

Changes in hydrogenase genetic diversity and proteomic patterns in mixed culture dark fermentation of mono-, di- and tri-saccharides

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Marianne Quéméneur, Jérôme Hamelin, Saida Benomar, Marie-Thérèse Guidici-Orticoni, Eric Latrille, et al.. Changes in hydrogenase genetic diversity and proteomic patterns in mixed culture dark fermentation of mono-, di- and tri-saccharides. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy, 2011, 36 (18), pp.11654-11665. 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2011.06.010 . hal-00677381

HAL Id: hal-00677381 https://hal.science/hal-00677381v1

Submitted on 8 Aug 2023

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1	Changes in hydrogenase genetic diversity and proteomic patterns in mixed-culture dark
2	fermentation of mono-, di- and tri-saccharides
3	
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16 Abstract

17

18 Dark fermentation using mixed cultures is a promising biotechnology for producing hydrogen 19 (H₂) from renewable organic waste at a low cost. The impact of the characteristics of 20 carbohydrates was evaluated on H₂ production and the associated changes in clostridial 21 populations. A series of H_2 -producing batch experiments was performed from mono-, di- to 22 tri-saccharides (i.e. fructose, glucose, sucrose, maltose, cellobiose, maltotriose). Both chain 23 length and alpha- or beta-linkage of carbohydrates impacted H₂ production performance as 24 well as the patterns of hydrogenases. The H₂ yield, ranging from 1.38 to 1.84 mol-H₂/mol-25 hexose, decreased with the increasing chain length of the carbohydrates, showing a negative 26 effect of the hydrolysis step on H₂ production efficiency. Changes in H₂ yield were associated 27 with a specialization of clostridial species, which used different metabolic routes. The rise in 28 H₂ production was associated with butyrate and acetate increases while H₂ consumption was 29 related to caproate formation. Both clostridial [FeFe]- and [NiFe]-hydrogenases were 30 identified in cellobiose cultures by a proteomic approach. This is the first study that combines 31 genetic and proteomic analyses focused on H₂-producing bacteria under various conditions 32 and it opens very interesting perspectives to better understand and optimize H₂ production 33 using mixed cultures.

34

35 Keywords: hydrogen, *Clostridium*, CE-SSCP, *hydA* functional genes, anaerobic digestion,
36 substrate

37 **1. Introduction**

38

39 Hydrogen (H₂) is one of the most promising, clean and renewable energy carriers. In recent 40 years, considerable effort has been made to improve biological technologies for efficient, 41 economic and renewable H_2 production [1, 2]. For large-scale H_2 production, dark 42 fermentation processes using mixed cultures have some essential advantages over other 43 bioprocesses: these include low energy requirements, high rates of production and 44 considerable versatility of the organic substrates. Both purified sugar substrates and solid, 45 waste-derived carbon sources, such as agricultural [3], food [4] or industrial waste [5], have 46 been used to produce H₂. However, the main drawback of fermentative processes is the low 47 yield of H₂ per mole of organic substrate consumed. To date, several strategies, such as 48 metabolic pathway control or fermentation process optimization, have been proposed in the 49 literature for improving H_2 production yields [1, 6, 7].

50 The H₂ production yield via dark fermentation varies widely according to the type of carbon 51 substrate, the operating conditions and the type of H₂-producing bacteria (HPB) involved [8, 52 9]. Mixed cultures are potentially more suitable for degrading a wide range of complex and 53 unsterile substrates. However, H₂ is a metabolic intermediate in anaerobic mixed cultures and 54 is rapidly reused by H₂-consuming microorganisms (HCM). Therefore, in mixed cultures, the 55 H₂ yields are not only influenced by the metabolic switches in bacterial cells but also by the 56 population equilibrium between HPB and HCM [10]. Improvement in H₂ production yields 57 using mixed cultures also relies heavily on microbial community dynamics which can respond 58 to variations in operating conditions either by metabolic adaptation and/or by fluctuation in 59 community composition. Moreover, HPB compete for selective carbohydrate uptake and 60 metabolism to acquire a competitive advantage over other microorganisms [11, 12]. However, only a few studies have reported changes in HPB population composition associated with
changes in carbon sources [13, 14].

Previous studies of microbial communities have shown that HPB mixed cultures are usually 63 64 dominated by clostridial species. This is due to heat treatment of the inoculum or the short hydraulic retention times often used to eliminate HCM (e.g. methanogens) [2, 15-18]. In fact, 65 66 the clostridial species are recognized as effective H₂-producers using a wide range of 67 carbohydrate substrates. Alterations in the functioning of ecosystem (such as a decrease in the 68 H₂ yield in dark fermentation) are often associated with changes in the metabolism and 69 composition of microbial communities [15, 16, 19, 20]. By way of example, shifts in 70 microbial community from H₂-producing clostridial species to competitor HCM or non-H₂-71 producing bacteria such as lactic acid bacteria have been observed concomitantly with process 72 instability. Such fluctuations can include H₂ production failure or variations in metabolite 73 concentrations in the anaerobic bioreactors [21]. Some clostridial species are able to switch 74 from $H_2/acids$ to solvent production depending on the operating conditions [22, 23]. The 75 metabolic flexibility of clostridial species leads to the production of a wide range of end 76 products. Such variety may lower the H₂ yield from the theoretical maximum of 4 mol-77 H₂/mol-hexose which is obtained when acetate is the sole end product from fermentation. The 78 genus *Clostridium* is a large and phenotypically heterogeneous bacterial group containing 79 carbohydrate-fermenters, protein-fermenters and homoacetogens, all of which have not been 80 phylogenetically well defined [24, 25]. H₂-producing and H₂-consuming clostridial species 81 are in fact closely related phylogenetically, although they follow opposite physiological 82 pathways [25, 26]. Consequently, changes in clostridial community make-up underlying 83 changes in H₂ production performance can be difficult to observe using 16S rRNA gene-84 based methods [10, 16, 27].

85 H₂ production is catalyzed by the enzymatic activity of hydrogenases (H₂ases) which are classified in two major phylogenetically distinct classes according to their bimetallic center of 86 87 the catalytic site: [NiFe]-H₂ases and [FeFe]-H₂ases [28]. While [NiFe]-H₂ases tend to be 88 involved in H₂ consumption, [FeFe]-H₂ases are usually involved in H₂ production [28]. 89 Indeed, in mixed cultures, the *hydA* genes, encoding the catalytic subunit of [FeFe]-H₂ases, 90 have already been used as pertinent molecular markers of HPB in mixed cultures [16, 20, 29], 91 in relation to changes in H₂ production performances [16, 29, 30]. Moreover, in relation to 92 monitoring changes in H₂ production performances, the *hydA* population shifts have been 93 reported as more sensitive than shifts in overall bacterial population [10, 20].

The aim of this study was to assess the impact of characteristics of carbohydrates on the bacterial population and on the metabolic changes associated with fermentative H_2 production. To this end, we evaluated the impact on H_2 production performances of carbohydrate chain length and alpha or beta linkages using mesophilic mixed cultures. The metabolic routes and the diversity of H_2 ases used to produce or consume H_2 have also been discussed in the light of genetic and proteomic approaches.

102 **2.1. Hydrogen production in batch tests**

103

104 The H₂ production experiments were carried out in 500 mL glass bottles under batch 105 conditions. The inoculum corresponded to an anaerobically-digested sludge pretreated by 106 heat/shock treatment (90°C, 10 min). Two milliliters of the pretreated inoculum (final 107 concentration of 225 mg-COD/L) were inoculated into the culture medium (final working 108 volume of 200 mL) containing 40 mM of 2-(N-morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid (MES) buffer 109 and 10 g/L of the following carbohydrates: glucose ($C_6H_{12}O_6$, molar mass (M) = 180.2 g/mol, 110 Sigma), fructose ($C_6H_{12}O_6$, M = 180.2 g/mol, Sigma), sucrose ($C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$, M = 342.3 g/mol, 111 Rectapur), maltose ($C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$, M = 360.2 g/mol, Sigma), cellobiose ($C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$, M = 342.3 112 g/mol, Sigma) or maltotriose ($C_{18}H_{32}O_{16}$, M = 504.4 g/mol, Sigma). The choice of the type of 113 carbohydrate was based on the variety of potential substrates retrieved after hydrolysis of 114 different renewable materials. Sucrose, a disaccharide consisting of one glucose monomer and 115 one fructose monomer linked α -1,2, occurs naturally in various plant sources such as 116 sugarcane or sugar beets. Maltose and cellobiose, both disaccharides consisting of two 117 glucose monomers, the first linked α -1,4, the second linked β -1,4, are also both the products 118 of the hydrolysis of polysaccharides: maltose comes from starch, cellobiose comes from 119 celluolose. Maltotriose, a trisaccharide consisting of three glucose monomers linked α -1,4, is 120 representative of linear glucose oligomers containing more than two units. The initial pH was 121 adjusted to 5.5 using NaOH (1M). All batch tests were performed in triplicate. After 122 inoculation, each bottle was flushed with nitrogen for 5 minutes to maintain anaerobic 123 conditions. The bottles were then capped with a rubber stopper and incubated at 37°C for 14 124 days. Four milliliters of the mixed cultures were periodically collected and then centrifuged (20,000 g, 10 min). The supernatants and the pellets were stored at -20°C, the supernatants for
further chemical analysis and the pellets for DNA extraction.

127

128 **2.2.** Chemical data analysis (biogas, metabolic byproducts)

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The volume of biogas was daily measured using an acidified water displacement method.
Biogas composition (CH₄, CO₂, H₂ and N₂) was determined by gas chromatography (GC14A, Shimadzu) as previously described by Aceves-Lara *et al.* [7].

133 Volatile fatty acids (VFA) composition in the liquid phase, *i.e.* acetic (C2), propionic (C3), 134 butyric and iso-butyric (C4 and iC4), valeric and iso-valeric (C5 and iC5) and caproic (C6) 135 acids were determined with a gas chromatograph (GC-3900, Varian) equipped with a flame 136 ionization detector. The concentrations of carbohydrates and non-VFAs metabolic byproducts 137 such as organic acids (lactate), ethanol or acetone were assessed by HPLC analysis and a 138 refractometer (Waters R410). The compounds were separated using an Aminex HPX-87H, 139 300 x 7.8 mm column (Biorad). The column temperature was maintained at 35°C and the 140 flow rate at 0.4 mL/min. Substrate degradation efficiency was estimated by dividing the 141 amount of carbohydrate consumed by the amount of initial carbohydrate.

To determine the H_2 production performances obtained for the different carbohydrates (Table 143 1), the cumulative H_2 production (H) data for each carbohydrate was fitted to a modified 144 Gompertz equation (1) as shown in Figure 1.

H(t) = P. exp
$$\left\{-exp\left[\frac{R_m \cdot e}{P}(\lambda - t) + 1\right]\right\}$$
 (1)

where *P* is the H₂ production potential (mL/L), R_m is the maximum H₂ production rate (mL/L/day), λ is lag-phase time (day), t is the incubation time (day) and e is exp(1). The cumulative H₂ production was expressed in mL per L of culture taking into account the volume variations due to gas and liquid samplings. The values of *P*, R_m and λ were estimated using a non-linear regression algorithm developed in Matlab (version 6.5, Mathworks). The H₂ consumption rate (R_c) was evaluated by the H₂ decrease measured in experiments between the P time and the end of the experiments. The H₂ production yield was calculated by dividing the maximum H₂ production potential (*P*) by the mol of hexose-equivalent consumed.

154

155 **2.3. DNA extraction and PCR amplification**

156

For each experiment, molecular analyses of the bacterial communities were carried out in triplicate at the start of the experiments (initial time), at the H_2 production potential stage (*P*) and at the end of the experiments (after 14-day incubation).

Genomic DNA was extracted and purified from cell pellets using the Wizard Genomic DNA
Purification kit (Promega). The amount and purity of DNA in the extracts were measured by
spectrophotometry (Infinite NanoQuant M200, Tecan).

The hydA genes were amplified using the non-degenerated primers [16] hydAClosF (5' -163 164 ACCGGTGGAGTTATGGAAGC - 3', C. pasteurianum position F1258) and 5'-fluorescein phosphoramidite-labeled hydAClosR (5' - CATCCACCTGGACATGCCAT - 3', C. 165 166 pasteurianum position R1508). Each PCR mixture (50 µL) contained 1X Pfu Turbo DNA 167 polymerase buffer, 200 µM of each dNTP, 0.5 µM of each primer, 0.5 U of Pfu Turbo DNA 168 polymerase (Stratagene) and 1 ng of genomic DNA. Reactions were done in a Mastercycler 169 thermal cycler (Eppendorf). The hydA genes were amplified as follows: 94 °C for 2 min, 170 followed by 35 cycles performed at 94 °C for 30 s, 57 °C for 30 s, and 72 °C for 30 s, with a 171 final extension at 72 °C for 10 min.

The 16S rRNA genes were amplified using the universal primers W49 (5'ACGGTCCAGACTCCTACGGG-3', *Escherichia coli* position F331) [31] and 5'-fluorescein
phosphoramidite-labeled W104 (5'-TTACCGCGGCTGCTGGCAC-3', *E. coli* position R533)

175 [31], as described above, except that 25 cycles and primer hybridization at 61 °C were applied and 130 ng of each primer were used. The *Clostridium* genus was specifically analyzed by 176 177 bacterial-domain forward W18 (5'nested PCR using a primer 178 GAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG -3', E. coli position F9) [32] and a Clostridium-specific 179 reverse primer W109 (5'- CCCTTTACACCCAGTAA -3', E. coli position R561) [33, 34]. 180 The size of PCR products (200 bp) was determined by 2% gel electrophoresis stained with

181 ethidium bromide.

182

183 2.4. CE-SSCP electrophoresis and statistical analysis

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Electrophoresis- One microliter of appropriate dilution of PCR product was mixed with 18.8 μ L of formamide and 0.2 μ L of internal standard GeneScan ROX (Applied Biosystems). Samples were heat-denatured at 95°C for 5 min and immediately cooled in ice. CE-SSCP electrophoresis was performed in an ABI Prism 3130 genetic analyser (Applied Biosystems) with 50 cm-long capillary tubes filled with a non-denaturing 5.6% conformation analysis polymer (Applied Biosystems). Samples were eluted at 12 kV and 32°C for 30 min (for 16S rRNA gene) or 45 min (for *hydA* gene).

192 *Data analysis*- The CE-SSCP profiles were aligned with the internal standard to take into

193 account inter-sample electrophoretic variability. The CE-SSCP profiles were normalized

194 using the StatFingerprints library [35] from R version 2.9.2 [36] in accordance with standard

195 procedure [37]. The genetic distances between bacterial communities were assessed using

196 Euclidean distances. The effect of the type of carbohydrate on the structure of bacterial

197 communities was investigated with a multivariate analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) [38].

198 ANOSIM gives a statistic, R, ranging from 0 (dissimilar groups) to 1 (similar groups). The

199 statistical significance of R was tested by Monte Carlo randomization. The complexity of the

- bacterial community was estimated using Simpson's diversity index from a CE-SSCP profile
 taking into account the number of species (number of peaks) as well as their relative
 abundance (area under each peak) [39].
- 203

204 2.5. Assignation of the partial *hydA* sequences in mixed cultures

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206 The PCR products obtained from the H₂-producing mixed cultures were purified using a PCR 207 Purification Kit (Qiagen). The hydA clone libraries were constructed using the TA Cloning 208 Kit (Invitrogen). The PCR-CE-SSCP profile of each PCR product, amplified using plasmid-209 targeted primers T7 and P13, was compared with the HPB culture profiles for peak 210 assignation. The cloned inserts were sent for sequencing (MilleGen Company, Toulouse, 211 France). The protein sequences, deduced from the nucleotide hydA sequences, were aligned 212 with reference sequences retrieved from the Genbank database using the CLUSTALW 213 program [40] then further refined manually using the BioEdit program [41]. Distances were 214 estimated by the Kimura method [42] and the neighbor-joining method was used for inferring 215 the tree topologies [43]. Tree topology confidence was determined by bootstrap analysis on 216 1000 replicates [44]. All phylogenetic programs were implemented with SeaView software 217 [45]. The hydA gene sequences were deposited in the Genbank database under the accession 218 numbers JF714976 to JF714980.

219

220 **2.6.** Protein electrophoresis and proteomic data analysis

221

Electrophoresis- Cell material was collected at the end of the experiment (14 days). Soluble proteins released from dead bacterial cells were eliminated prior to protein extraction by rinsing cell pellets. Washed pellets were resuspended in 50mM Tris-HCl, 10 μg/ml Dnase, 225 5% glycerol and proteases inhibitors (pH 7.6) (bufferA), mutanolysin (200U/ml) (Roche) and 226 incubated 1hour at 37°C under argon. After centrifugation (30 min 3700g, 4°C), cell material 227 was resuspended in buffer A and broken in a French cell press. Debris and unbroken cells 228 were removed by centrifugation (10000g, 15 min). Membrane and soluble proteins were 229 separated by ultracentrifugation (45 min, 40000 rpm, rotor 45 Ti, Beckman). Proteins were 230 separated on denaturing gels [46]. A mini-Protean III cell electrophoresis apparatus (Bio-Rad) 231 was used in all cases. After migration, gels were either stained with Coomassie Blue R-250, 232 enzymatic activities were revealed and proteins were detected with anti-H₂ase antibodies. 233 Protein bands were cut out from gels and stored at -20°C prior to mass spectrometry analysis.

Western Blotting- Proteins were subjected to SDS gels and transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (Electran) with the Fast blot apparatus (Biometra) at 5 mA/cm² for 30 min. The blots were then processed and developed as previously described by Castelle et al. [47]. Primary antibodies used were directed against H₂ase from *A. aeolicus* or *Desulfovibrio*.

Tryptic digestion of excised gel plugs, Ion Trap and MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry protein
identification were performed, as previously described by Guiral et al. [46].

240 Data analysis- Protein identification was done by the TurboSEQUEST algorithm (version 28, 241 rev. 12) using the NCBI database (02/28/2006, http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) restricted to the 242 Clostridium genus containing 498879 entries. The spectra were analyzed for searching for 243 average peptide peaks (m/z 600 to 3500 Da). Search parameter criteria were set as follows: 244 accepted variable methionine two missed cleavage sites oxidation, cysteine 245 carbamidomethylation, 1.5 and 1.0 Da as maximum precursor and fragment tolerance. Protein 246 identification was considered to have been obtained when at least 2 unique peptides in 2 247 independent experiments were detected. In our analyses, some peptides matched with 248 different H₂ases from various strains. Only the strains displaying various identified proteins 249 were accepted.

251 **3. Results**

252

253 **3.1. Effect of carbohydrate type on overall hydrogen production performances**

254

During the course of the experiments, only H_2 and CO_2 were produced as gaseous products, with no detectable CH_4 , indicating that the heat pretreatment was effective in suppressing methanogen activity. The Gompertz model provided a good fit for the H_2 production data, with determination coefficients R^2 over 0.98 for all batch tests (Table 1).

259 The type of substrate had a significant effect on H₂ production performance (Table 1). Among 260 different kinds of carbohydrates, fructose and glucose cultures gave the best H₂ production 261 potentials (P) (2.31 and 2.24 L/L, respectively). These monosaccharide cultures were faster in 262 reaching their peak of H₂ production than other disaccharide and trisaccharide cultures (7.7 263 and 9.7 days, respectively). The highest yield (1.84 mol-H₂/mol-hexose) was obtained with 264 fructose and the lowest with maltotriose (1.38 mol-H₂/mol-hexose), showing that the higher 265 the substrate chain length, the lower the H₂ production yield. Indeed, a significant negative 266 correlation was observed between the H₂ yield and the number of monomer units (Pearson's 267 correlation coefficient r = -0.82, p < 0.005), indicating a negative impact from the hydrolysis 268 step. Among disaccharide cultures, higher H₂ yields were observed from alpha-linked maltose 269 cultures than beta-linked cellobiose cultures, suggesting an effect of the glycoside linkage 270 type.

Whatever the substrate, the H_2 production phase was followed by a H_2 consumption phase (Figure 1). Indeed, the H_2 content in the gas phase increased until reaching between 31.0% and 34.2% at the *P* time; it then decreased to 22.7%-27.6% at the end of the experiments. The highest H_2 consumption rate (R_c) was observed in the cellobiose cultures (Table1).

- 275 As expected, the pH decreased over time from 5.5 to 4.0 in average. The pH drop was faster
- 276 for the most efficient monosaccharides cultures when compared to di- and tri-saccharides. A
- 277 significant negative correlation was observed between pH and H₂ production (Pearson's r > -
- 278 0.97, p < 0.001). However, no significant pH difference was observed using different
- 279 carbohydrates at *P* time despite the difference in H₂ production and yield (final pH = $4.0 \pm$
- 280 (1.0) (Table 1). Moreover, no significant change in pH was observed during the H₂
- 281 consumption phase, despite the change in metabolic patterns (Table 2).
- 282

283 **3.2. Effect of carbohydrate type on the fermentative routes**

284

285 Different distributions of the metabolic products were observed depending on the substrate, 286 although acetic and butyric acids were the major VFAs produced in all batch tests (Table 2). 287 Indeed, after P was reached the acetate and butyrate molar content within the soluble 288 microbial products ranged from 24.7% to 30.4% and from 58.0% to 69.7%, respectively. This 289 result indicates that acetate-butyrate fermentation occurred whatever the substrate used. The 290 highest acetate and butyrate levels were observed in sucrose cultures, where high P was 291 obtained. The other byproducts corresponded to caproate, ethanol and lactate (1.5 - 2.7 %, 2.8 292 - 10.5 % and 0 - 3.9%, respectively). Similar metabolic product distributions were observed in 293 the monosaccharide cultures. In contrast, significant differences in metabolic profiles were 294 obtained with the three different disaccharides: sucrose, cellobiose and maltose. The highest 295 caproate, ethanol and lactate contents were obtained in the cellobiose cultures, a result which 296 corroborates the negative influence of the beta-linkage type on H_2 production. When P was 297 achieved, caproate production was only detected in the cellobiose-, maltose- and maltotriose 298 cultures, where lower H₂ yields were obtained (Table 1). The least effective maltotriose 299 culture was characterized by the highest concentrations of caproate, ethanol and lactate at P 300 time (Table 2). Interestingly, and in total contrast to the maltotriose culture, the maltose 301 culture showed the lowest caproate, ethanol and lactate levels, indicating the effect of 302 substrate chain length on the fermentation route. No correlation was observed between H_2 303 production performance and the ratio of butyrate to acetate concentrations (Bu/Ac) (Table 2) 304 when P was reached (Pearson's r = 0.35, p > 0.05). At the final stage, a decrease in the Bu/Ac 305 ratio was observed in all batch tests during the H₂ consumption phase (Table 1). Except for 306 fructose culture, a significant decrease in butyrate concentrations was observed after 14-day 307 incubation. Concomitantly, the caproate end product accumulated significantly in the 308 disaccharide cultures, indicating that different metabolic pathways were being utilized at the 309 end of the experiment.

310

311 **3.3. Effect of carbohydrate type on the hydrogen-producing bacterial populations**

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313 Similar bacterial- and Clostridium-specific 16S rDNA CE-SSCP profiles were obtained 314 during the 14 days of incubation, supporting the conclusion that clostridial species enriched 315 by heat-shock pretreatment dominated the H₂-producing mixed cultures (data not shown). In 316 Figure 2, the hydA gene-based CE-SSCP profiles are presented for the P point reached. No 317 significant change in the HPB population was observed between the P time and the end of the 318 experiments despite the presence of the H₂-consumption phase. The phylogenetic affiliation 319 of the eight different hydA genes, the molecular markers of HPB, is illustrated in Figure 3. 320 The retrieved sequences were related to various species among the *Clostridium* genus: 321 Clostridium acetobutylicum, Clostridium cellulolyticum, Clostridium kluyveri, Clostridium 322 saccharobutylicum and Clostridium sporogenes.

323 Overall, the type of carbohydrate had a significant effect on the HPB population structures 324 (ANOSIM R = 0.85, p < 0.005). The fructose, glucose or sucrose cultures, which showed 325 similar *P* values and fermentation end-products, displayed similar *hydA* CE-SSCP profiles 326 (Figure 2). Peak 1 (70% identity with the HydA sequence of *C. sporogenes*) dominated the 327 CE-SSCP profiles of the glucose, fructose, sucrose and the cellobiose cultures. The HydA 328 sequences corresponding to CE-SSCP peaks 2, 4 and 5 detected in the sucrose- and cellobiose 329 cultures were related to that of C. acetobutylicum (86-88.6% identity). The cellobiose cultures 330 displayed the highest Simpson's diversity index values (2.8 ± 0.3) compared to other cultures 331 (ranging from 1.4 to 1.9). The HydA sequence from peak 3 was related to C. cellulolyticum 332 (72.5% identity) which belongs to the *Clostridium* cluster III. The HydA sequence from peaks 333 6 and 7 were affiliated, respectively, to those of C. saccharobutylicum (95.2% identity) and C. 334 kluyveri (79.4% identity). Finally, the CE-SSCP profiles of maltose and maltotriose cultures 335 differed from those of other carbohydrate cultures by the predominance of another HydA 336 sequence corresponding to peak 8 and related to C. acetobutylicum (87.5% identity).

337

338 **3.4. Hydrogenase identification by metaproteomic approach**

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340 No substantial difference in the total protein pattern was observed between the various substrate cultures at the end of the experiments, assumed as the end of the H₂ consumption 341 342 phase. An example of total protein pattern is presented in Figure 4A. Various bands were 343 labeled by the antibodies which confirmed the presence of various H₂ases in the samples 344 (Figure 4B). The major difference was observed between the cultures on cellobiose and those 345 on the other substrates (e.g. glucose and fructose), in accordance with CE-SSCP data. The 346 H₂ases present in the fraction were precisely identified by proteomic analysis (Table 3). The 347 H₂ase-like proteins were related to those from the different species of the *Clostridium* genus: 348 Clostridium carboxidivorans, C. cellulolyticum, Clostridium novyi and C. sporogenes. The 349 proteins identified from glucose and fructose cultures were [FeFe]-H₂ases and a subunit 350 homologous to the [2Fe-2S] subunit from NADH dehydrogenase. In the cellobiose samples, 351 [FeFe]-H₂ase and the Ech H₂ase (i.e. *E. coli* H₂ase 3-type) subunit homologous to [NiFe]-

352	H_2 as were identified (Table 3). From the membrane fraction of the cellobiose cultures,
353	subunit membrane-bound complexes were identified as belonging to the Ech H ₂ ase group,
354	proposed as H ₂ -producing [NiFe]-H ₂ ases ([NiFe]-H ₂ ase group 4, as defined by Vignais et al.
355	[28, 48]).

359 In this paper, a gradually increasing H₂ yield was observed from mesophilic clostridial mixed 360 cultures depending on the chain length: fructose and glucose (monosaccharides) > sucrose, 361 maltose and cellobiose (disaccharides) > maltotriose (trisaccharide). These results 362 demonstrate that glycosidic hydrolysis was less adapted to efficient H_2 production. These 363 findings are consistent with those obtained from mesophilic clostridial consortia isolated from 364 riverbed sediments using different sugar sources [14]. In contrast, Ferchichi et al. [49] found 365 that disaccharides (lactose, sucrose and maltose) produced twice as much H₂ as 366 monosaccharides (glucose and fructose) using a pure culture of Clostridium 367 saccharoperbutylacetonicum ATCC 27021. In addition, Yokoyama et al. [13] achieved 368 similar H₂ yields (2.68-2.65 mol-H₂/mol-hexose) from thermophilic anaerobic microflora 369 using cellobiose and glucose as the substrate. The optimal type of substrate for H₂ production 370 by our mesophilic mixed culture varied no doubt because of a different selection of clostridial 371 HPB species. In this study, it is noteworthy that an effect of the glycoside linkage on H₂ 372 production was shown by comparing cellobiose and maltose culture performances. A similar 373 glycoside linkage effect with opposite results has already been reported in a 374 hyperthermophilic pure culture of the archaeon Pyrococcus furiosus [50]. Chou et al. [50] 375 proposed that different H₂ productions from cellobiose and maltose by *P. furiosis* were due to 376 changes in metabolic routes. In our mixed cultures, the different H₂ yields can be explained 377 by changes in both HPB population and metabolic routes.

378

To date, glucose has been the most commonly-used carbon source for determining H_2 production ability in laboratories. The H_2 yields obtained from our glucose cultures (1.79 mol- H_2 /mol-hexose) were slightly higher than the reported yields of 1.46 mol- H_2 /mol-glucose 382 [51] and 1.67 mol-H₂/mol-glucose [52] from comparable batch tests using mixed microbial 383 cultures of heat-pretreated anaerobic sludge. In contrast, clostridial pure cultures, such as C. 384 acetobutylicum [53] and C. saccharoperbutylacetonicum ATCC 13564 [54] exhibited higher 385 H₂ yields (2.0 and 3.1 mol-H₂/mol-glucose, respectively) than our clostridial mixed cultures. 386 Using cellobiose as substrate, Ren et al. [55] also achieved higher H₂ yields in different pure 387 cultures (e.g. C. acetobutylicum and C. cellulolyticum) compared to the yield in our mixed 388 cultures: their results ranged from 1.6 to 2.3 mol-H₂/mol-hexose, ours was 1.5 mol-H₂/mol-389 hexose. Interestingly, C. acetobutylicum and C. cellulolyticum were detected in our cellobiose 390 cultures (Figure 2 and 3). These results confirm that in general mixed cultures produce less H₂ 391 than pure cultures with pure substrates. These results can be explained first of all by the 392 operating conditions, which were probably not optimal for the growth of such recognized 393 efficient HPB as C. acetobutylicum, C. cellulolyticum or C. sporogenes. An example here is 394 the initial pH of our medium which was adjusted to 5.5. This is lower that the optimal pH of 395 Clostridium species, even though this pH is known as optimal for H₂ production in mixed 396 cultures. But the low H₂ yield from mixed cultures can be related to the presence of clostridial 397 HCB and negative inter-species interaction occurring in complex anaerobic microbial 398 communities. Such biotic interactions have already been observed in artificially-engineered 399 fermentative ecosystems used in cheese ripening [56].

400

401 The variations in H_2 production performance were associated with changes in metabolic 402 profiles and HPB populations. The more efficient HPB cultures dominated by *C. sporogenes* 403 were characterized by high levels of acetate and butyrate production, each with pathways 404 linked to H_2 production; and, simultaneously, by low ethanol and lactate yields, as alternative 405 but non- H_2 -producing routes. Indeed, clostridial species are usually known to produce H_2 406 from a wide variety of carbohydrates *via* the butyrate-acetate fermentation route [2]. More 407 precisely, C. sporogenes is known to ferment mainly amino acids [57]. Recently, the 408 consumption of H₂ produced by glucose- or starch- fed HPB cultures amended by peptone has 409 been associated with the presence of C. sporogenes [58]. In glucose or maltotriose cultures, 410 H₂ consumption was concomitant with an increase in acetate. Consequently, H₂ consumption 411 detected in our cultures was most probably due to homoacetogenesis: it is a favored reaction 412 at pH 5.5 producing only acetate from H_2 and CO_2 [59]. In the disaccharide cultures, H_2 413 consumption probably also resulted from caproate formation [10, 60]. Indeed, the increase in 414 caproate concentration between the P and the final stages was associated with decreases in concentrations of butyrate, CO2 and H2. These findings are in agreement with another 415 416 pathway for caproate formation using sucrose as the substrate in fermentative HPB mixed cultures. These cultures consumed equimolar butyrate, H₂ and CO₂ in a thermodynamically-417 418 favorable reaction (ΔG = -143.34 kJ) [60]. Interestingly, previous studies on C. kluyveri during 419 H₂-producing glucose fermentation have reported the possibility of caproate formation from 420 ethanol and acetate or ethanol and butyrate [61].

421

422 The changes in HPB population structure associated with variations in the H₂ yield as a 423 function of the different carbohydrates was particularly interesting because each pure 424 clostridial culture was reported as metabolizing each of the six substrates tested [62]. 425 Although glucose is the preferred carbohydrate of many clostridial species, such species have 426 metabolic resources flexible enough to ferment a wide range of carbohydrates [12]. For 427 instance, C. acetobutylicum can metabolize glucose, cellobiose and maltose [55, 62]. Thus the 428 variation in H₂ yields may be due entirely to the use of different mechanisms for the 429 hydrolysis of the glycoside linkage and transport [12]. In this study, however, the structure of 430 the HPB populations changed depending on the type of the glycoside linkage and the chain 431 length. A single dominant HPB, i.e. C. sporogenes was selected in glucose, fructose and 432 sucrose cultures, cultures which presented the highest H₂ yield and similar metabolic profiles. 433 It is noteworthy that C. sporogenes has been reported previously as the dominant, key HPB 434 species in mesophilic mixed cultures using glucose or sucrose as the substrate [16, 58, 63]. 435 However, different HPB populations established on cellobiose, maltose and maltotriose have 436 been associated with different metabolic profiles. Remarkably, a more diverse HPB 437 population made up of C. sporogenes, C. cellulolyticum, C. acetobutylicum, C. 438 saccharobutylicum and C. kluyveri emerged with cellobiose as the substrate. The use of beta-439 linked carbohydrates for H₂ production by mesophilic mixed cultures seems to require a wider 440 range of clostridial species. These results suggest that cooperation between HPB can be 441 obtained on beta-linked carbohydrates whereas competition seems to occur on unlinked and 442 alpha-linked carbohydrates. C. acetobutylicum and C. cellulolyticum have been previously 443 reported as efficient H_2 producers on cellobiose [55, 64]. Like other clostridial species, C. 444 saccharobutylicum is able to grow on a wide range of carbohydrates, including cellobiose 445 [62]. C. kluyveri can grow anaerobically with ethanol and acetate as its sole source of energy 446 [65]. Interestingly, extreme thermophilic anaerobic microflora displayed less diversity of 16S 447 rRNA genes when enriched by cellobiose rather than glucose [13]. Yokoyama et al. [13] 448 enriched fairly similar microbial communities whatever the type of hexose while a clearly 449 different microbial community was enriched on xylose. Significant difference between 450 microbial communities grown on glucose or xylose have also been observed previously in 451 fermentative mixed cultures [19]. In our study, changes in dominant HPB species were 452 observed only when using different hexose-based carbohydrates. Overall, these findings 453 indicate firstly that clostridial HPB structure is sensitive to substrate change and secondly that 454 a specialization of the clostridial population occurs depending on the characteristics of the 455 carbohydrate used with mixed cultures. Shifts in the dominant HPB species associated with 456 variations in the H₂ yield have already been observed in batch experiments run at different 457 temperatures [16]. Moreover, as observed in cellobiose cultures, the increase in *hydA* gene 458 diversity was also detected in previous experiments with higher pH [10]. In this study, 459 changes in both diversity and the dominant HPB were observed depending on the type of 460 carbohydrate.

461

462 Using the metaproteomic approach, various proteins associated with clostridial species were 463 identified from mixed cultures. From glucose or fructose cultures at least two different 464 [FeFe]-H₂ases with different molecular mass were detected in the soluble fraction. Recently, 465 Calusinska et al. [66], on the basis of genome analysis, pointed out that some clostridial 466 species contain numerous distinct [FeFe]-H₂ases presumably to allow them to adapt quickly 467 to changing conditions. The species identified in glucose and fructose substrates are linked to 468 [FeFe]-H₂ases from C. novyi, C. carboxidivorans and C. sprorogenes. These clostridial 469 species present various [FeFe]-H₂ases belonging to the group A6, B2 and B3 [66]. Using the 470 metaproteomic approach, [FeFe]-H₂ases similar to those belonging to B2 and B3 types were 471 clearly identified. A protein belonging to the NADH dehydrogenase family was also 472 identified in the soluble fraction (Figure 4B, band d). This protein is similar to [2Fe2S] 473 ferredoxin. Analysis of the genome context showed that the corresponding genes belonged to, 474 respectively, an operon encoding the [FeFe]-H₂ase and the NADH quinone dehydrogenase. 475 The NADH subunit identified belonged to the group A8. This latter group seemed to be 476 NAD-dependent and was proposed as "heterodimeric bifurcative" H₂ase [66]. However as the 477 other subunits were not identified, we cannot affirm that this enzyme was present in our 478 conditions. Using cellobiose as the substrate, only one [FeFe]-H₂ase was detected similar to 479 that from C. cellulolyticum (group A1). A second H₂ase was identified in both the soluble as 480 well membrane fractions. This subunit belongs to the [NiFe]-H₂ase family. Analysis of the 481 genome showed that it was located in an operon with at least three other genes similar to Ech

482 H₂ases. This enzyme is similar to the [NiFe]-H₂ases belonging to the group 4 defined by 483 Vignais et al. [28, 48] and was closely related to the NADH: ubiquinone oxidoreductase. This 484 enzyme has been identified in various Bacteria and Archaea and its presence in Clostridia has 485 been the subject of speculation on the basis of genome analysis only: there is no data 486 concerning the function of this enzyme in *Clostridia*. In methanogens, it plays a role in the 487 first stage of methanogenesis. In Desulfovibrionaceae family, Ech H₂ase can work 488 bidirectionally, depending on the growth conditions [67]. This amounts to the first 489 identification of this group of H₂ase in *Clostridia*. [NiFe]-H₂ases belonging to group 1 490 (defined by Vignais et al. [28, 48]) was not detected in this study. These [NiFe]-H₂ases are 491 usually involved in H₂ uptake linked with energy metabolism and to our knowledge have only 492 been detected in the clostridial genome by sequence homology. Their physiological roles as 493 well as their protein properties in clostridial species are unknown.

494

495 Both the genetic and proteomic analyses highlighted changes in H₂ases diversity associated 496 with changes in carbohydrate type and, thus, H₂ production performances. Changes in genetic 497 diversity in [FeFe]-H₂ases have been previously demonstrated in relation to H₂ production 498 performances [15, 20]. Proteomic shifts have also been associated with metabolic shifts 499 during fermentation carried out by clostridial species [22, 23]. [FeFe]-H₂ases sequences from 500 similar clostridial species were recovered from the H₂-producing mixed cultures by these two 501 different molecular approaches. Like other primers currently cited in the literature and 502 targeting the cluster H of the hydA genes, the primers used in this study were only able to 503 target the sequences of Group A of [FeFe]-H₂ases, as defined by Calusinska et al. [66]. 504 Consequently, the [FeFe]-H₂ases belonging to group B, which were highlighted by the 505 proteomic approach and thus assumed to be active in the cultures, could not be detected by 506 the genetic fingerprinting method. Even so, it is important to emphasize that the hydA CE- 507 SSCP method has been proven helpful in providing an overview of HPB diversity and 508 structure in numerous samples from dark fermentation bioreactors. It is also useful in 509 comparing variations in such diversity and structure in response to changes in environmental 510 parameters [10, 16]. Using proteomic techniques, [Ni-Fe]-H₂ases were detected in cellobiose 511 cultures, cultures which showed the highest H₂ consumption rates. Recently, plasmid or 512 chromosomal genes encoding [NiFe]-H₂ases have been detected in the genome of some members of the Clostridium genus such as C. acetobutylicum, C. cellulolyticum or C. 513 514 sporogenes [66]. Interestingly, as found in this study, these clostridial strains were detected 515 during the H₂ consumption phase of previous batch experiments carried out in our laboratory 516 [10]. Contrary to [FeFe]-H₂ases and [NiFe]-H₂ases from *Proteobacteria*, [NiFe]-H₂ases from 517 *Clostridia* have not yet been studied and their physiological functions are still unknown [66]. 518 Consequently, it is still unclear whether clostridial [NiFe]-H₂ases can be associated with H₂ 519 consumption in dark fermentation bioreactors. Further research is needed to determine the 520 physiological roles played by the different [Fe-Fe]- and [Ni-Fe]-H₂ases in clostridial species. 521 To further analyze the role of these enzymes, differential transcriptome analyses of H₂ase-522 encoding genes under different operating conditions could well provide the basis for future 523 work.

525 **5.** Conclusions

526

527 The characteristics of carbohydrates were found to be important criteria influencing the 528 performance of dark fermentation systems. The hydrolysis of carbohydrate was shown as a 529 critical step in the H₂ production pathway. Monosaccharides led to more efficient H₂ 530 production performances when compared to di- and tri-saccharides. Moreover, the negative 531 effect of the glycoside chain length was amplified by the glycoside beta-linkage type. The 532 difference in performance with various carbohydrates was related to the enrichment of 533 different specialized clostridial species, which used diverse metabolic routes. Finally, we have 534 expanded the diversity spectrum of clostridial H₂ases potentially involved in H₂ metabolism 535 in fermentative mixed cultures by using a combination of proteomic and molecular genetic 536 approaches. Future work will undertake to continue clarifying the function of these diverse 537 H₂ases in clostridial species and to identify the key regulatory pathways in engineered/natural 538 H₂-producing ecosystems.

539 Acknowledgements



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747 Captions to figures

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Figure 1. Representative dynamics of H_2 production from a mixed culture cultivated with fructose as substrate and heat-treated anaerobic digested sludge as inoculum. Experimental data (triangles) and predicted Gompertz equation (solid lines) are shown. The estimated values of *P*, R_m and λ correspond to the H_2 production potential (mL/L), the maximum H_2 production rate (mL/L/day) and the lag-phase time (day), respectively. The R_c value, estimated by the H_2 decrease experimentally measured between the *P* time and the end of the experiments, corresponds to the H_2 consumption rate.

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757 Figure 2. CE-SSCP profiles of hydA gene fragments retrieved from H₂-producing 758 experiments conducted from different carbohydrates, at maximum H₂ production yields. The 759 different CE-SSCP profiles were aligned on the basis of the common ROX internal standard, 760 and areas normalized. The x and y axis of each CE-SSCP profile represent, respectively, the 761 relative peak migration distance and the relative peak intensity. A representative CE-SSCP 762 profile from the three replicates is presented for each substrate. The dominant peaks of each 763 CE-SSCP profile are marked with a number. The phylogenetic affiliation of the sequenced 764 clones that match a numbered peak is given in Figure 3.

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Figure 3. Neighbor-joining phylogenetic tree of the HydA sequences (134 amino acids). The Genbank accession numbers (in brackets) were obtained from the protein sequence databases. The sequences obtained in this study are in bold and highlighted. Bootstrap values (n = 1000 replicates) are indicated as grey circles (<50%). The scale bar indicates 5% sequence divergence. The *Desulfovibrio* HydA sequences (AAS96246, AAA23373 and CAA72423) were used as outgroups.

Figure 4. (A) SDS polyacrylamide gel of soluble crude extract. Lane 1: Molecular mass markers (in kDa). Lane 2: 200 µg of crude extract. (B) Immunoblotting experiments of crude extract from cellobiose (Lane 1) fructose (Lane 2), glucose (Lane 3), maltose (Lane 4) and sucrose (Lane 5) demonstrating the presence of hydrogenases. Molecular mass markers were

777 given in kDa.

Figure 1







Figure 3



Figure 4



Substates	Emistore	Chuasas	Sucrose	Maltose	Cellobiose	Maltotriose	Statistical
Substrates	Fructose	Glucose	G-(α 1,2)-F	G-(a 1,4)-G	G-(β 1,4)-G	G-(a 1,4)-G-(a 1,4)-G	significance ^b
$P \left(\text{L-H}_2/\text{L} \right)^{\text{a}}$	2.31 ± 0.21	2.24 ± 0.15	2.16 ± 0.12	2.08 ± 0.08	2.00 ± 0.08	1.85 ± 0.16	*
$R_m (L-H_2/L/d)^a$	0.91 ± 0.37	0.71 ± 0.19	0.92 ± 0.33	0.45 ± 0.03	0.41 ± 0.04	0.36 ± 0.08	*
$\lambda (day)^{a}$	1.69 ± 0.32	1.66 ± 0.19	1.82 ± 0.29	1.64 ± 0.09	2.04 ± 0.09	2.02 ± 0.10	n.s.
$R^{2}(\%)^{a}$	99.6 ± 0.4	99.5 ± 0.3	99.3 ± 0.6	98.7 ± 0.1	99.6 ± 0.2	99.3 ± 0.3	n.s.
H ₂ yield (mol-H ₂ /mol-hexose)	1.84 ± 0.17	1.79 ± 0.12	1.67 ± 0.09	1.65 ± 0.06	1.56 ± 0.06	1.38 ± 0.12	**
R_{c} (mL/L)	55.9 ± 20.5	62.8 ± 15.4	30.5 ± 34.3	53.6 ± 35.1	84.4 ± 1.4	41.9 ± 21.5	n.s.
Max. H_2 content (%)	32.5 ± 1.1	34.2 ± 1.0	32.8 ± 0.7	32.7 ± 1.1	32.4 ± 0.6	31.0 ± 1.3	*
Final H_2 content (%)	22.8 ± 0.7	22.7 ± 1.3	27.6 ± 3.5	26.4 ± 2.7	22.9 ± 0.7	25.1 ± 0.8	*
Time when P was reached (days)	7.7 ± 1.2	7.7 ± 1.2	9.7 ± 0.6	9.7 ± 0.6	9.7 ± 0.6	9.7 ± 0.6	*
Final pH	4.0 ± 0.0	4.0 ± 0.0	4.0 ± 0.0	<mark>3.9 ± 0.0</mark>	4.0 ± 0.0	4.0 ± 0.0	<mark>n.s.</mark>

Table 1. Performance of fermentative H₂ production from different type of carbohydrates

^a Parameters derived from modified Gompertz equation ^b Significant differences between substrate conditions are indicated by asterisks: **, p<0.005; *, p<0.05; n.s., not significant (p>0.05).

	Acetate		Butyrate		Caproate		Ethanol		Lactate		Bu/Ac ratio	
Substrates	(mmoles-Ac/mol-hexose)		(mmoles-Bu/mol-hexose)		(mmoles-Ca/mol-hexose)		(mmoles-Et/mol-hexose)		(mmoles-La/mol-hexose)			
	P time	Final time	P time	Final time								
Fructose	266.7	398.6	473.5	565.4	0.0	0.0	48.5	42.7	7.2	0.0	1.78	1.42
Glucose	245.8	218.0	449.9	310.5	0.0	0.0	45.8	0.0	6.5	0.0	1.83	1.42
Sucrose	370.2	271.3	540.5	333.8	0.0	20.6	59.7	56.2	6.6	0.0	1.46	1.23
Maltose	291.0	266.1	465.7	376.7	8.5	33.0	32.6	28.0	0.0	7.2	1.60	1.41
Cellobiose	309.3	279.7	454.7	327.1	10.8	43.2	78.6	41.4	18.8	0.0	1.47	1.17
Maltotriose	275.9	305.8	426.2	389.8	11.1	10.3	147.0	117.5	28.2	0.0	1.54	1.27

Table 2. Metabolite formation in fermentative mixed cultures from different carbohydrates

Band	N°	Protein name ^a	NCBI entry ^b	Coverage ^c	Peptides ^d	Mass ^e
а	1	Chaperonin GroEL	229261799	3.5	3	57.9
	2	Hypothetical protein	229261779	3.5	3	85.9
	3	FlaB	110164831	4.1	2	52.1
	4	Hydrogenase Fe only	220000195	4.5	4	62.5
	5	Chaperonin GroEL	18311271	2.4	2	65
	8	Hydrogenase Fe only	118444478 187779567	2.1	2	54.6
b	1	Conserved protein	28204348	7.6	2	48.5
	2	ATP dependent DNA ligase	219998149	13.4	4	36.8
	3	Putative Na antiporter	126698235	4.5	2	42.2
	4	Ech hydrogenase subunit	220930727	10.5	4	49.5
с	1	Transcriptor regulator Crp/Fnr	266620955	5.1	3	27.2
	2	SurE	255523330	4	4	27.4
	9	Fe-Hydrogenase	52854761	3.3	3	25.5
	12	Fe-Hydrogenase	255527517	2	1	46.8
d	53	NADH dehydrogenase	149905389	18.3	2	18.6

Table 3. Hydrogenase identification by metaproteomic analysis from Clostridium database. Proteins were identified by ion trap mass spectrometry from the band cut out from the SDS gel shown in Figure 4.

^a Protein name is name as given in NCBI database.
^b NCBI entry is the accession number.
^c Coverage indicates protein sequence coverage by the matching peptides (in %).
^d Peptides correspond to the number of different peptides matching to the protein sequence.

^e Mass indicates the theoretical molecular mass in kDa of the identified protein calculated from the amino acid sequence without possible processing or modifications.