could play a yet 35 36 unrecognized role as hydrogen producers in anoxic microbial communities.

37

39 Introduction

40 Hydrogen gas (H₂), an important energy substrate for many bacteria and archaea, plays a crucial role 41 in the anaerobic food web, e.g. in syntrophic interactions. It is produced by fermenting bacteria as a 42 result of the disposal of excess reducing equivalents. Other prokaryotes may use it as an electron 43 donor for e.g. sulfate respiration or methanogenesis. In syntrophic interactions, the H₂-producing bacterium is dependent on the H_2 uptake of its syntrophic partner, which sustains a low H_2 partial 44 45 pressure and thus enables H₂ production, which would otherwise thermodynamically be unfavorable¹⁻³. For example, butyrate, propionate or acetate-oxidizing anaerobic bacteria that form H_2 46 47 as fermentation product are dependent on H2-oxidizing microorganisms such as methanogenic archaea⁴⁻⁶. It was shown that the interspecies H₂ transfer becomes more efficient when syntrophs and 48 methanogens are in close physical contact^{7,8}. The syntrophic degradation of propionate by a 49 50 co-culture of Pelotomaculum thermopropionicum and Methanothermobacter thermoautotrophicus as well as ethanol degradation by Geobacter sulfurreducens and Geobacter metallireducens resulted in 51 aggregate formation and cell-to-cell contact of the involved organisms^{9,10}. In addition to the importance 52 of H_2 in microbial food webs, H_2 is considered to be an alternative energy source and biohydrogen 53 54 production by microorganisms is discussed as one way to generate environmentally compatible fuels¹¹. 55

56 Epsilonproteobacteria are hitherto considered to be H₂-consuming organisms exclusively and 57 H₂-oxidizing enzymes of only a few Epsilonproteobacteria are characterized so far, e.g. the 58 membrane-bound uptake hydrogenases of Helicobacter pylori and Wolinella succinogenes^{12,13}. H₂ 59 production has never been shown to be performed by any Epsilonproteobacterium so far, although in recent years several Epsilonproteobacteria, especially marine, deep vent-inhabiting species, were 60 reported to encode putative H₂-evolving hydrogenases in their genomes¹⁴⁻²². Sulfurospirillum spp. are 61 62 free-living, metabolically versatile Epsilonproteobacteria, many of which are known for their ability to 63 respire toxic or environmentally harmful compounds such as arsenate, selenate or organohalides (e.g. tetrachloroethene - PCE)^{23,24}. The anaerobic respiration with PCE, leading to the formation of 64 cis-1,2-dichloroethene (cDCE), was studied in detail in S. multivorans (formerly known as 65 Dehalospirillum multivorans)^{26,27}. Several Sulfurospirillum spp. were found in contaminated sediments, 66 wastewater plants, marine environments or biocathodes^{19,23,27,28}. The role of *Sulfurospirillum* in such 67 environments is unclear. 68

In previous studies, four gene clusters, each encoding a [NiFe] hydrogenase, were found in the 69 genome of S. multivorans²⁰ and most other Sulfurospirillum spp.²³. Two of these appear to be 70 71 H_2 -producing, the other two are potential H_2 -uptake enzymes as deduced from sequence similarity to 72 known hydrogenases. Of these four hydrogenases, one of each type, H_2 -oxidizing and H_2 -producing, were previously detected in *S. multivorans*^{26,29}. The periplasmically oriented H₂-oxidizing enzyme is 73 74 very similar to the characterized W. succinogenes and H. pylori membrane-bound hydrogenase 75 (MBH). It comprises three subunits, the large subunit, harboring the NiFe active site, a small subunit 76 for electron transfer with three FeS clusters, and a membrane-integral cytochrome b. The putative 77 H₂-producing, cytoplasmically oriented enzyme (Hyf) is a large, complex enzyme with eight subunits, 78 four of them membrane-integral. Regarding amino acid sequence and subunit architecture, this 79 hydrogenase is similar to hydrogenase 4 of E. coli, part of a putative second formate hydrogen lyase (FHL). However, in S. multivorans, Hyf is unlikely to form an FHL complex since the corresponding 80 gene cluster does not encode any formate-specific proteins as is the case for the FHL complexes in 81 E. coli (Supplementary Figure 1). 82

Here, we show that several *Sulfurospirillum* spp. produce H₂ upon pyruvate fermentation. *S. cavolei* was observed to produce more H₂ than other *Sulfurospirillum* spp., which is caused by a different fermentation metabolism. To unravel the metabolism and the hydrogenase equipment of both organisms, label-free comparative proteomics was carried out. A co-culture experiment of *S. multivorans* with the methanogenic archaeon *Methanococcus voltae* revealed an interspecies H₂ transfer between both organisms suggesting a hitherto undiscovered contribution of *Sulfurospirillum* spp. and other Epsilonproteobacteria to the microbial anaerobic food web as a H₂ producer.

90

91 Experimental Procedures

92 Cultivation of bacteria

S. multivorans (DSMZ 12446) was cultivated under anaerobic conditions at 28°C in a defined mineral
medium³⁰ without vitamin B₁₂ (cyanocobalamin). Pyruvate (40 mM) was used as electron donor and
fumarate (40 mM) as electron acceptor. For fermentation experiments, all cultivations were performed
with pyruvate (40 mM) or lactate (40 mM) as sole energy source in the absence of an electron
acceptor and without yeast extract. Bacteria were grown in serum bottles with a ratio of aqueous to

gas phase of 1:1. If not stated otherwise, the gas phase was N₂ (150 kPa). For the cultivation with 98 99 100% H₂ in the gas phase, nitrogen was completely removed after autoclaving by flushing with H₂ and 100 an overpressure of 50 kPa was applied. Fermentation balance experiments were performed at 28°C in 101 1 L Schott bottles placed in a Fermentation apparatus to allow for the expansion of the gases during 102 the cultivation and to determine the stoichiometry of dissolved and gaseous fermentation products 103 (Supplementary Figure 2). For CO₂ quantification, the gas phase of the Schott bottle was connected 104 via a tube to a washing flask filled with 200 mL 4 M KOH to bind produced CO₂ as carbonate. Downstream, the gas phase of the washing flask was further connected to a water-filled measuring 105 106 cylinder placed up-side down in a water bath. The amount of H₂ was determined volumetrically viathe displaced volume of water in the measuring cylinder that correlates with the amount of H₂ produced. 107 108 The concentration was calculated using the ideal gas equation. The adaptation experiment included a 109 transfer in the next sub-cultivation step every 48 h with 10% inoculum. Clostridium pasteurianum W5 110 was cultivated in anoxic media composed of 1L basal medium (autoclaved) supplemented with the following anoxic solutions: 100 mL phosphate buffer (142 g L⁻¹ K₂HPO₄, 15 g L⁻¹ KH₂PO₄) and 5 mL 111 iron solution (10 g L⁻¹ FeSO₄ \cdot 7 H₂O). The basal medium contained per L 142 mg NaCl, 1.42 g NH₄Cl, 112 113 284 mg MgSO₄· 7 H₂O, 14.2 mg Na₂MoO₄· 2 H₂O, 28.4 mg D(+) biotin and 1.42 mg 114 4-aminobenzoate. Cells were grown in rubber-stoppered serum bottles with a ratio of aqueous to gas 115 phase of 1:4. Pyruvate (40 mM) and Glucose (20 mM) were used as substrates. Desulfitobacterium hafniense DCB-2³² and *E. coli* JM109 were cultivated in medium described previously. The medium 116 117 composition of the co-culture of S. multivorans and Methanococcus voltae DSMZ 1537 was identical to that described by Whitman et al.³², except that 5 g L⁻¹ NaCl were added. Electron donor was 15 mM 118 119 lactate. C. pasteurianum W5, D. hafniense DCB-2 and E. coli JM109 were taken from the strain 120 collection of our laboratory and M. voltae was obtained from the German Collection of Microorganism 121 (DSMZ, Braunschweig, Germany).

122 Cell harvesting and preparation of cell suspensions and subcellular fractions

S. *multivorans, S. cavolei* and *C. pasteurianum* W5 cells were harvested in the mid-exponential growth phase in an anoxic glove box (COY, 134 Laboratory, Grass Lake, Michigan, USA) by centrifugation (12,000 x g, 10 min at 10°C). For the preparation of cell suspensions, the obtained cell pellets were washed twice in anoxic 100 mM MOPS-KOH-buffer (pH 7.0) and resuspended in two volumes (2 mL per g cells) of the same buffer. Subcellular fractionation was done by washing the cell pellet twice in

128 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) and resuspension (2 mL per g cells) in the same buffer containing DNasel 129 (AppliChem, Darmstadt, Germany) and protease inhibitor (one tablet for 10 mL buffer; complete Mini, 130 EDTA-free; Roche, Mannheim, Germany). The resuspended cells were disrupted using a beadmill 131 (10 min at 25 Hz; MixerMill MM400, Retsch GmbH, Haan, Germany) with an equal volume of glass 132 beads (0.25-0.5 mm diameter, Carl Roth GmbH, Karlsruhe, Germany). The crude extracts were separated from the glass beads by centrifugation (14,000 x g, 2 min) under anaerobic conditions and 133 134 ultracentrifuged (36,000 x g, 45 min at 4°C). The obtained supernatants were considered as soluble 135 fractions (SF). The pellets were washed twice with 50 mMTris-HCI (pH 8.0) including protease inhibitor 136 and resuspended in the same buffer. The suspension was stated as membrane fraction (MF).

137 Measurement of hydrogenase activity

138 H₂ oxidizing activity was measured in H₂-saturated buffer (50 mMTris-HCl, pH 8.0) with 1 mM benzyl 139 viologen (BV) or methyl viologen (MV) at 30°C as artificial electron acceptors. The reduction of the 140 redox dyes was followed at 578 nm using a Cary 100 spectrophotometer (Agilent Technologies, 141 Waldbronn, Germany). H₂-evolving activities of cell extracts were determined gas chromatographically 142 with 1 mM methyl viologen as electron donor: MV was reduced with 20 mM sodium dithionite in an 143 anoxic buffer system (50 mMTris-HCl, pH 8.0). Protein concentration was determined according to the method of Bradford³³. Hydrogenase enzyme activities are given in nanokatal units (1 nmol H₂ evolved 144 145 per second).

146 Analytical methods

147 Liquid samples were taken anaerobically, filtered with 0.2 µm-syringe filters (MiniSart RC4, Sartorius, Göttingen, Germany) and acidified with concentrated H_2SO_4 (2.5 µL mL⁻¹ sample volume). Organic 148 149 acids were separated at 50°C on an AMINEX HPX-87H column (7.8 x 300 mm,BioRad, Munich, Germany) with a cation H guard pre-column using 5 mM H₂SO₄ as mobile phase at a flow rate of 150 151 0.7 mL min⁻¹. The injection volume was 20 µL per sample. All acids (e.g. pyruvate, acetate, lactate, succinate and fumarate) were monitored by their absorption at 210 nm. Retention times were 152 153 compared to known standards and concentrations were calculated using calibration curves. H₂ was 154 measured gas chromatographically with 99.999% argon as the carrier gas using a thermal conductivity 155 detector (AutoSystem, Perkin Elmer, Berlin, Germany). Samples for gas analysis were taken from the 156 gas phase with gas-tight syringes (Hamilton, Bonaduz, Switzerland). Concentrations were calculated

using calibration curves. CO_2 formed during the cultivation was determined gravimetrically. To 15 mL of the solution of the CO_2 trap 7.5 mL NH₄Cl (1 M) and 15 mL BaCl₂ (1 M) were added and the pH was adjusted to 9 with concentrated HCl (37%). After stirring for 2 h at room temperature, the precipitated barium carbonate was filtered with filter circles and dryed over night at 80°C.

161 Field emission-scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM)

162 Field emissionscanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) was performed with co-cultures of 163 S. multivorans and Methanococcus voltae. After incubation of 3 mL culture in 2.5% glutaraldehyde for 164 15 min, the cells were pre-fixed for 2 h on poly-L-lysin coated cover slides (12 mm, Fisher Scientific, 165 Schwerte, Germany). Washing of cover slides was done using 0.1 M sodium cacodylate (pH 7.2) 166 (>98% purity, Sigma Aldrich, Steinheim, Germany) for three times. Subsequently, cells were post-fixed 167 with 1% osmium tetroxide in the same cacodylate buffer and dehydrated with different ethanol concentrations. Critical point drying was done in a Leica EM CPD200 Automated Critical Point Dryer 168 (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) and the samples were coated with 6 nm platinum in a BAL-TEC MED 020 169 Sputter Coating System (BAL-TEC, Balzers, Liechtenstein). They were visualized at different 170 171 magnifications using a Zeiss-LEO 1530 Gemini field emission scanning electron microscope (Carl 172 Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany).

173 Sample preparation, mass spectrometry and proteome data analysis

Protein concentration of extracted proteins was determined using a Bradford reagent (Bio-Rad, Munich, Germany) with bovine serum albumin as standard. For protein identifications 20 µg of crude extracts were first cleaned from cations and cell debris by running shortly into an SDS gel. For this, the gel was run at 13 mA until the proteins entered the separating gel at a depth of about 3-5 mm. Then the protein band was cut out, reduced, alkylated and proteolytically digested with trypsin (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) and subsequently desalted with C18 ZipTips as described³⁴.

Mass spectrometry was performed using an Orbitrap Fusion (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) coupled to a TriVersa NanoMate (Advion, Ltd., Harlow, UK). 5 µL of the peptide solution were separated using a Dionex Ultimate 3000 nano-LC system (Dionex/Thermo Fisher Scientific, Idstein, Germany). A sample volume of 1 µL was loaded onto a trapping column (300 µm inner diameter, packed with 5 µm C18 particles, Thermo Scientific) and separated on 15 cm analytical column (Acclaim PepMap RSLC, 2 µm C18 particles, Thermo Scientific) at 35°C. Liquid chromatography was

done with a constant flow of 300 nL min⁻¹ with a mixture of solvent A (0.1% formic acid) and B (80%
acetonitrile, 0.08% formic acid) in a linear 90 min gradient of 4% to 55% solvent B.

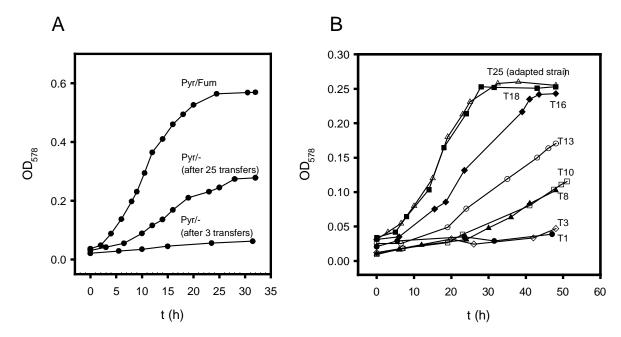
188 MS1 scans were measured with a cycle time of 3 s in the Orbitrap mass analyzer between 350 and 2,000 m/z at a resolution of 120,000, automatic gain control (AGC) target 4×10^5 , maximum injection 189 190 time 50 ms. Data-dependent acquisition (DDA) was employed selecting for highly intense ions 191 $(>5\times10^4)$ and charge state between +2 and +7 with a precursor ion isolation windows of 1.6 m/z. 192 Fragmentation was done via higher energy dissociation (HCD) at 30% energy, and also measured in the Orbitrap analyzer at a resolution of 120,000 with an AGC target of 5×10⁴ and a maximum injection 193 194 time of 120 ms. Fragmentation events were done within the 3 s of cycle time until the next MS1 scan 195 was done excluding the same mass (±10 ppm) for further precursor selection for 45 s.

196 Mass spectrometric data were analyzed with Proteome Discoverer 1.4 (Thermo Scientific) against the 197 NCBI S. multivorans database (CP007201.1) with the search engines SequestHT and MS Amanda. 198 Oxidation of methionine was set as dynamic, carbamidomethylation of cysteine as static modification; 199 two missed cleavages were accepted, mass tolerance of MS1 and MS2 measurements were set to 200 5 ppm and 0.05 Da, respectively. A percolator false discovery rate (FDR) threshold of <0.01 was set 201 for peptide identification. Label-free quantification of proteins was done with the area of the three most 202 abundant peptides of each protein. The values were logarithmized (log10) and normalized (see 203 Supplementary Dataset 1) and a two-tailed T-test was applied. Significance values (p-values) of <0.05 204 were considered to indicate statistical significance. Only proteins identified in at least 50% of the three 205 replicates (n≥2) were used for quantification, otherwise, proteins were considered to be identified.

207 Results

208 1. Adaptation of Sulfurospirillum multivorans to pyruvate-fermenting conditions

209 In previous studies, S. multivorans and other Sulfurospirillum spp. were shown to grow fermentatively on pvruvate^{23,30,35}. Only few data on growth behavior are available in the literature, but *S. multivorans* 210 211 was reported to exhibit poor growth on pyruvate as sole energy source compared to respiratory growth with fumarate or tetrachloroethene (PCE) as electron acceptor³⁰. However, we observed an adaptation 212 of S. multivorans to fermentative growth on pyruvate. After about twenty transfers, a growth rate of 213 0.09 h^{-1} was determined (growth rate on pyruvate/fumarate, 0.19 h^{-1} , Figure 1). During the adaptation 214 to pyruvate fermentation, the growth rate increased on average by 0.02 h⁻¹ with each transfer 215 216 (Supplementary Figure 3). In addition, the lag phase duration decreased from initially 40h to 5h. After 217 18 transfers, no further significant increase of the growth rate was observed. This adaptation process 218 was also observed for S. cavolei, S. delyianum and S. arsenophilum. For S. barnesii and 219 S. halorespirans, no growth on pyruvate alone was detected, even after several subcultivation steps.

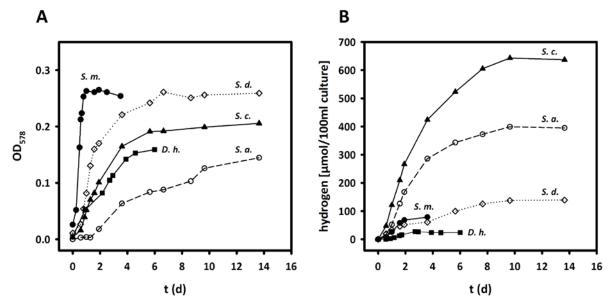


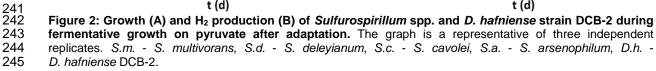
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Figure 1: Adaptation of *S. multivorans* to pyruvate-fermenting conditions. A) Growth curves with pyruvate as sole growth substrate after three and twenty-five transfers; A culture with pyruvate/fumarate after three transfers is shown for comparison. B) Growth during continuous transfer on pyruvate without electron acceptor. Each transfer (10% inoculum) was done after 48 hours cultivation. Data were obtained from at least two independent biological replicates and are representatives. T - number of transfer step, Pyr - pyruvate, Fum - fumarate, OD₅₇₈ optical density at 578 nm.

228 2. Fermentative growth and H₂ production of Sulfurospirillum spp.

229 To get deeper insight into the fermentation pathways and H_2 production capabilities of Sulfurospirillum 230 spp., several species were cultivated with pyruvate as sole substrate. Six species were tested for 231 pyruvate fermentation, of which S. barnesii and S. halorespirans were not able to grow even after 232 cultivation for several months (data not shown). S. cavolei, S. deleyianum and S. arsenophilum were able to grow on pyruvate alone, albeit at slower rates than S. multivorans (0.03 h⁻¹, 0.06 h⁻¹, or 233 0.004 h⁻¹, respectively). H₂ production was measured for all fermentatively growing Sulfurospirillum 234 235 spp., but the produced amount differed, depending on the species. S. cavolei produced the highest 236 amount of H₂ followed by S. arsenophilum. S. deleyianum and S. multivorans produced about 237 100 µmol per 100 mL culture. D. hafniense DCB-2, a known pyruvate-fermenting organohalide-238 respiring bacterium grows similar to Sulfurospirillum spp. (Figure 2A) but produced only minor amounts of H₂ (20 µmol) (Figure 2b). Fermentative growth on lactate was not observed for any of the 239 240 organisms including *D. hafniense* DCB-2 even after cultivation for several months (data not shown).



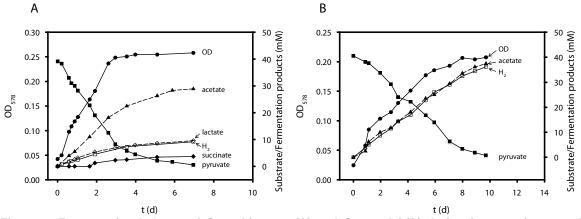


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247 3. Fermentative metabolism of S. multivorans and S. cavolei

To unravel the fermentative metabolism of two *Sulfurospirillum* spp. showing a different H_2 production pattern during growth on pyruvate, *S. multivorans* and *S. cavolei* were cultivated in a fermentation

250 apparatus in which the gas phase of the Schott bottle was connected to CO2 and H2 traps (see 251 Supplementary Figure 2) to avoid increasing gas partial pressures and hence a possible product 252 inhibition on H₂ production or growth (see also next chapter). Fermentation products and pyruvate 253 consumption were monitored via HPLC, GC, volumetric and gravimetric measurements in order to 254 calculate the fermentation balance. In this experimental set up, a largely enhanced H₂ evolution was measured when compared to the serum bottle experiment, with up to hundred times more H₂ 255 256 produced, while the growth was slower than in the previous set up (Figure 3A). After consumption of 257 40 mM pyruvate, 27 mM acetate, 10 mM lactate, 3 mM succinate,10 mM H₂ and 28 mM CO₂ were 258 measured as fermentation products of S. multivorans (Figure 3A). S. cavolei showed slower growth 259 than S. multivorans and a much higher amount of H_2 evolved. During growth, which took 8 to 10 days, 260 pyruvate (40 mM) was used up completely and 38 mM acetate, 36 mM H₂ and 38 mM CO₂ were the 261 only products detected (Figure 3B). S. deleyianum showed similar fermentation products to 262 S. multivorans (Supplementary Figure 4). The stoichiometry of the fermentation was verified by 263 calculating the carbon recovery and an oxidation/reduction balance (Supplementary Table 1, Eqns (I) 264 and (II)). In S. multivorans, the amount of reducing equivalents generated from pyruvate oxidation was calculated to be 54 [H], which fits to the amount of used reducing equivalents for the production of 265 266 molecular hydrogen, lactate and succinate (52 [H], Supplementary Table 1). In S. cavolei, pyruvate 267 oxidation leads to the generation of 76 [H], which were almost exclusively (72 [H]) used for proton 268 reduction to H₂. In addition, the carbon recovery is in agreement with the theoretical values and is 269 102.5% for S. multivorans and 95% for S. cavolei. The anabolic assimilation of the carbon source 270 could be neglected due to the low amount of biomass produced.



t(d)
 Figure 3: Fermentation balance of *S. multivorans* (A) and *S. cavolei* (B) during fermentative growth on
 pyruvate. Organic acids were measured via HLPC and H₂ was determined volumetrically (for details see
 Materials and Methods).

- 276
- 277 Eqn. (I) 1 Pyruvate \rightarrow 0.7 Acetate + 0.25 Lactate + 0.075 Succinate + 0.25 H₂ + 0.7 CO₂

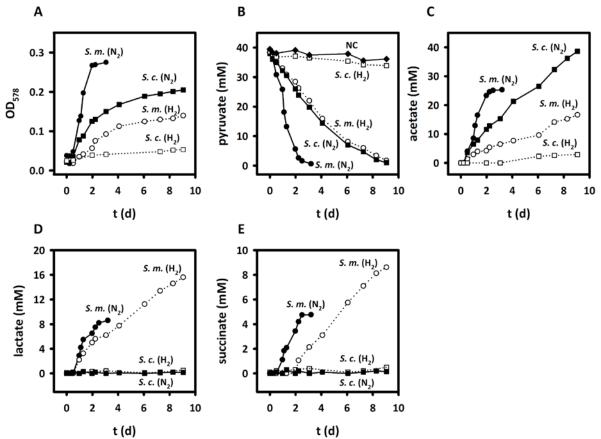
278 Eqn. (II)1 Pyruvate
$$\rightarrow$$
 0.95 Acetate + 0.9 H₂ + 0.95 CO₂

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280 4. Product inhibition by H₂ on fermentative growth in S. cavolei and S. multivorans

281 The different amount of H₂ produced in the growth experiments in serum bottles and the fermentation apparatus imply a product inhibition of H₂ on H₂ production. To investigate the effect of H₂ in the gas 282 283 phase on the fermentative growth of S. multivorans and S. cavolei, both organisms were cultivated in serum bottles with a gas phase of 100% H_2 or 100% nitrogen (Figure 4). With nitrogen as gas phase, 284 285 S. multivorans and S. cavolei showed similar growth and production rates of organic acids as observed in the fermentation apparatus. A strong negative effect on growth was observed with 286 287 100% H₂ in the gas phase. S. multivorans was still able to ferment pyruvate but showed an inhibited 288 growth and a lower cell density compared to the culture without H₂ in gas phase, while S. cavolei was 289 almost completely inhibited (Figure 4A). The restricted growth is also reflected by a lower pyruvate 290 consumption rate (Figure 4B). In addition, the formation of fermentation products shifted from acetate 291 production to lactate and succinate formation in S. multivorans (Figure 4C-E). S. cavolei produced 292 neither lactate nor succinate and only minor amounts of acetate.

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293t (d)t (d)294Figure 4: Growth and formation of fermentation products during cultivation under 100% nitrogen (N2) and295100% H2 atmosphere with pyruvate as sole energy source. Growth curve (A), pyruvate consumption (B) and296acetate (C), lactate (D) and succinate (E) production are shown. Organic acids were measured via HPLC. Each297cultivation was conducted in three biological replicates. S.m. - S. multivorans, S.c. - S. cavolei, N2 - nitrogen, H2 -298hydrogen, NC - negative control (cell-free medium).

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300 **5.** Hydrogenase activities by cell suspensions of *Sulfurospirillum* spp.

The H₂ production and oxidation capability of cell suspensions of S. multivorans and S. cavolei was 301 analyzed to obtain further evidence about the hydrogenase involved in the production and oxidation 302 303 reaction. Transcriptional and proteomic studies revealed the presence of two [NiFe] hydrogenases in 304 S. multivorans²⁹: a hydrogen-oxidizing periplasmic membrane-bound hydrogenase (MBH) and a putative H₂-producing cytoplasmic membrane-bound hydrogenase (Hyf). These two hydrogenases 305 306 might be distinguished by their different subcellular localization in hydrogenase activity assays. 307 Photometrically measured H₂-oxidizing activity was detected in whole cell suspensions as well as in 308 membrane and soluble fractions (Table 1). In contrast, H₂-producing activity, as monitored by GC, was 309 only measured with membrane fractions of S. multivorans and S. cavolei with approximately 1.5-fold 310 higher activity in the latter one. This suggests a cytoplasmic orientation of a membrane-associated 311 H₂-evolving hydrogenase, since methyl viologen should not have access to the cytoplasm of whole

312 cells (Table 1). The H₂-oxidizing activity of intact cells points towards a catalytic subunit accessible to 313 benzyl and methyl viologen and, thus, a periplasmic orientation of the H₂ uptake system. The membrane fractions of S. multivorans and S. cavolei cells grown on pyruvate as sole energy source 314 315 were about 2-fold more active in H₂-production than those of cells cultivated under respiratory growth 316 conditions with pyruvate plus fumarate, while the latter exhibited slightly more H_2 oxidation activity. 317 Clostridium pasteurianum W5, which is known to harbor a soluble H_2 -producing hydrogenase, exhibited hydrogenase activity only in the soluble fractions and showed no H₂ producing activity in cell 318 suspensions with metyhl viologen as electron donor (Supplementary Table 2), thus serving as a 319 320 control for the hydrogenase localization experiment.

Table 1: Hydrogen-production and oxidizing activities of cell suspensions and subcellular fractions of
 S. multivorans and *S. cavolei* cultivated under different growth conditions. Data are derived from three
 independent biological replicates.

Cellular fraction	Hydrogenase activity (nkat mg ⁻¹)					
	S. multivorans			S. cavolei		
	$\text{MV} \rightarrow \text{H}_2$	$H_2 \to BV$	$H_2 \to MV$	$MV \to H_2$	$H_2 \to BV$	$H_2 \to MV$
Cell suspensions						
Pyr	< 0.01	4.1 ± 0.5	0.7 ± 0.3	< 0.01	5.5 ± 0.6	1.4 ± 0.3
Membrane fractions						
Pyr Pyr + Fum	-	23.5 ± 2.1 36.6 ± 3.3	n.d. n.d.	20.6 ± 3.7 10.1 ± 2.4	10.1 ± 0.5 13.5 ± 1.6	n.d. n.d.
Soluble fractions						
Pyr Pyr + Fum	< 0.01 < 0.01	n.d. 2.3 ± 0.3	n.d. n.d.	< 0.01 < 0.01	n.d. 1.9 ± 0.3	n.d. n.d.

324 $MV \rightarrow H_2$ indicates H_2 formation activity, $H_2 \rightarrow BV/MV$ indicates H_2 oxidation. MV - methyl viologen, BV - benzyl viologen. Pyr - pyruvate , Fum - fumarate, n.d. - not determined

327 6. Comparative genomics and proteomics

328 To unravel the cause of the different fermentative metabolism of the two Sulfurospirillum sp., a comparative genomic analysis was done with the RAST sequence comparison tool³⁶. Additionally, 329 330 proteomes of S. cavolei NRBC109482 and S. multivorans cultivated under fermenting and respiring 331 conditions with fumarate as electron acceptor were analyzed. Bidirectional blast hits with more than 332 50% amino acid sequence identity were considered as orthologs, proteins putatively fulfilling the same 333 functions in both organisms. The genomes were overall similar, with 2057 of 2768 of the encoded 334 proteins in S. cavolei being orthologs. Only few of the non-orthologous proteins in S. cavolei could be 335 considered to play a role in the fermentation. Among the proteins encoded in the S. cavolei genome

³²⁶

336 (annotated RefSeq WGS accession number NZ AP014724), which do not have an ortholog in 337 S. multivorans, we found a cluster encoding an [FeFe] hydrogenase known to contribute to 338 fermentative H₂ production in many bacteria, e.g. Clostridia (Supplementary Figure 5). A nearly 339 identical gene cluster is found in the other two genomes of S. cavolei strains UCH003 and MES, the latter of which was assembled from a metagenome¹⁹. The large hydrogenase subunit gene, hydA, is 340 341 disrupted by a stop codon resulting from a nucleotide insertion only in S. cavolei strain NRBC109482. 342 The mutation was confirmed by PCR and Sanger sequencing. Transcript analysis of hydA suggested 343 that mRNA of the [FeFe] hydrogenase active subunit gene was synthesized under pyruvate-344 fermenting growth conditions (Supplementary Figure 6). However, the [FeFe] hydrogenase was not 345 identified in the proteome of S. cavolei.

Of the proteins related to pyruvate metabolism, a pyruvate, water dikinase (phosphoenolpyruvate 346 [PEP] synthetase) is encoded in the genome of S. multivorans (encoded by SMUL 1602), but not in 347 348 S. cavolei. This enzyme is responsible for the ATP-dependent synthesis of phosphoenolpyruvate from 349 pyruvate in gluconeogenesis. The PEP synthetase was found in 6.3-fold higher abundance (p-value 350 0.02) in the proteome of fermentatively cultivated S. multivorans cells (Supplementary Table 3). In 351 S. cavolei, PEP might be formed from pyruvate via oxaloacetate by two reactions catalyzed by 352 pyruvate carboxylase and PEP carboxykinase. These two enzymes are encoded in one gene cluster 353 (SCA02S_RS02520 and SCA02S_RS02525, respectively, Supplementary Figure 7). In S. multivorans 354 these proteins (SMUL_0789 and SMUL_0791) cluster with a gene encoding a subunit similar to the membrane subunit of a putative Na⁺-translocating oxaloacetate decarboxylase (SMUL 0790), of which 355 356 an ortholog is not encoded in S. cavolei (Supplementary Figure 7). Both pyruvate 357 carboxylase/oxaloacetate decarboxylase and PEP carboxykinase were found in the proteomes of both 358 organisms in slightly higher amounts in cells grown with pyruvate only (Supplementary Dataset 2). 359 Interestingly, also S. arsenophilum, producing larger amounts of H₂ than S. multivorans (Figure 2), 360 lacks the putative oxaloacetate decarboxylase subunit gene (Supplementary Figure 7).

The Hyf hydrogenase was found in high abundancies especially in the proteome of *S. multivorans* cultivated with pyruvate alone. Here, four out of eight of the structural subunits were found in the 10% of the most abundant proteins, while none were found in the top 10% under respiratory conditions. In *S. cavolei*, the hydrogenase-4 subunits were not as abundant as in *S. multivorans* with only two out of six quantified subunits in the top 20% (Supplementary Dataset 2). In both organisms, a significantly

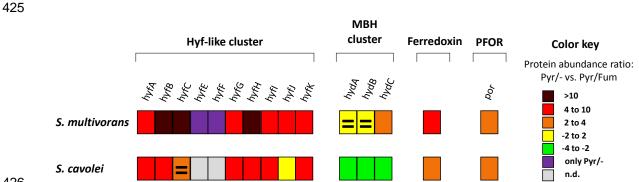
366 higher amount of Hyf subunits was quantified under fermentative growth conditions (S. multivorans: 4-367 to 27-fold for the structural subunits HyfA-HyfI, all p-values are <0.001, S. cavolei: 2- to 5-fold for 368 HyfA-HyfI, all p-values are <0.05; Figure 5, Supplementary Table 3, Supplementary Dataset 2). 369 Interestingly, the Hyf gene cluster is disrupted at one site in S. halorespirans, which cannot grow on pyruvate alone. Genome sequencing³⁷ revealed a transposase insertion at *hyfB* which might result in a 370 371 non-functional gene S. halorespirans. The transposon insertion was confirmed by PCR using hyfB-372 specific primers flanking the transposase (Supplementary Figure 9). The membrane-bound subunits 373 HyfE and HyfF were found in fermenting cells of S. multivorans exclusively. Sequence comparison of 374 the Hyf-like hydrogenase of S. multivorans shows similarities to the formate hydrogen lyase complex 375 of E. coli and to complex I of Thermus thermophilus (Supplementary Figure 8). An analysis of the 376 potential proton-translocating sites in Hyf of S. multivorans and a comparison to the FHL of E. coli and 377 the related subunits of several complex I is given in the Supplementary information (Supplementary 378 Note 1, Supplementary Table 5 and Supplementary Figures 10 - 12).

379 A search for the hyf gene cluster in genomes of Epsilonproteobacteria shows that it is ubiquitous in, 380 but not limited to, Sulfurospirillum spp (Supplementary Table 4). Four out of 15 Sulfurospirillum sp. 381 genomes harbor a second hyf gene cluster co-located with genes encoding a formate transporter and 382 a formate dehydrogenase (Supplementary Figure 1). In Arcobacter spp. and the marine species 383 Caminibacter mediatlanticus and Lebetimonas spp., only the latter gene cluster encoding a putative 384 FHL complex is found. In several Campylobacter spp. including C. concisus, a hyf gene cluster with a formate transporter gene was identified (Supplementary Figure 1), while a second group of 385 386 Campylobacter (including C. fetus) does not encode any formate-related proteins (Supplementary 387 Table 4).

388 A pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase (PFOR) and a ferredoxin (Fd) showed also a higher abundance 389 in both Sulfurospirillum sp. under fermenting conditions (S. multivorans: PFOR 2-fold, Fd 6-fold, 390 S. cavolei: PFOR 4-fold, Fd 2-fold, all p-values are <0.01; Figure 5, Supplementary Table 3). A second pyruvate-oxidizing enzyme, a quinone-dependent pyruvate dehydrogenase encoded exclusively in the 391 392 genome of S. multivorans, was significantly lower abundant during pyruvate fermentation (7-fold, p-value 0.02). The enzymes responsible for ATP generation via substrate-level phosphorylation, 393 394 phosphotransacetylase and acetate kinase, are slightly higher abundant during pyruvate fermentation 395 in both Sulfurospirillum sp. (approximately 2-fold for both enzymes in S. multivorans, p-values are

396 <0.01 and approximately 3-fold in S. cavolei, p-values are <0.001; Figure 7, Supplementary Table 3). 397 The malic enzyme is higher abundant during fermentation in S. multivorans (3.7-fold, p-value <0.001, 398 Supplementary Table 3) and not quantified in any proteome of S. cavolei (Supplementary Table 3). 399 The fumarate hydratase is found in lower abundancies during fermentation in both organisms 400 (S. multivorans: 2-fold, p-values <0.01, S. cavolei: 6-fold, p-values <0.001), while the fumarate 401 reductase is significantly lower abundant only in S. cavolei (S. cavolei: approximately 6-fold, p-values 402 <0.001). The subunits of the membrane-bound hydrogenase (MBH) were quantified in either 403 unsignificantly lower amounts (HydAB, approximately 2-fold, p-values 0.40 and 0.07) or slightly higher 404 amounts (HydC, approximately 2-fold, p-value 0.01) under fermenting conditions for S. multivorans. In 405 contrast, HydABC were found to in significantly lower amounts in S. cavolei when grown fermentatively. Of the cytoplasmic H₂-producing hydrogenase (Ech-like), only one subunit was 406 407 quantified in S. multivorans grown with pyruvate alone; this subunit was classified in the lower 50% 408 abundant proteins. In S. cavolei, five of six Ech-like hydrogenase subunits were quantified in cells 409 cultivated with pyruvate alone and two of six subunits in pyruvate/fumarate-cultivated cells, all of the 410 Ech-like subunits were found in the lowest third abundant proteins. No subunit of the cytoplasmic uptake hydrogenase (HupSL) was found in any of the proteomes. 411

A putative lactate dehydrogenase (SMUL 0438, SCA02S RS08360) with 35% amino acid sequence 412 identity to a characterized lactate-producing lactate dehydrogenase from Selenomonas ruminantium³⁸ 413 414 was not detected in any proteome. This is in accordance to the lack of pyridine dinucleotidedependent lactate-oxidizing or pyruvate-reducing activities in cell extracts of S. multivorans (data not 415 416 shown, methods described in the Supplement). Several candidates for pyridine dinucleotide-417 independent lactate dehydrogenases (iLDH) are encoded in the genome of S. multivorans. Since 418 S. deleyianum shows also lactate production during pyruvate fermentation, only genes present as orthologs in both genomes were considered to be responsible for lactate production in Sulfurospirillum 419 spp. Functionally characterized iLDHs are flavin and FeS-cluster-containing oxidoreductases⁴⁰ or 420 enzymes related to malate:quinone oxidoreductase⁴⁰. Only two candidates of the former class were 421 422 identified in the genome, encoded by SMUL 1449 and SMUL 2229. Of these, only the latter gene 423 product was detected in the proteome, however, not in altered amounts under fermentative conditions 424 when compared to respiratory cultivation.



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427 Figure 5: Comparative proteomics of proteins possibly involved in pyruvate fermentation of 428 S. multivorans and S. cavolei. Comparison of cells grown with pyruvate alone (fermentative conditions) was 429 done with cells grown with pyruvate/fumarate (standard = respiratory conditions). For quantified proteins the 430 protein intensity is given as coloured squares. Non-significantly altered proteins are marked with an equal sign. 431 Proteins exclusively found in pyruvate fermenting cells are colored light blue. All data were obtained from 3 432 independent biological replicates. Ratios in dashed boxes not significantly altered (p-values >0.05). Hyf-like - Hyf hydrogenase (SMUL_2383-2392; SCA02S_RS01920-RS01965), MBH - membrane-bound hydrogenase 433 434 (SMUL_1423-1425; SCA02S_RS01350-RS01360), Fd - ferredoxin (SMUL_0303; SCA025_RS12260), PFOR -435 pyruvate:ferredoxin-oxidoreductase (SMUL_2630; SCA02S_RS04525). Pyr - pyruvate, Fum - fumarate. 436

437 7. Sulfurospirillum multivorans as a syntrophic partner for Methanococcous voltae

438 To unravel the potential role of S. multivorans in a syntrophic partnership as H_2 producer, a co-culture 439 with *Methanococcus voltae* was prepared. *M. voltae* is a methanogenic archaeon dependent on H_2 or formate as electron donor and CO₂ as electron acceptor³². To investigate the syntrophic interaction of 440 441 the two organisms, the co-culture was cultivated with lactate, which could not serve as a fermentation 442 substrate for pure S. multivorans cultures. A syntrophic, hydrogen-consuming partner keeping H₂ concentration at a low level in co-cultures might render lactate fermentation by S. multivorans 443 thermodynamically feasible in a co-culture. In the corresponding co-culture, 15 mM lactate was 444 445 consumed in approximately two weeks, indicating lactate fermentation by S. multivorans and H₂ 446 transfer to *M. voltae* as syntrophic partner (Figure 6 A,B). Formation of methane was measured gas-447 chromatographically (data not shown). Electron microscopic analyses of the co-culture revealed cell aggregates with sizes between 50 and 600 µm (Figure 6C, Supplementary Figure 13). These 448 aggregates showed a compact network of the rod-shaped S. multivorans and coccoidal M. voltae with 449 net-forming flagellum-like structures surrounding the organisms. The cells in the aggregates are 450 embedded in extracellular polymeric substances (EPS)-like structures, which might aid cell-to-cell 451 452 contact.

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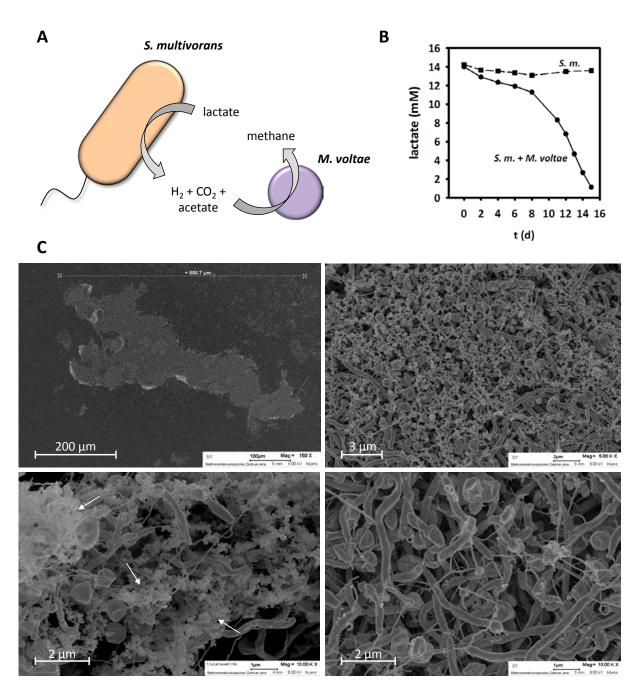


Figure 6: Syntrophic co-culture of *S. multivorans* and *Methanococcus voltae*. (A) scheme of syntrophic
interactions and exchange of metabolites and (B) lactate concentration in *S. multivorans* pure culture and
co-culture of *S. multivorans* and *M. voltae*. (C) Electron microscopic analyses and images of formed aggregates.
Image sections were obtained from different areas of an aggregate. White arrows indicate EPS-like structures.
Cultivation experiments included three biological replicates. S.m. - *S. multivorans*.

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462 Discussion

463 In this study, production of H_2 was observed for several *Sulfurospirillum* species during pyruvate 464 fermentation, which is the first evidence of H_2 production for Epsilonproteobacteria, which hitherto 465 were generally regarded as H_2 oxidizers^{14,35,41,42}. Specifically, we report H_2 production for 466 *S. multivorans, S. cavolei, S. arsenophilum* and *S. deleyianum* during fermentative growth on

467 pyruvate. Sequential subcultivation on pyruvate alone revealed a continuous adaptation of 468 *Sulfurospirillum* spp. to a fermentative metabolism. The mechanisms behind this long-term adaptation 469 process in *Sulfurospirillum* spp. remain unresolved for now and might include genomic 470 rearrangements and/or population dynamics, but also a long-term regulatory effect similar to the one 471 observed for *S. multivorans* after continuous transfer without PCE as electron acceptor⁴³ might play a 472 role. The basis for the latter effect is also unknown to date.

473 Two different fermentation balances were observed for the different Sulfurospirillum spp. tested. While 474 S. cavolei showed the highest H₂ production rate and produced, besides hydrogen, acetate and CO₂ 475 exclusively, S. deleyianum and S. multivorans, displaying lower H₂ production, additionally produced 476 succinate and lactate. Pyruvate is most likely oxidized to acetate by the pyruvate:ferredoxin 477 oxidoreductase, which showed an upregulation in the protome of fermentatively cultivated compared 478 to fumarate-respiring cells in both, S. multivorans and S. cavolei. The guinone-dependent pyruvate dehydrogenase (PoxB) might transfer electrons generated upon pyruvate fermentation to 479 480 menaguinone, however, since PoxB is downregulated in fermenting cells, it is suggested that this 481 enzyme does not contribute significantly, if at all, to pyruvate oxidation under this condition. A pyruvate 482 formate lyase is not encoded in any Sulfurospirillum spp., which, in addition to the low protein abundance of a cytoplasmic formate dehydrogenase, argues against the role of the Hyf in a formate 483 hydrogen lyase complex as suggested for a similar hydrogenase in E. coll⁴⁴. The generated 484 485 acetyl-CoA is used to generate acetate and one mol ATP per mol pyruvate via substrate-level 486 phosphorylation.

487 Electrons generated upon pyruvate oxidation are most likely transferred in both organisms to a 488 ferredoxin of the Allochromatium vinosum-type, which is known for the very negative redox potentials of its two [4Fe4S] clusters⁴⁵. The proteome data and biochemical experiments presented in our study 489 490 strongly suggest that the Hyf (hydrogenase 4) of Sulfurospirillum spp. accepts electrons from the 491 reduced ferredoxin to reduce two protons to hydrogen. Hyf is significantly upregulated, whereas the 492 other hydrogenases are either detected only in low amounts in the proteome data or are unaltered or 493 downregulated under fermentative cultivation. Furthermore, reduced methyl viologen served as 494 electron donor for H₂ production only with crude extract and not with intact cells, suggesting a cytoplasmic localization of the hydrogen-producing hydrogenase, as was suggested for the Hyf^{20,29}. 495 The involvement of a Hyf in H₂ production via pyruvate oxidation was also observed in a group 4 496 hydrogenase from *Pyrococcus furiosus*⁴⁶ and for a genetically modified *E. coli* strain⁴⁷. The structure 497

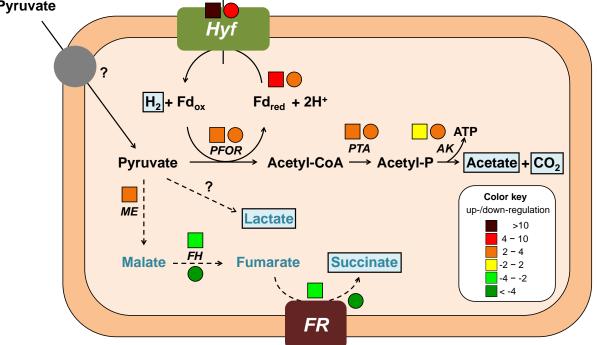
498 and subunit composition of several group 4 hydrogenases suggested their involvement in the generation of a proton motive force, thereby contributing to ATP formation^{48,49}. A thorough alignment 499 500 analysis of the subunits of Sulfurospirillum spp. Hyf indicated that most of the important residues in the 501 membrane helices are conserved, thus making a role in energy conservation of this hydrogenase a 502 possible scenario. The difference in the amount of H₂ produced with S. cavolei producing more H₂ 503 than S. multivorans can be explained by two different fermentation metabolism types. Opposed to 504 S. cavolei, reducing equivalents can be channelled into the production of lactate and succinate by 505 S. multivorans (as was also observed for S. deleyianum) upon pyruvate fermentation. Succinate might 506 be produced from fumarate (fumarate reductase) via malate (fumarase), which could be formed from 507 pyruvate via reductive decarboxylation to malate by the malic enzyme. This enzyme, which often 508 functions in the reverse direction e. g. in C₄ plants, is upregulated in S. multivorans under fermentative 509 conditions. This finding supports the involvement of the malic enzyme in conversion of pyruvate to malate. The malic enzyme was not detected in the proteomes of S. cavolei, which might at least 510 511 partially explain the different fermentation balances.

512 The origin of lactate in S. multivorans is not clear. An NAD+-dependent lactate dehydrogenase was not detected in any of the proteomes and no NAD(P)⁺-dependent lactate production could be 513 514 measured. Most likely, the lactate dehydrogenase is misannotated in the genome of S. multivorans, as reported for a related protein of Campylobacter jejuni⁵⁰. A possible source of lactate could be the 515 516 reduction of pyruvate via an unknown, NAD⁺-independent lactate dehydrogenase (iLDH). Some of these are characterized to be functional in the direction of lactate oxidation^{51,52} and could act in the 517 518 reverse direction to produce lactate in Sulfurospirillum spp., possibly with reduced ferredoxin as 519 electron donor. Several candidates of iLDHs are encoded in the genome of S. multivorans, but only 520 one of them shows a slight upregulation on pyruvate alone. A homolog of the corresponding gene 521 cluster is not encoded in the lactate-producing S. deleyianum, making it an unlikely candidate for 522 lactate production. A glycolate oxidase was shown to be responsible for lactate oxidation in Pseudomonas putida^{39,53} and a homolog is encoded in both lactate-producing Sulfurospirillum spp. 523 524 This protein, however, is not upregulated upon pyruvate fermentation and further studies are needed to identify the lactate-producing enzyme in S. multivorans. 525

526 The different disposal of excess reducing equivalents during fermentation enables *S. multivorans* to 527 grow with pyruvate even with 100% H_2 in the gas phase, whereas the growth of *S. cavolei* was nearly 528 completely abolished under these conditions. This correlates with a shift towards a higher production

of lactate and succinate and a lower acetate and H₂ production of *S. multivorans* under these conditions. The inability of *Sulfurospirillum* spp. to use lactate as sole substrate in pure cultures is most probably due to the thermodynamically unfavorable lactate oxidation to pyruvate upon hydrogen production. However, a syntrophic partnership of *S. multivorans* with a hydrogen-consumer, *Methanococcus voltae*, enabled lactate utilization by *S. multivorans* and led to the formation of large cell aggregates of the two organisms presumably via the formation of EPS.

535 These findings confirm our suggested role of Sulfurospirillum spp. as H₂ producers in anaerobic food 536 webs. Additionally, this role as a potential H₂ producer is most likely not limited to this genus. In a 537 genome mining approach, hyf gene clusters were found among several genera of 538 Epsilonproteobacteria inhabiting a wide range of habitats. Some Campylobacter spp. known to be 539 opportunistic or food-born pathogens encode the same Hyf as Sulfurospirillum spp., while hyf gene 540 clusters containing either a formate channel gene in different Campylobacter spp. or additionally a 541 cytoplasmic formate dehydrogenase in other phyla might indicate the formation of a formate hydrogen 542 lyase complex. Since a PFL is missing in these bacteria, it might be presumed that extracellular Thermococcus spp.⁵⁴. Some 543 formate might aid growth in these bacteria as reported for Sulfurospirillum spp. even encode for both, a FHL-independent Hyf and one presumably forming an 544 545 FHL complex, pointing towards seperate regulation and roles of both hydrogenases and thus for even 546 more physiological diversity in this genus.



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550 Figure 7: Tentative scheme of pyruvate fermentation metabolism in S. multivorans and S. cavolei. 551 Reactions represented by solid arrows belong to the core pyruvate metabolism and are catalyzed by both 552 organisms. Reactions with dashed arrows are solely catalyzed by S. multivorans, fumarate hydratase and 553 fumarate reductase are also present in S. cavolei. Fermentation products are highlighted in light blue boxes. 554 Protein abundance ratios (pyruvate alone versus pyruvate/fumarate) are indicated by colored squares (S. multivorans) and circles (S. cavolei) at the protein abbreviations (. Color code of the ratios is given in the box 555 at the lower right. Hyf - Hyf-like hydrogenase (SMUL_2383-2392; SCA02S_RS01920-RS01965), PFOR 556 pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase (SMUL_2630; SCA02S_RS04525), PTA 557 - phosphotransacetylase 558 (SMUL_1483; SCA02S_RS00245), AK - acetate kinase (SMUL_1484; SCA02S_RS00240), ME - malic enzyme 559 (SMUL_3158; corresponding enzyme in S. cavolei is not present), FH - fumarate hydratase (SMUL_1459, SCA02S_R\$00615-RS00620), 560 (SMUL_0550-0552; SMUL_1679-1680; FR fumarate reductase 561 SCA02S_RS07735-RS07740).

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563 Conclusion

564 Taken together, our results show that several Epsilonproteobacteria have to be considered as H_2 producers and serve as syntrophic partners under certain conditions. H₂ production in Sulfurospirillum 565 566 spp. under the tested conditions relies on Hyf, a multisubunit, membrane-bound and cytoplasmically 567 oriented group 4 NiFe hydrogenase similar to the one used in a second E. coli formate hydrogen lyase 568 complex and probably functioning as a proton pump. Adaptation to fermentative conditions seems to 569 be common in S. multivorans and related strains, although the underlying mechanism of this process 570 is still unclear. Two seperate clades of Sulfurospirillum spp. have different fermentation pathways, the 571 S. cavolei clade producing more H₂ and exclusively one organic acid, namely acetate, in comparison

to *S. multivorans*, which additionally produces lactate and succinate. All these findings imply an even higher versatility for Epsilonproteobacteria than previously thought and a new ecological role for *Sulfurospirillum* spp., which inhabit a large range of environmentally or biotechnologically important habitats such as wastewater plants, oil reservoirs, bioelectrodes, contaminated sediments or marine areas.

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589 Author Contributions

590 SK performed the wetlab work, SK and TG planned experiments, TG initiated the study, TG and GD 591 supervised the study, LA performed mass-spectrometric analysis, SK, TG and GD analyzed and 592 discussed data, MW was responsible for electron microscopy, SK and TG drafted the manuscript, all 593 authors revised, read and approved this manuscript.

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