

1    **The enzyme Rnf completes the pathway for forming propionate during fermentation in**

2    ***Prevotella***

3

4    Running title: Rnf and propionate formation

5    Bo Zhang, Christopher Lingga, Hannah De Groot, Timothy J. Hackmann#

6    Department of Animal Science, University of California, Davis, CA, USA

7

8    #Address correspondence to Timothy J. Hackmann, [tjhackmann@ucdavis.edu](mailto:tjhackmann@ucdavis.edu)

9

# ABSTRACT

Propionate is a microbial metabolite that is formed in the gastrointestinal tract, and it affects host physiology as a source of energy and signaling molecule. Despite the importance of propionate, the biochemical pathways responsible for its formation are not clear in all microbes. For the succinate pathway used during fermentation, a key enzyme appears to be missing—one that can oxidize ferredoxin and reduce NAD. Here we show that Rnf [ferredoxin--NAD(+) oxidoreductase (Na(+)-transporting)] is this key enzyme in two abundant bacteria of the rumen (*Prevotella brevis* and *Prevotella ruminicola*). We found these bacteria form propionate, succinate, and acetate with the classic succinate pathway. At first, this pathway appears unbalanced, forming reduced ferredoxin and oxidized NAD in excess. If this continued unabated, fermentation would halt within 1.5 s. We found these bacteria solve this problem by oxidizing ferredoxin and reducing NAD with Rnf. This is demonstrated using growth experiments, genomics, proteomics, and enzyme assays. Genomic and phenotypic data suggest many bacteria use Rnf similarly. We cataloged fermentation products of >1,400 species of prokaryotes, and nearly 10% formed propionate, succinate, and acetate. Over 40% of species carrying out this fermentation also had genes for Rnf. This work shows Rnf is important to propionate formation in many bacteria from the environment, and it provides fundamental knowledge for manipulating fermentative propionate production.

# INTRODUCTION

Metabolites formed via anaerobic fermentation in the gastrointestinal of mammals have great effects on the host physiology and health (1, 2). The major metabolites formed by gut bacteria during fermentation of dietary carbohydrates are short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs). As one of the major SCFAs, propionate can affect satiety and glucose homeostasis in humans (3, 4). It has beneficial effects on beta-cell function to maintain healthy glucose homeostasis (5). Recently, it has been demonstrated that propionate can suppress colorectal cancer growth (6, 7), while excess levels of propionate may lead to Alzheimer's disease by inducing hyperammonemia (8). Furthermore, propionate also plays important roles in other animals, such as ruminants. It is a major source of glucose for the ruminants, and about 50% of glucose is from propionate (9). Propionate formation in the rumen of ruminants is negatively related with methane emission, since they compete for metabolic hydrogen in the rumen. Favoring propionate formation could mitigate methane emissions (10). Realizing its importance in human health, agricultural production, and the environment, studies focusing on biochemical pathways have revealed many enzymes responsible for fermentative propionate production (11, 12).

Three biochemical pathways are responsible for fermentative propionate production from dietary carbohydrates, including the succinate pathway, the acrylate pathway, and the propanediol pathway (11, 12). Propionate is most commonly formed using the succinate pathway and in combination with acetate. This pathway involves the conversion of succinate to propionate via methylmalonyl-CoA. Some organisms with this pathway include *Bacteroides fragilis* (13) and *Selenomonas ruminantium* (14). The acrylate pathway involves the conversion of lactate to lactoyl-CoA, acryloyl-CoA, propionyl-CoA and propionate, e.g. *Coprococcus catus* (11) and

*Megasphaera elsdenii* (15). Some gut commensal bacteria, such as *Roseburia inulinivorans* (16), carry out the propanediol pathway to form propionate from deoxy sugars.

Despite decades of study, one major biochemical pathway (i.e. the succinate pathway) for forming propionate has unknown steps. When glucose is the substrate, this pathway has a problem: it forms excess amounts of reduced ferredoxin ( $Fd_{red}$ ), a redox cofactor (Fig. 1A) (17). This cofactor is formed by the enzyme pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase (EC 1.2.7.1), and no step is known to oxidize it back to ferredoxin ( $Fd_{ox}$ ) during this pathway. Similarly, the pathway forms oxidized NAD ( $NAD_{ox}$ ), with no step to reduce it back to reduced NAD ( $NAD_{red}$ ). This is an apparent problem in both prokaryotes (17, 18) and eukaryotes (19). These unknown steps are important because if  $Fd_{ox}$  and  $NAD_{red}$  is exhausted (not regenerated), fermentation will halt.

We hypothesized that the enzyme Rnf fills in the missing steps (Fig. 1B). The enzyme Rnf [ferredoxin--NAD(+) oxidoreductase (Na(+)-transporting), EC 7.2.1.2] simultaneously oxidizes  $Fd_{red}$  and reduces  $NAD_{ox}$ , solving two problems at once. This enzyme plays a similar role in other pathways, such as one metabolizing caffeine (20). Recently, we found Rnf genes in many propionate-forming bacteria from the rumen (17). Here we study two of these rumen bacteria in detail and find that they indeed use Rnf in forming propionate (or its precursor, succinate). We show this using growth experiments, genomics, proteomics, and enzyme assays. Further, we find Rnf is common in bacteria that form propionate (or succinate), with 44 type strains from many habitats encoding it. This work suggests Rnf is important to propionate formation in many bacteria from the environment.

## RESULTS

### *Prevotella* form propionate, succinate, and acetate during fermentation



Our hypothesis was that fermentation of glucose to propionate, succinate, and acetate uses Rnf. We studied this in two bacteria from the rumen (*Prevotella brevis* GA33 and *Prevotella ruminicola* 23). The first step was to verify that these organisms form propionate, succinate, and acetate and in the ratios expected (Fig. 1). We grew these bacteria on media containing glucose and ammonia, then analyzed the culture for several products. For *P. brevis* GA33, we used a medium that also contained yeast extract and trypticase, as it would not grow on media with glucose only.

Both species formed large amounts of succinate and acetate (Fig. 2A). Propionate was formed in large amounts by *P. ruminicola* 23, whereas it was formed in only trace amounts by *P. brevis* GA33 (Fig. S1). The ratio of succinate and propionate to acetate was approximately 2:1. They also formed formate, D-lactate, and L-lactate, but only in trace amounts. These results follow our expectations (Fig. 1).

Neither species formed H<sub>2</sub> (Fig. S2). As a control, we analyzed gas samples from *S. ruminantium* HD4, a propionate-forming bacterium that forms H<sub>2</sub> in trace amounts (21). We were indeed able to detect H<sub>2</sub> formation by this organism (Fig. S2). This result shows that if *Prevotella* formed H<sub>2</sub>, even in trace amounts, we would have been able to detect it.

To check how accurately we measured products, we calculated carbon and hydrogen recovery (Fig. 2B and C). A recovery of 100% indicates that all carbon (or hydrogen) at the start of incubation was recovered in products measured at the end. We found recoveries were near or above 100%. For *P. brevis* GA33, values were above 100% because our calculations did not account for trypticase and yeast extract also in the medium of this bacterium. The high recoveries of carbon and hydrogen indicate that we measured all products accurately.

In sum, our work shows that *Prevotella* form propionate, succinate, and acetate as the sole products of fermentation (Fig. 2D). Additionally, they form these products in the ratio expected (Fig. 1).

# **Fermentation in *Prevotella* appears to be unbalanced**

We hypothesized that *Prevotella* use Rnf to balance fermentation. Without this enzyme, fermentation should produce excess NAD<sub>ox</sub> and Fd<sub>red</sub>. We determined if this was indeed the case for *Prevotella*.

We calculated the quantity of NAD<sub>ox</sub> and Fd<sub>red</sub> produced during the experiments above (Table S1). Our calculations revealed that excess NAD<sub>ox</sub> and Fd<sub>red</sub> were indeed formed. The amount was 2.7 NAD<sub>ox</sub> and 2.3 Fd<sub>red</sub> per 3 glucose (Table S1). This was even higher than expected (Fig. 1) and owed to additional NAD<sub>ox</sub> and Fd<sub>red</sub> being formed during production of cells (particularly lipid) (Table S2). This calculation did not include the activity of Rnf, and it shows without this enzyme, fermentation would indeed be unbalanced.

Next, we calculated how long cells could sustain such an unbalanced fermentation. We calculated that all Fd<sub>ox</sub> would be consumed and fermentation would halt within 1.5 s. This calculation assumes 2.3 Fd<sub>red</sub> per 3 glucose fermented (Table S1), 667 nmol glucose fermented (g dry cells)<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (see Materials and Methods), 75 nmol total ferredoxin/g wet cells (22), wet cells are 10% dry mass, and all ferredoxin starts as Fd<sub>ox</sub>. Without Rnf, cells could sustain fermentation only for seconds (or less).

We performed calculations on *P. ruminicola* 23 only. To calculate the quantity of NAD<sub>ox</sub> and Fd<sub>red</sub> formed during production of cells, we assumed macromolecules were synthesized from

glucose and ammonia (Table S2). This would have been a bad assumption for *P. brevis* GA33, where macromolecules could have come from trypticase and yeast extract.

Our calculation points to an apparent excess of NAD<sub>ox</sub> and Fd<sub>red</sub> formed during fermentation and growth. It shows a critical need for Rnf or a similar enzyme.

# ***Prevotella* have Rnf [ferredoxin--NAD(+) oxidoreductase (Na(+)-transporting)]**

Having established a need for an enzyme like Rnf, we determined if this activity of Rnf is indeed possessed by *Prevotella*. Genomics, proteomics, and enzyme assays were used to test its presence.

We found Rnf in both the genome and proteome (Fig. 3, Table S3, Table S4). The genomes of both species had genes for all six subunits of this enzyme (Fig. 3A). Proteomics revealed genes for four subunits were expressed in *P. brevis* GA33 and three in *P. ruminicola* 23 (Fig. 3B). Our methods were exhaustive and used multiple sample types (cell extract, cell membrane) and acquisition methods (data-dependent acquisition, data-independent acquisition). The two subunits we never detected (RnfA and RnfE) are predicted to be integral proteins, which are challenging targets in proteomics. These subunits have evaded detection even in purified Rnf (23).

After finding evidence of Rnf in the genome and proteome, we tested for its catalytic activity [ferredoxin--NAD(+) oxidoreductase] with enzyme assays (Fig. 3C). To do so, we measured formation of NAD<sub>red</sub> by cell membranes after adding Fd<sub>red</sub>. Using these assays, we found that cell membrane of both *Prevotella* species had activity (Fig. 3C). The activity depended on adding both Fd<sub>red</sub> and NAD<sub>ox</sub>. Further, activity was localized to the membrane; activity in cytoplasmic contents was low for *P. brevis* GA33 (3.1 [0.5] (mean [standard error of mean]) mU/mg) and undetectable for *P. ruminicola* 23. These experiments show *Prevotella* had activity

of Rnf, and the properties were as expected. Likewise, these experiments rule out the presence of a similar enzyme in the cytoplasm [a cytoplasmic ferredoxin--NAD(+) oxidoreductase].

At first, activity observed in the cell membrane appeared low. However, we found higher activity after correcting for activity of NADH dehydrogenase that leads to consumption of NAD<sub>red</sub> formed in the assay (Fig. 3C). This correction is commonly done for other NADH-dependent enzymes [see, for example, Asanuma and Hino (24)], and it makes sense to do it with Rnf. We found still higher activity after performing a partial purification of Rnf (by solubilizing cell membranes in detergent) (Fig. 3C). This shows that activity, at first low, is indeed present and on par with other membrane-bound enzymes (see below).

To verify that this activity was due to Rnf, not another enzyme, we determined its dependence on sodium ion (Fig. 4). In most species, Rnf pumps sodium ions (to create a gradient) and thus depends on them for high activity (23, 25, 26). We found that *P. brevis* GA33 did not grow without sodium, showing a general dependence on this ion (Fig. 4A). We found the same for *P. ruminicola* 23 (data not shown). Further, when we directly tested if sodium ion stimulated the catalytic activity of Rnf, we found that it did (Fig. 4B).

Our enzyme assays required Fd<sub>red</sub>, which we generated using a system similar to Schoelmerich et al. (27). Specifically, we purified ferredoxin from *C. pasteurianum* 5, then we reduced it with pyruvate and crude pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase. The crude pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase was cytoplasmic contents from the organism in which Rnf was tested (*P. brevis* GA33 or *P. ruminicola* 23). We verified that the crude pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase worked as intended. First, we used it to detect activity of Rnf in *Pseudobutyrvibrio ruminis* A12-1. We found activity of 50.0 [1.9] mU/mg, which is similar to the value found by schoelmerich et al. (27) for the same organism. Second, we screened it for

activity of interfering enzymes, including a cytoplasmic ferredoxin--NAD(+) oxidoreductase and pyruvate dehydrogenase. We found these interfering activities were low or undetectable (see results above for cytoplasmic ferredoxin--NAD(+) oxidoreductase and see below for pyruvate dehydrogenase). These results show this system is appropriate for generating Fd<sub>red</sub> in Rnf assays.

In sum, our work at the genomic proteomic, and enzymatic level establishes that *Prevotella* have Rnf. With it, *Prevotella* can handle excess NAD<sub>ox</sub> and Fd<sub>red</sub> produced during fermentation.

### ***Prevotella* have other enzymes needed to form fermentation products**

After finding that Rnf was present in *Prevotella*, we determined if other enzymes forming propionate, succinate, and acetate were also present. This was important to confirm that redox cofactors (NAD<sub>ox</sub> and Fd<sub>red</sub>) are produced in the pathway as expected. Again, we relied on genomics, proteomics, and enzyme assays.

We found enzymes of the classic succinate pathway in the genome and proteome (Fig. 5, Table S3, Table S4). When using proteomics, we found cytoplasmic enzymes were well detected (Fig. 5A). Membrane-bound proteins were also detected, though some subunits (corresponding to integral proteins) were missed (as with Rnf) (Fig. 5B). The membrane-bound proteins Nqr (EC 7.2.1.1) and fumarate reductase (EC 1.3.5.1) in our bacteria have also been detected in *Prevotella bryantii* B<sub>14</sub> (28), where they have been characterized. Together, these enzymes form a pathway where Rnf is needed to regenerate NAD<sub>red</sub> and Fd<sub>ox</sub>.

There was one enzyme missing in *P. brevis* GA33 and another in *P. ruminicola* 23 (Fig. 5A). In *P. brevis* GA33, an enzyme of glycolysis (enolase) was missing in the genome and proteome. This has no easy explanation but has been found previously in the genome (17, 29). In *P. ruminicola* 23, an enzyme for converting succinate to propionate was likewise missing. Despite

this finding, there is evidence the enzyme is present (or substituted by a similar enzyme). The conversion of succinate to propionate is well known to require vitamin B<sub>12</sub> (30), and *P. ruminicola* 23 formed propionate only when this vitamin was in the media (data not shown). Others have found the same for this bacterium (31). With a few possible exceptions, our work shows that *Prevotella* have the expected enzymes in the genome and proteome.

After finding evidence in the genome and proteome, we tested for catalytic activity of key enzymes (Table 2). We focused mostly on enzymes that generate redox cofactors used by Rnf. We detected activity in all cases expected. For example, we found activity of malate dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.1.37), which produces NAD<sub>ox</sub> (used by Rnf). A similar enzyme producing NADP<sub>ox</sub> (EC 1.1.1.82) was also detected, but with lower activity. Our work confirms that *Prevotella* have the expected enzymes for forming propionate, succinate, and acetate—including those that form NAD<sub>ox</sub> and Fd<sub>red</sub>. Rnf is needed to complete this pathway.

# **Rnf is important in many organisms forming propionate, succinate, and acetate**

We wanted to see if Rnf is distributed widely in organisms that form propionate, succinate, and acetate. To do so, we used genomic and phenotypic data for prokaryotes from *Bergey's Manual of Systematics of Archaea and Bacteria* (Table S5).

We first determined how many prokaryotes form propionate, succinate, and acetate during fermentation. We constructed a heat map to summarize fermentation products reported for organisms in *Bergey's Manual* (Fig. 6). This encompasses 39 products from over 1,400 type strains (Table S5). We found that prokaryotes that form exclusively propionate/succinate and acetate (no other products) represent about 10% of the total. Thus, fermentations that form propionate, succinate, and acetate are common.

Next, we determined the occurrence of Rnf genes in prokaryotes (Fig. 7, Table S6). We used a total of  $n = 3,775$  type strains for which a genome sequence was available. We found that Rnf genes were uncommon in prokaryotes in general (Fig. 7A). However, these genes were more common in prokaryotes that are fermentative and even more so in those that form propionate, succinate, and acetate. This shows a clear importance of Rnf in such organisms.

In total, 44 type strains encoded Rnf and formed propionate, succinate, and acetate during fermentation. A phylogenetic tree shows that these strains are diverse, and they belong to 15 genera (Fig. 7B). Examining their habitats shows that they come from the gut, aquatic sediment, anaerobic digesters, and elsewhere (Fig. 7C, Table S7). Together, these results suggest Rnf is important to propionate formation not just in *Prevotella*, but to many organisms from various habitats.

### **Organisms have alternatives to Rnf, but they are uncommon**

By oxidizing  $\text{Fd}_{\text{red}}$  and reducing  $\text{NAD}_{\text{ox}}$ , Rnf is one enzyme that fills in the missing step of the pathway we study. However, other alternatives can be imagined. To see if any alternatives were common, we used the same genomic and phenotypic data for prokaryotes as before.

We considered five possible pathways (Fig. S3, Table S6, Table S7). One pathway involves the enzyme pyruvate dehydrogenase (EC 1.2.4.1) (Fig. S3A). When this enzyme replaces pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase, the resulting pathway is balanced without Rnf. This in fact is the pathway originally proposed for propionate formation 60 years ago (32). However, it is uncommon; only 17% of organisms that form propionate, succinate, and acetate encode this enzyme. The four other pathways—involving prototypical hydrogenase (EC 1.12.7.2), bifurcating

hydrogenase (EC 1.12.1.4), formate dehydrogenase (EC 1.17.5.3), or *Campylobacter*-type Nuo (33, 34)—are even less common (Fig. S3).

None of these five pathways was found in *Prevotella*. Their genomes did not encode the appropriate enzymes (Tables S3, S4, and S6). We tested cell extracts for catalytic activity of pyruvate dehydrogenase, and we did not find any in *P. brevis* GA33 or *P. ruminicola* 23. We found similar results for cytoplasmic contents and that there was no detectable activity of pyruvate dehydrogenase. As a control, we tested cell extracts of a bacterium with pyruvate dehydrogenase [*E. coli* BL21(DE3)pLysS], and we found high activity (>1 U/mg protein). We also found high activity when spiking cell extract of this bacterium into cell extracts of *P. brevis* GA33 and *P. ruminicola* 23. These controls show our assay worked. Further, we found *P. brevis* GA33 and *P. ruminicola* 23 formed only trace quantities of formate, and they formed no H<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2, Fig. S2). In sum, there are no obvious alternatives to Rnf to *Prevotella*. This underscores the importance of Rnf in organisms forming propionate, succinate, and acetate.

## DISCUSSION

Our study shows Rnf is important to forming propionate during fermentation. In *Prevotella*, we show that fermentation is apparently unbalanced and produces excess Fd<sub>red</sub> and NAD<sub>ox</sub>. Rnf handles the excess Fd<sub>red</sub> and NAD<sub>ox</sub> by converting them back to Fd<sub>ox</sub> and NAD<sub>red</sub>. No other enzyme (or combination of enzymes) had this activity. Rnf thus completes the pathway and allows fermentation to continue.

The pathway for forming propionate has been studied for over 60 years (32), yet the need for an enzyme like Rnf was only recently recognized (17, 18). A likely reason Rnf has been overlooked is the pathway was first elucidated in propionibacteria (32). Propionibacteria have



pyruvate dehydrogenase, which, if used, would make the pathway balanced without Rnf (Fig. S3) (32). A pathway with pyruvate dehydrogenase, though plausible, appears seldom used. First, our work shows few organisms forming propionate also encode pyruvate dehydrogenase. Second, propionibacteria themselves may not use this enzyme. Recent work shows they also have pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase, which is expressed (18, 35) and required for normal growth (18). In *Prevotella*, we found activity of pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase, but not pyruvate dehydrogenase. Thus, there is a real need for an enzyme like Rnf.

Given this need, we looked for direct evidence of Rnf in *Prevotella*, and we used multiple approaches. Growth experiments showed that fermentation would be unbalanced without Rnf. They showed the problem was serious, and without Rnf, fermentation would halt within 1.5 s. Genomics and proteomics showed that *Prevotella* both encoded and expressed Rnf. Enzyme assays showed *Prevotella* had catalytic activity of Rnf, and its properties were as expected. Our experiments also ruled out alternatives to Rnf. For example, our enzyme assays ruled out presence of a similar enzyme in the cytoplasm [a cytoplasmic ferredoxin--NAD(+) oxidoreductase]. Our growth experiments ruled out H<sub>2</sub> or formate as other ways of balancing fermentation. In sum, multiple lines of evidence show that *Prevotella* have Rnf and that it balances fermentation.

Our work shows Rnf is encoded by many organisms that form propionate, succinate, and acetate. This result suggests Rnf is important not just to *Prevotella* but many other organisms. Our results also show additional strategies must exist for balancing redox cofactors. We show five strategies, though none is as common as Rnf. Further, we do not examine eukaryotes, even though they have the same problem (19).

Propionate is most commonly formed by succinate pathway, but the acrylate pathway is an alternative. Rnf would be important to either pathway. Though the two pathways involve different

carbon intermediates, both produce excess  $\text{NAD}_{\text{ox}}$  and  $\text{Fd}_{\text{red}}$  (2 each per 3 glucose) [see (17)]. Indeed, Rnf is in the proteome of one bacterium that uses the acrylate pathway (36). During ethanol metabolism via the acrylate pathway in a propionate-producer *Anaerotignum neopropionicum*, Rnf is predicted to operate in the reverse direction to reduce  $\text{Fd}_{\text{ox}}$  and oxidize  $\text{NAD}_{\text{red}}$  at the expense of ATP (37). Furthermore, Rnf could be important for NADH regeneration in strains of *Clostridium saccharoperbutylacetonicum* metabolically engineered to produce propionate via the acrylate pathway (38). As an aside, one study suggested that *P. ruminicola* 23 uses the acrylate pathway, not the succinate pathway (39). Our study and others (31) do not support this idea, but Rnf would be important regardless.

The knowledge that Rnf is involved in propionate production is critical for manipulating fermentative propionate production. Modification of metabolic pathways involving redox reactions for synthesis of target metabolites often introduces redox imbalance, which affects the growth and production of the engineered microbes (40). Several cofactor-engineering strategies have been developed to solve the problematic redox imbalance issue (41, 42); however, it is difficult to address this when the knowledge about enzymes involved in redox balance are unknown.

In sum, Rnf completes the pathway for forming propionate formation during fermentation. It has importance in the bacteria we study in the rumen and for bacteria from many other habitats. This work is key to understanding how propionate is formed in the environment and to manipulating its production.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Organisms

*P. brevis* GA33 and *P. ruminicola* 23 were obtained from the ATCC. *Clostridium pasteurianum* 5 and *Pseudobutyrvibrio ruminis* A12-1 were obtained from the DSMZ. *Selenomonas ruminantium* HD4 was obtained from Michael Flythe (USDA-ARS, Lexington, KY) and originally isolated by Marvin Bryant (43). *Escherichia coli* BL21(DE3)pLysS was from Promega.

### Media and growth

Except where noted, strains were grown anaerobically under O<sub>2</sub>-free CO<sub>2</sub> and with serum bottles with butyl rubber stoppers (44, 45). The inoculant (seed) was 0.1 mL volume of a stationary-phase culture. The temperature of growth was 37°C.

*P. brevis* GA33 and *S. ruminantium* HD4 were cultured on the medium PC+VFA (46). *P. ruminis* A12-1 was cultured on a complex medium as described by Schoelmerich et al. (27). *P. ruminicola* 23 was cultured on medium BZ. We developed this defined medium from a complex medium (47). Per liter, the medium contained 8 g glucose, 0.6 g K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 0.45 g KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 0.45 g (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 0.9 g NaCl, 92 mg MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 0.12 g CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O, 2 mL of 0.5 g/L hemin in 10 mM NaOH, 1 mL 0.1% (w/v) resazurin, 1 mL trace element SL-9 (48), 10 mL DSMZ-medium-141 Wolin's vitamin solution, 0.1 mg vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, 322.7 µL isobutyric acid, 322.7 µL 2-methylbutyric acid, 322.7 µL valeric acid, 322.7 µL isovaleric acid, 4 g Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>, and 1.2 g L-cysteine·HCl·H<sub>2</sub>O. Glucose, Wolin's vitamin solution, and vitamin B<sub>12</sub> were added to medium BZ after autoclaving. *C. pasteurianum* 5 was cultured on a glucose medium in 1-L Pyrex bottle sealed with stoppers. Per liter, the medium contained 20 g glucose, 15.329 g K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 1.5 g KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 0.1 g NaCl, 98 mg

MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 10 mg Na<sub>2</sub>MoO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O, 1 g NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, 50 mg FeSO<sub>4</sub>·7 H<sub>2</sub>O, 5 mg 4-aminobenzoic acid, and 1 mg biotin. *E. coli* BL21(DE3)pLysS was cultured aerobically on Luria-Bertani medium.

Growth of cultures was measured by removing 1-mL aliquots with a syringe and measuring optical density at 600 nm (OD<sub>600</sub>) in cuvettes in a Thermo Scientific Genesys 20 spectrophotometer. The sample was diluted with 0.9% (w/v) NaCl as needed to remain within the linear range of the instrument.

### **Analysis of fermentation products and cells**

Three, 70-mL cultures were inoculated and grown to the late-log phase (OD<sub>600</sub> = 1.3 for *P. brevis* GA33 and OD<sub>600</sub> = 4.0 for *P. ruminicola* 23). Cells were harvested by centrifugation (21,100 × *g* for 20 min at 4°C). The supernatant was stored at -20°C. Cell pellets were resuspended in ddH<sub>2</sub>O and harvested by centrifugation (21,100 × *g* for 30 min at 4°C). Pellets were transferred to aluminum pans with ddH<sub>2</sub>O and dried at 105 °C overnight. The dry mass of cells was determined by weighing the pan with dried pellet (while still hot) (49). After cooling, an aliquot of pellet was submitted for elemental analysis (C, H, N) by Intertek (Whitehouse, NJ). The cooled pellet was reweighed to correct for any water absorbed.

Supernatant was analyzed for glucose and fermentation products according to Zhang et al. (50) with modifications. Specifically, acetate was measured by gas chromatography rather than enzymatic assay. Ethanol was measured with a commercial kit from Megazyme (product code K-ETOH).

One aliquot of culture (5-mL) was also collected at the start of the incubation. Cells were removed, and supernatant was analyzed as above. The inoculant for cultures was 0.1 mL of a late-log phase culture. The dry mass of cells in this inoculant was determined by methods above. The

elemental composition (C, H, N) was assumed to be the same as cells inoculated and grown to the late-log phase.

### **Recovery of carbon and hydrogen**

We calculated recovery of carbon in cells and fermentation products. Recovery is defined as the (total carbon at end)/(total carbon at start)  $\times$  100%.

Total carbon (mmol C L<sup>-1</sup>) was the sum of carbon in cells, glucose, fermentation acids, and CO<sub>2</sub>. For CO<sub>2</sub>, we defined the concentration at the start as 0. The concentration at the end was calculated from stoichiometry, assuming -1 CO<sub>2</sub>/formate, 1 CO<sub>2</sub>/acetate, -1 CO<sub>2</sub>/succinate, 2 CO<sub>2</sub>/butyrate, 2 CO<sub>2</sub>/isobutyrate, 1 CO<sub>2</sub>/valerate, 1 CO<sub>2</sub>/isovalerate, and 1 CO<sub>2</sub>/ethanol [after Hackmann et al. (51)]. CO<sub>2</sub> formed during cell synthesis was ignored.

Recovery of hydrogen was calculated analogously. For H<sub>2</sub>O, we defined the concentration at the start (mmol H L<sup>-1</sup>) as 0. We calculated the concentration at the end (mmol H L<sup>-1</sup>) from stoichiometry, assuming 1 H<sub>2</sub>O/acetate, 1 H<sub>2</sub>O/propionate, and 1 H<sub>2</sub>O/succinate [after Hackmann et al. (51)]. H<sub>2</sub>O formed during cell synthesis was ignored.

### **Rate of glucose fermentation**

We measured rate of glucose fermentation by *P. ruminicola* 23 in the mid-exponential phase. Samples of culture were collected at 4 points during this phase [where ln(OD<sub>600</sub>) increased linearly over time]. The glucose concentration (mmol L<sup>-1</sup>) was measured as above. The dry cell weight (g dry cell L<sup>-1</sup>) was calculated from OD<sub>600</sub> (referring to samples where both OD<sub>600</sub> and weight were known). The rate of glucose consumption [nmol glucose (g dry cell)<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>] was directly calculated. The rate of glucose fermentation was assumed to be glucose consumption  $\times$  0.642 (see Table S1). The final value for three biological replicates was 667 nmol glucose fermented (g dry cell)<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>.

## Proteomics

We used proteomics to determine what genes were expressed in the cells of *P. brevis* GA33 and *P. ruminicola* 23. Peptide samples from cell extract and cell membrane were prepared and analyzed using LC-MS (see Text S1 for details).

## Enzyme assays

We measured activities of enzymes in cell extract, cell membrane, and cytoplasmic contents. Assays were performed following Zhang et al (50). The temperature and other conditions were as reported in Table 1. One unit of activity is defined as 1  $\mu$ mol of product formed per min. To correct Rnf activity for NADH dehydrogenase activity, we added to its value the activity measured for Nqr (see Table 2).

Samples (cell extract, cell membrane, cytoplasmic contents) were prepared according to Text S1. When required, ferredoxin was purified from *C. pasteurianum* 5 was according to reference (52) with modifications (see Text S1).

## Other chemical analyses

Protein was measured using the Bradford method (53). The standard was bovine serum albumin. H<sub>2</sub> was measured with gas chromatography (see Text S1).

## Information for organisms in Bergey's Manual

We collected phenotypic, genomic, and other information for organisms in *Bergey's Manual of Systematics of Archaea and Bacteria* (54). All n = 1,836 articles for genera in *Bergey's Manual* was downloaded. Names and written descriptions of n = 8,026 type strains were then extracted from the text. We used R scripts from Hackmann and Zhang (55) to automate this process. To

collect phenotypic information, we read written descriptions of the type strains. This information included fermentative ability and major fermentation endproducts. To collect genomic information, R scripts from Hackmann and Zhang (55) were used. The scripts first extracted out the organism's taxonomy and article link from the written description. The scripts then used the taxonomy to find an organism's GOLD organism ID, GOLD project ID, and IMG genome ID.

### **Searches for genes and proteins**

We searched genomes for genes involved in forming propionate, succinate, and acetate. To do so, we used IMG/M database (56), the IMG/M genome ID for each genome, and the KEGG Orthology (KO) ID for each gene (57). For some genes, we searched for the COG (58) or pfam (59) ID instead. For hydrogenases, we followed methods in Text S1.

For each gene, we report the respective enzyme name, enzyme symbol, EC number, and biochemical reaction. This information came from KEGG (57) and HydDB (60). An enzyme was considered present in the genome if genes for all subunits was found. A reaction was considered present if at least one isozyme was found.

### **Other bioinformatic analyses**

Proteomes were searched for proteins using locus tags for genes above. Phylogenetic trees were constructed according to Hackmann and Zhang (55). We identified habitats of organisms forming propionate, succinate, and acetate using *Bergey's Manual* (54), BacDive (61), and information from public culture collections. Structures of proteins were predicted using ColabFold (62), then they were visualized with PyMOL according to Hackmann (63).

## Statistics

A one-sided *t*-tests was used to determine if mean yield of fermentation products and mean values of enzymatic activity was greater than 0. *P*-values reported are for that test.

## Data availability

The LC-MS data have been deposited in the Proteomics Identification (PRIDE) Archive with the dataset identifier PXD034119.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Dr. Gabriela Grigorean of the UC Davis Proteomics Core for performing LC-MS analysis. This work was supported by an Agriculture and Food Research Initiative Competitive Grant [grant no. 2018-67015-27495] and Hatch Project [accession no. 1019985] from the United States Department of Agriculture National Institute of Food and Agriculture.

## REFERENCES

1. Fan Y, Pedersen O. 2021. Gut microbiota in human metabolic health and disease. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 19:55-71.
2. Krautkramer KA, Fan J, Backhed F. 2021. Gut microbial metabolites as multi-kingdom intermediates. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 19:77-94.
3. Blaak EE, Canfora EE, Theis S, Frost G, Groen AK, Mithieux G, Nauta A, Scott K, Stahl B, van Harsselaar J, van Tol R, Vaughan EE, Verbeke K. 2020. Short chain fatty acids in human gut and metabolic health. *Benef Microbes* 11:411-455.
4. Hosseini E, Grootaert C, Verstraete W, Van de Wiele T. 2011. Propionate as a health-promoting microbial metabolite in the human gut. *Nutr Rev* 69:245-58.



5. Pingitore A, Chambers ES, Hill T, Maldonado IR, Liu B, Bewick G, Morrison DJ, Preston T, Wallis GA, Tedford C, Castanera Gonzalez R, Huang GC, Choudhary P, Frost G, Persaud SJ. 2017. The diet-derived short chain fatty acid propionate improves beta-cell function in humans and stimulates insulin secretion from human islets in vitro. *Diabetes Obes Metab* 19:257-265.
6. Ryu TY, Kim K, Son MY, Min JK, Kim J, Han TS, Kim DS, Cho HS. 2019. Downregulation of PRMT1, a histone arginine methyltransferase, by sodium propionate induces cell apoptosis in colon cancer. *Oncol Rep* 41:1691-1699.
7. Ryu TY, Kim K, Han TS, Lee MO, Lee J, Choi J, Jung KB, Jeong EJ, An DM, Jung CR, Lim JH, Jung J, Park K, Lee MS, Kim MY, Oh SJ, Hur K, Hamamoto R, Park DS, Kim DS, Son MY, Cho HS. 2022. Human gut-microbiome-derived propionate coordinates proteasomal degradation via HECTD2 upregulation to target EHMT2 in colorectal cancer. *ISME J* 16:1205-1221.
8. Killingsworth J, Sawmiller D, Shytle RD. 2021. Propionate and Alzheimer's Disease. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 12:580001.
9. Bergman EN. 1990. Energy contributions of volatile fatty acids from the gastrointestinal tract in various species. *Physiol Rev* 70:567-90.
10. Wang K, Xiong B, Zhao X. 2022. Could propionate formation be used to reduce enteric methane emission in ruminants? *Sci Total Environ* 855:158867.
11. Reichardt N, Duncan SH, Young P, Belenguer A, McWilliam Leitch C, Scott KP, Flint HJ, Louis P. 2014. Phylogenetic distribution of three pathways for propionate production within the human gut microbiota. *ISME J* 8:1323-35.

12. Louis P, Flint HJ. 2017. Formation of propionate and butyrate by the human colonic microbiota. *Environ Microbiol* 19:29-41.
13. Macy JM, Ljungdahl LG, Gottschalk G. 1978. Pathway of succinate and propionate formation in *Bacteroides fragilis*. *J Bacteriol* 134:84-91.
14. Paynter MJ, Elsdén SR. 1970. Mechanism of propionate formation by *Selenomonas ruminantium*, a rumen micro-organism. *J Gen Microbiol* 61:1-7.
15. Hino T, Kuroda S. 1993. Presence of lactate dehydrogenase and lactate racemase in *Megasphaera elsdenii* grown on glucose or lactate. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 59:255-9.
16. Scott KP, Martin JC, Campbell G, Mayer CD, Flint HJ. 2006. Whole-genome transcription profiling reveals genes up-regulated by growth on fucose in the human gut bacterium "*Roseburia inulinivorans*". *J Bacteriol* 188:4340-9.
17. Hackmann TJ, Ngugi DK, Firkins JL, Tao J. 2017. Genomes of rumen bacteria encode atypical pathways for fermenting hexoses to short-chain fatty acids. *Environ Microbiol* 19:4670-4683.
18. McCubbin T, Gonzalez-Garcia RA, Palfreyman RW, Stowers C, Nielsen LK, Marcellin E. 2020. A pan-genome guided metabolic network reconstruction of five *Propionibacterium* species reveals extensive metabolic diversity. *Genes (Basel)* 11.
19. Müller M, Mentel M, van Hellemond JJ, Henze K, Woehle C, Gould SB, Yu RY, van der Giezen M, Tielens AG, Martin WF. 2012. Biochemistry and evolution of anaerobic energy metabolism in eukaryotes. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev* 76:444-95.
20. Imkamp F, Biegel E, Jayamani E, Buckel W, Müller V. 2007. Dissection of the caffeate respiratory chain in the acetogen *Acetobacterium woodii*: identification of an Rnf-type NADH dehydrogenase as a potential coupling site. *J Bacteriol* 189:8145-53.

21. Scheifinger CC, Linehan B, Wolin MJ. 1975. H<sub>2</sub> production by *Selenomonas ruminantium* in the absence and presence of methanogenic bacteria. Appl Microbiol 29:480-3.
22. Schonheit P, Brandis A, Thauer RK. 1979. Ferredoxin degradation in growing *Clostridium pasteurianum* during periods of iron deprivation. Arch Microbiol 120:73-6.
23. Kuhns M, Trifunovic D, Huber H, Muller V. 2020. The Rnf complex is a Na<sup>+</sup> coupled respiratory enzyme in a fermenting bacterium, *Thermotoga maritima*. Commun Biol 3:431.
24. Asanuma N, Hino T. 2000. Activity and properties of fumarate reductase in ruminal bacteria. J Gen Appl Microbiol 46:119-125.
25. Biegel E, Müller V. 2010. Bacterial Na<sup>+</sup>-translocating ferredoxin:NAD<sup>+</sup> oxidoreductase. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 107:18138-42.
26. Hess V, Gallegos R, Jones JA, Barquera B, Malamy MH, Müller V. 2016. Occurrence of ferredoxin:NAD<sup>+</sup> oxidoreductase activity and its ion specificity in several Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. PeerJ 4:e1515.
27. Schoelmerich MC, Katsyv A, Dönig J, Hackmann TJ, Müller V. 2020. Energy conservation involving two respiratory circuits. Proc Natl Acad Sci 117:1167-1173.
28. Schleicher L, Trautmann A, Stegmann DP, Fritz G, Gatgens J, Bott M, Hein S, Simon J, Seifert J, Steuber J. 2021. A sodium-translocating module linking succinate production to formation of membrane potential in *Prevotella bryantii*. Appl Environ Microbiol 87:e0121121.
29. Seshadri R, Leahy SC, Attwood GT, Teh KH, Lambie SC, Cookson AL, Eloë-Fadrosh EA, Pavlopoulos GA, Hadjithomas M, Varghese NJ, Paez-Espino D, Perry R, Henderson G, Creevey CJ, Terrapon N, Lapebie P, Drula E, Lombard V, Rubin E, Kyrpides NC, Henrissat B, Woyke T, Ivanova NN, Kelly WJ, collaborators Hp. 2018. Cultivation and

- sequencing of rumen microbiome members from the Hungate1000 Collection. Nat Biotechnol 36:359-367.
30. Stadtman ER, Overath P, Eggerer H, Lynen F. 1960. The role of biotin and vitamin B<sub>12</sub> coenzyme in propionate metabolism. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2:1-7.
31. Strobel HJ. 1992. Vitamin B<sub>12</sub>-dependent propionate production by the ruminal bacterium *Prevotella ruminicola* 23. Appl Environ Microbiol 58:2331-3.
32. Allen SH, Kellermeyer RW, Stjernholm RL, Wood HG. 1964. Purification and properties of enzymes involved in the propionic acid fermentation. J Bacteriol 87:171-87.
33. Weerakoon DR, Olson JW. 2008. The *Campylobacter jejuni* NADH:ubiquinone oxidoreductase (complex I) utilizes flavodoxin rather than NADH. J Bacteriol 190:915-25.
34. Franke T, Deppenmeier U. 2018. Physiology and central carbon metabolism of the gut bacterium *Prevotella copri*. Mol Microbiol 109:528-540.
35. Dank A, van Mastrigt O, Boeren S, Lillevang SK, Abee T, Smid EJ. 2021. *Propionibacterium freudenreichii* thrives in microaerobic conditions by complete oxidation of lactate to CO<sub>2</sub>. Environ Microbiol 23:3116-3129.
36. Moreira JPC, Diender M, Arantes AL, Boeren S, Stams AJM, Alves MM, Alves JI, Sousa DZ. 2021. Propionate production from carbon monoxide by synthetic cocultures of *Acetobacterium wieringae* and propionigenic bacteria. Appl Environ Microbiol 87:e0283920.
37. Benito-Vaquerizo S, Parera Olm I, de Vroet T, Schaap PJ, Sousa DZ, Martins Dos Santos VAP, Suarez-Diez M. 2022. Genome-scale metabolic modelling enables deciphering ethanol metabolism via the acrylate pathway in the propionate-producer *Anaerotignum neopropionicum*. Microb Cell Fact 21:116.

38. Baur T, Wentzel A, Durre P. 2022. Production of propionate using metabolically engineered strains of *Clostridium saccharoperbutylacetonicum*. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol doi:10.1007/s00253-022-12210-8.
39. Wallnofer P, Baldwin RL. 1967. Pathway of propionate formation in *Bacteroides ruminicola*. J Bacteriol 93:504-5.
40. Akhtar MK, Jones PR. 2014. Cofactor engineering for enhancing the flux of metabolic pathways. Front Bioeng Biotechnol 2:30.
41. Liu J, Li H, Zhao G, Caiyin Q, Qiao J. 2018. Redox cofactor engineering in industrial microorganisms: strategies, recent applications and future directions. J Ind Microbiol Biotechnol 45:313-327.
42. Montano Lopez J, Duran L, Avalos JL. 2022. Physiological limitations and opportunities in microbial metabolic engineering. Nat Rev Microbiol 20:35-48.
43. Bryant MP. 1956. The characteristics of strains of *Selenomonas* isolated from bovine rumen contents. J Bacteriol 72:162-7.
44. Tao JY, Diaz RK, Teixeira CRV, Hackmann TJ. 2016. Transport of a fluorescent analogue of glucose (2-NBDG) versus radiolabeled sugars by rumen bacteria and *Escherichia coli*. Biochemistry 55:2578-2589.
45. Tao J, McCourt C, Sultana H, Nelson C, Driver J, Hackmann TJ. 2019. Use of a fluorescent analog of glucose (2-NBDG) to identify uncultured rumen bacteria that take up glucose. Appl Environ Microbiol 85:e03018-18.
46. Dai X, Hackmann TJ, Lobo RR, Faciola AP. 2020. Lipopolysaccharide stimulates the growth of bacteria that contribute to ruminal acidosis. Appl Environ Microbiol 86.

47. Villas-Boas SG, Noel S, Lane GA, Attwood G, Cookson A. 2006. Extracellular metabolomics: a metabolic footprinting approach to assess fiber degradation in complex media. *Anal Biochem* 349:297-305.
48. Tschech A, Pfennig N. 1984. Growth-yield increase linked to caffeate reduction in *Acetobacterium woodii*. *Archives of Microbiology* 137:163-167.
49. Hackmann TJ, Keyser BL, Firkins JL. 2013. Evaluation of methods to detect changes in reserve carbohydrate for mixed rumen microbes. *J Microbiol Methods* 93:284-91.
50. Zhang B, Lingga C, Bowman C, Hackmann TJ. 2021. A new pathway for forming acetate and synthesizing ATP during fermentation in bacteria. *Appl Environ Microbiol* doi:10.1128/AEM.02959-20.
51. Hackmann TJ, Diese LE, Firkins JL. 2013. Quantifying the responses of mixed rumen microbes to excess carbohydrate. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 79:3786-95.
52. Schönheit P, Wäscher C, Thauer RK. 1978. A rapid procedure for the purification of ferredoxin from clostridia using polyethyleneimine. *FEBS Lett* 89:219-22.
53. Bradford MM. 1976. A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding. *Anal Biochem* 72:248-54.
54. Whitman WB (ed). 2022. *Bergey's manual of systematics of archaea and bacteria*. Wiley, Oxford, United Kingdom.
55. Hackmann TJ, Zhang B. 2021. Using neural networks to mine text and predict metabolic traits for thousands of microbes. *PLoS Comput Biol* 2:e1008757.
56. Chen IA, Chu K, Palaniappan K, Pillay M, Ratner A, Huang J, Huntemann M, Varghese N, White JR, Seshadri R, Smirnova T, Kirton E, Jungbluth SP, Woyke T, Eloë-Fadrosch

- EA, Ivanova NN, Kyrpides NC. 2019. IMG/M v.5.0: an integrated data management and comparative analysis system for microbial genomes and microbiomes. *Nucleic Acids Res* 47:D666-D677.
57. Kanehisa M, Furumichi M, Sato Y, Ishiguro-Watanabe M, Tanabe M. 2021. KEGG: integrating viruses and cellular organisms. *Nucleic Acids Res* 49:D545-D551.
58. Galperin MY, Makarova KS, Wolf YI, Koonin EV. 2015. Expanded microbial genome coverage and improved protein family annotation in the COG database. *Nucleic Acids Res* 43:D261-9.
59. Mistry J, Chuguransky S, Williams L, Qureshi M, Salazar GA, Sonnhammer ELL, Tosatto SCE, Paladin L, Raj S, Richardson LJ, Finn RD, Bateman A. 2021. Pfam: The protein families database in 2021. *Nucleic Acids Res* 49:D412-D419.
60. Sondergaard D, Pedersen CN, Greening C. 2016. HydDB: A web tool for hydrogenase classification and analysis. *Sci Rep* 6:34212.
61. Reimer LC, Vetschinnova A, Carbasse JS, Sohngen C, Gleim D, Ebeling C, Overmann J. 2019. BacDive in 2019: bacterial phenotypic data for high-throughput biodiversity analysis. *Nucleic Acids Res* 47:D631-D636.
62. Mirdita M, Schütze K, Moriwaki Y, Heo L, Ovchinnikov S, Steinegger M. 2021. ColabFold-Making protein folding accessible to all. *bioRxiv:doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.08.15.456425>*.
63. Hackmann TJ. 2022. Redefining the coenzyme A transferase superfamily with a large set of manually annotated proteins. *Protein Sci* 31:864-881.
64. Zheng Y, Kahnt J, Kwon IH, Mackie RI, Thauer RK. 2014. Hydrogen formation and its regulation in *Ruminococcus albus*: involvement of an electron-bifurcating [FeFe]-

- hydrogenase, of a non-electron-bifurcating [FeFe]-hydrogenase, and of a putative hydrogen-sensing [FeFe]-hydrogenase. J Bacteriol 196:3840-52.
65. Zeikus JG, Fuchs G, Kenealy W, Thauer RK. 1977. Oxidoreductases involved in cell carbon synthesis of *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum*. J Bacteriol 132:604-13.
66. Schoelmerich MC, Katsyv A, Donig J, Hackmann TJ, Muller V. 2020. Energy conservation involving 2 respiratory circuits. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 117:1167-1173.
67. Schönheit P, Wäscher C, Thauer RK. 1978. A rapid procedure for the purification of ferredoxin from Clostridia using polyethyleneimine. FEBS letters 89:219-222.
68. Wang S, Huang H, Moll J, Thauer RK. 2010. NADP<sup>+</sup> reduction with reduced ferredoxin and NADP<sup>+</sup> reduction with NADH are coupled via an electron-bifurcating enzyme complex in *Clostridium kluyveri*. J Bacteriol 192:5115-23.
69. Heinonen JK, Lahti RJ. 1981. A new and convenient colorimetric determination of inorganic orthophosphate and its application to the assay of inorganic pyrophosphatase. Anal Biochem 113:313-7.



589 **TABLE 1.** Conditions used to measure enzymatic activity

Enzyme	Reference	Assay components <sup>a,b</sup>	Product measured (wavelength)	Controls	Conditions <sup>c</sup>
Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (EC 1.2.1.12, 1.2.1.13, 1.2.1.59)	After Zheng et al. (64)	50 mM Tricine-Na (pH 8.4), 10 mM KPO <sub>4</sub> buffer (pH 7), 2 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), 2 mM MgCl <sub>2</sub> , 1 mM glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate, 1 µg of cell extract protein, 1 mM NAD sodium salt or NADP disodium salt	Reduced NAD(P) (340 nm) <sup>e</sup>	Cell extract replaced with water	Aerobic
Malate dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.1.37, 1.1.1.82)	After Zeikus et al. (65)	50 mM Tris-Cl (pH 7.6), 0.2 mM NADH disodium salt or NADPH tetrasodium salt, 1 µg of cell extract protein, 2 mM oxaloacetic acid	Reduced NAD(P) (340 nm) <sup>e</sup>	Cell extract replaced with water	Aerobic
Pyruvate dehydrogenase (EC 1.2.4.1)	This study	50 mM Tris-Cl (pH 7.6), 10 mM MgCl <sub>2</sub> , 4 mM DTT, 0.2 mM CoA lithium salt, 0.1 mM thiamine pyrophosphate, 4 U/mL phosphotransacetylase, 2 mM NAD sodium salt, 15.1 µg of cell extract or cytoplasmic contents protein, 10 mM sodium pyruvate	Reduced NAD (340 nm) <sup>e</sup>	Cell extract or cytoplasmic contents replaced with water	Anaerobic
Pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase (PFOR) (EC 1.2.7.1, 1.2.7.11)	After Zheng et al. (64)	50 mM Tris-Cl (pH 7.6), 10 mM MgCl <sub>2</sub> , 4 mM DTT, 0.2 mM CoA lithium salt, 30 µM ferredoxin, 0.1 mM thiamine pyrophosphate, 4 U/mL phosphotransacetylase, 15.1 µg of cell extract or cytoplasmic contents protein, 10 mM sodium pyruvate	Reduced ferredoxin (430 nm) <sup>f</sup>	Cell extract or cytoplasmic contents replaced with water	Anaerobic
Rnf (Ferredoxin:NAD <sup>+</sup> oxidoreductase [Na <sup>+</sup> -transporting]) (EC 7.2.1.2)	After Zheng et al. (64)	50 mM Tris-Cl (pH 7.6), 10 mM MgCl <sub>2</sub> , 4 mM DTT, 10 mM NaCl, 80 µg of cell membrane protein (or 40 µg of solubilized cell membrane protein), reduced ferredoxin-regenerating system (0.2 mM	Reduced NAD (340 nm) <sup>e</sup>	Cell membrane replaced with water	Anaerobic

		CoA lithium salt, 30 $\mu$ M ferredoxin, 0.1 mM thiamine pyrophosphate, 4 U/mL phosphotransacetylase, 36.2 $\mu$ g of cytoplasmic contents protein, 10 mM sodium pyruvate), 2 mM NAD sodium salt			
Nqr (NADH:ubiquinone reductase [ $\text{Na}^+$ -transporting]) (EC 7.2.1.1)	This study	100 mM $\text{KPO}_4$ (pH 6), 100 mM NaCl, 4 mM DTT, 0.4 mM NADH disodium salt, 40 $\mu$ g of solubilized cell membrane protein or 80 $\mu$ g of cell membrane protein	Reduced NAD (340 nm) <sup>e</sup>	Cell membrane replaced with water	Anaerobic
Fumarate reductase/succinate dehydrogenase (EC 4.2.1.2)	After Asanuma and Hino (24)	100 mM $\text{KPO}_4$ (pH 6), 100 mM NaCl, 4 mM DTT, 0.4 mM NADH disodium salt, 40 $\mu$ g of solubilized cell membrane protein or 80 $\mu$ g of cell membrane protein, 5 mM disodium fumarate	Reduced NAD (340 nm) <sup>e</sup>	Fumarate and cell membrane replaced with water	Anaerobic
ATPase (EC 7.1.2.2)	After Schoelmerich et al. (66)	100 mM Tris-Cl (pH 7.4), 5 mM $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 6.25 $\mu$ g of cell membrane protein or solubilized cell membrane protein, 3.6 mM ATP-DiTris <sup>d</sup>	Phosphomolybdate (335 nm) <sup>g</sup>	None	Aerobic

590 <sup>a</sup>The components are listed in the order added (with the last component added to initiate the reaction)

591 <sup>b</sup>Source: NADH disodium salt, Sigma N8129; NADPH tetrasodium salt, Calbiochem 481973; oxaloacetic acid, Sigma O4126; coenzyme  
592 A lithium salt, Calbiochem 234101; ferredoxin, purified from *Clostridium pasteurianum* 5 according to Schönheit (67),  
593 phosphotransacetylase, Megazyme E-PTABS; crude pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase, cytoplasmic contents from same bacterium  
594 being assayed for activity

595 <sup>c</sup>Anaerobic conditions were 1 mL assay mix in 1.4 mL glass cuvette (Hellma HL114-10-20) capped with chlorobutyl stopper (DWK  
596 Life Sciences W224100-081) under N<sub>2</sub> at 37°C; aerobic conditions were 0.2 mL assay mix in 96-well plates at room temperature;  
597 aerobic conditions for ATPase assay were 0.1 mL assay mix in 1.5 mL tube at 37°C  
598 <sup>d</sup>Mix was incubated for 0, 4, 8, and 12 min and reaction terminated by adding 14.3 µL of 30% (w/v) trichloroacetic acid  
599 <sup>e</sup>Extinction coefficient of 6,200 M<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> (64)  
600 <sup>f</sup>Extinction coefficient of 13,100 M<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> (68)  
601 <sup>g</sup>Phosphomolybdate was formed by adding 90 µL supernatant with 450 µL of AAM-reagent (69) and incubating for 10 min at room  
602 temperature; phosphate was the standard  
603

604 **TABLE 2.** Enzymatic assays confirm *Prevotella* catalyze key reactions for forming propionate, succinate, and acetate

Reaction ID <sup>a</sup>	Reaction equation	Source	<i>P. brevis</i> GA33		<i>P. ruminicola</i> 23	
			Activity <sup>b,c</sup>	P-value	Activity <sup>b,c</sup>	P-value
6	D-Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate + Orthophosphate + NAD <sup>+</sup> <=> 3-Phospho-D-glyceroyl phosphate + NADH + H <sup>+</sup>	Cell extract	2814 (190)	<0.001	2840 (360)	0.008
11	2 Reduced ferredoxin + Acetyl-CoA + CO <sub>2</sub> + 2 H <sup>+</sup> <=> 2 Oxidized ferredoxin + Pyruvate + CoA	Cell extract	346 (97)	0.035	449 (92)	0.020
		Cytoplasmic contents	290 (20)	0.002	291 (84)	0.037
15	(S)-Malate + NAD <sup>+</sup> <=> Oxaloacetate + NADH + H <sup>+</sup>	Cell extract	979 (30)	<0.001	2420 (260)	0.006
22	NADH + H <sup>+</sup> + ubiquinone + n Na <sup>+</sup> [side 1] = NAD <sup>+</sup> + ubiquinol + n Na <sup>+</sup> [side 2]	Membrane	17.8 (5.6)	0.043	16.4 (2.6)	0.012
		Solubilized membrane	28.8 (1.7)	0.002	17.2 (3.8)	0.022
23	Quinone + Succinate <=> Hydroquinone + Fumarate	Membrane	155.3 (8.9)	0.002	27.5 (5.4)	0.018
		Solubilized membrane	420 (33)	0.003	42.2 (5.9)	0.009
24	ATP + H <sub>2</sub> O + 4 H <sup>+</sup> [side 1] = ADP + phosphate + 4 H <sup>+</sup> [side 2]	Membrane	97 (23)	0.025	53.3 (1.7)	0.001
		Solubilized membrane	102 (16)	0.012	61.5 (4.2)	0.002
25	D-Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate + Orthophosphate + NADP <sup>+</sup> <=> 3-Phospho-D-glyceroyl phosphate + NADPH + H <sup>+</sup>	Cell extract	515 (24)	<0.001	214 (120)	0.106
26	(S)-Malate + NADP <sup>+</sup> <=> Oxaloacetate + NADPH + H <sup>+</sup>	Cell extract	501.5 (6.7)	<0.001	216 (25)	0.007

605 <sup>a</sup>See Fig. 5, Table S3, and Table S4 for more information

606 <sup>b</sup>Units are mean (SEM) mU/(mg protein)

607   <sup>c</sup>Results are for at least of 3 biological replicates (cell extract or membrane prepared from independent cultures)

# Figure legends

**Fig. 1.** Fermentation of glucose to propionate, succinate, and acetate has missing or unknown steps.

(A) The missing steps are for regenerating redox cofactors. (B) We hypothesize Rnf carries out the missing steps. Abbreviations: Fd<sub>ox</sub>, oxidized ferredoxin; Fd<sub>red</sub>, reduced ferredoxin (two reduced iron-sulfur clusters); NAD<sub>ox</sub>, oxidized NAD; NAD<sub>red</sub>, reduced NAD.

**Fig. 2.** *Prevotella* form propionate, succinate, and acetate during fermentation of glucose. (A) Yield of fermentation products. (B) Recovery of carbon is near or above 100%. (C) Recovery of hydrogen is also near or above 100%. (D) Summary of growth and fermentation. In (A), the yield of cells is g (mmol glucose)<sup>-1</sup>. Results are mean ± standard error of at least 3 biological replicates (culture supernatant or cells prepared from independent cultures).

**Fig. 3.** *Prevotella* have the enzyme Rnf. Rnf is evident in the (A) genome, (B) proteome, and (C) measurements of enzyme activity. Results in (C) are mean ± standard error of 3 biological replicates (cell membranes prepared from independent cultures). To correct Rnf for activity of NADH dehydrogenase, we added the activity measured for Nqr (see Table 2). Abbreviations: Fd<sub>ox</sub>, oxidized ferredoxin; Fd<sub>red</sub>, reduced ferredoxin (two reduced iron-sulfur clusters); NAD<sub>ox</sub>, oxidized NAD; NAD<sub>red</sub>, reduced NAD; DDA, data-dependent acquisition; DIA, data-independent acquisition; Membrane, cell membrane sample; Solb membr, solubilized cell membrane sample. See Tables S3 and S4 for more information.

**Fig. 4.** *Prevotella brevis* GA33 depends on Na<sup>+</sup> for growth and for Rnf activity. In (A), sodium was removed from the media by replacing NaCl, NaOH and Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> with equimolar KCl, KOH, and K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>. Resazurin was also removed. Results are for one representative culture. Experiments were done with 2 cultures on 2 different days. In (B), sodium was removed from the assay mix by replacing NAD sodium salt, sodium pyruvate, and CoA lithium salt with equimolar NAD hydrate, potassium pyruvate, and CoA hydrate. The residual Na<sup>+</sup> in the Tris-Cl buffer and MgCl<sub>2</sub> was 2 μM (as measured by an electrode; Fisher Accumet 13-620-503A). No correction was made for NADH dehydrogenase activity. Results are mean ± standard error of 4 biological replicates (cell membranes prepared from independent cultures).

**Fig. 5.** *Prevotella* have enzymes for forming propionate, succinate, and acetate in the proteome. (A) Cytoplasmic enzymes. (B) Rnf and other membrane-bound enzymes. Abbreviations: Glc-6P, glucose-6-phosphate; Fru-6P, fructose-6-phosphate; F1,6BP, fructose-1,6-bisphosphate; G3P, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate; DHAP, dihydroxyacetone phosphate; 1,3BGP, 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate; 3PG, 3-phosphoglycerate; 2PG, 2-phosphoglycerate; PEP, phosphoenolpyruvate; Pyr, pyruvate; Ac-CoA, acetyl-CoA; Ac-P, acetyl-phosphate; OAA, oxaloacetate; Mal, malate; Fum, fumarate; Suc-CoA, succinyl-CoA; L-MM-CoA, L-methylmalonyl-CoA; D-MM-CoA, D-methylmalonyl-CoA; Pr-CoA, propionyl-CoA; Fd<sub>ox</sub>, oxidized ferredoxin; Fd<sub>red</sub>, reduced ferredoxin (two reduced iron-sulfur clusters); NAD<sub>ox</sub>, oxidized NAD; NAD<sub>red</sub>, reduced NAD; CoA, coenzyme A; P<sub>i</sub>, inorganic phosphate; Q<sub>ox</sub>, oxidized quinone; Q<sub>red</sub>, reduced quinone. See Tables S3 and S4 for more information.

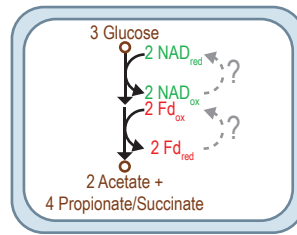
**Fig. 6.** Many organisms form propionate, succinate, and acetate during fermentation. Organisms (n = 1,436) and their reported end products (n = 39) are from *Bergey's Manual of Systematics of Archaea and Bacteria* (54). Minor (trace) end products are not included. Abbreviations: Ac, acetate; Suc, succinate; Pr, propionate. See Table S5 for more information.

**Fig. 7.** Rnf may be used by many prokaryotes that form propionate, succinate, and acetate during fermentation. (A) Alluvial graph showing percentage of prokaryotes with Rnf genes. Rnf genes are enriched in organisms that are fermentative and form propionate, succinate, and acetate. (B) Phylogenetic tree of prokaryotes, highlighting those with Rnf genes and that form propionate, succinate, and acetate during fermentation. (C) Habitats of prokaryotes with Rnf genes and observed to form propionate, succinate, and acetate during fermentation. Abbreviations: Ac, acetate; Suc, succinate; Pr, propionate. See Tables S5, S6, and S7 for more information.



**Figure 1**

**A Missing steps in regenerating redox cofactors**



**B Rnf carries out missing steps**

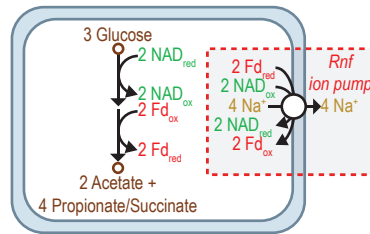


Figure 2

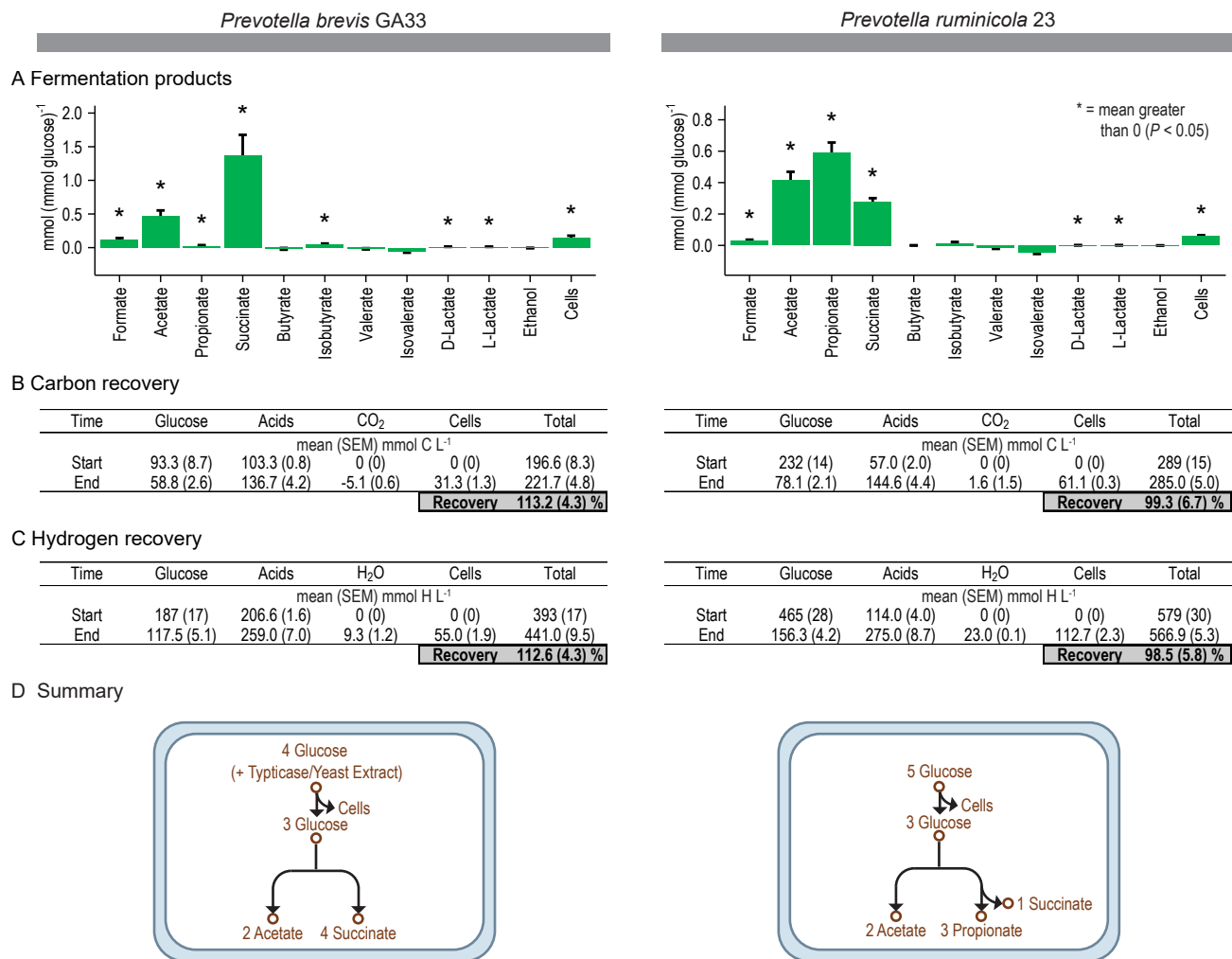
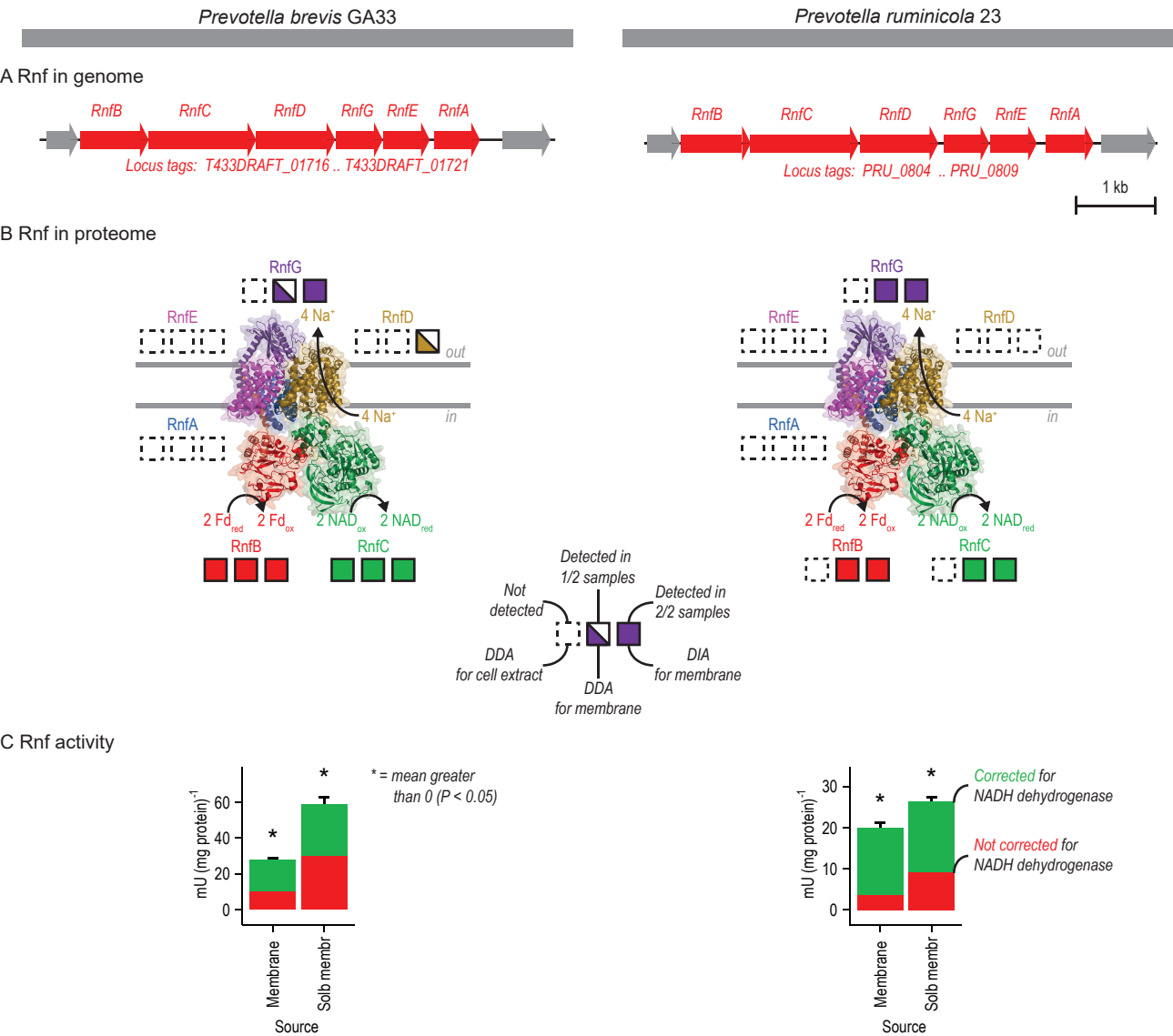
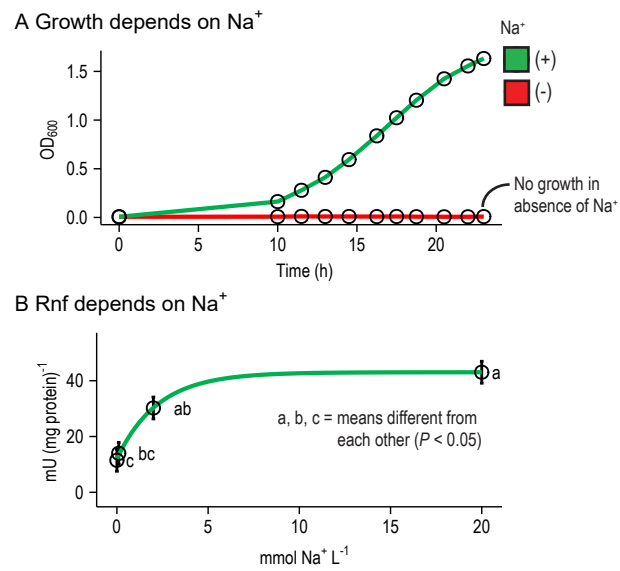


Figure 3



**Figure 4**



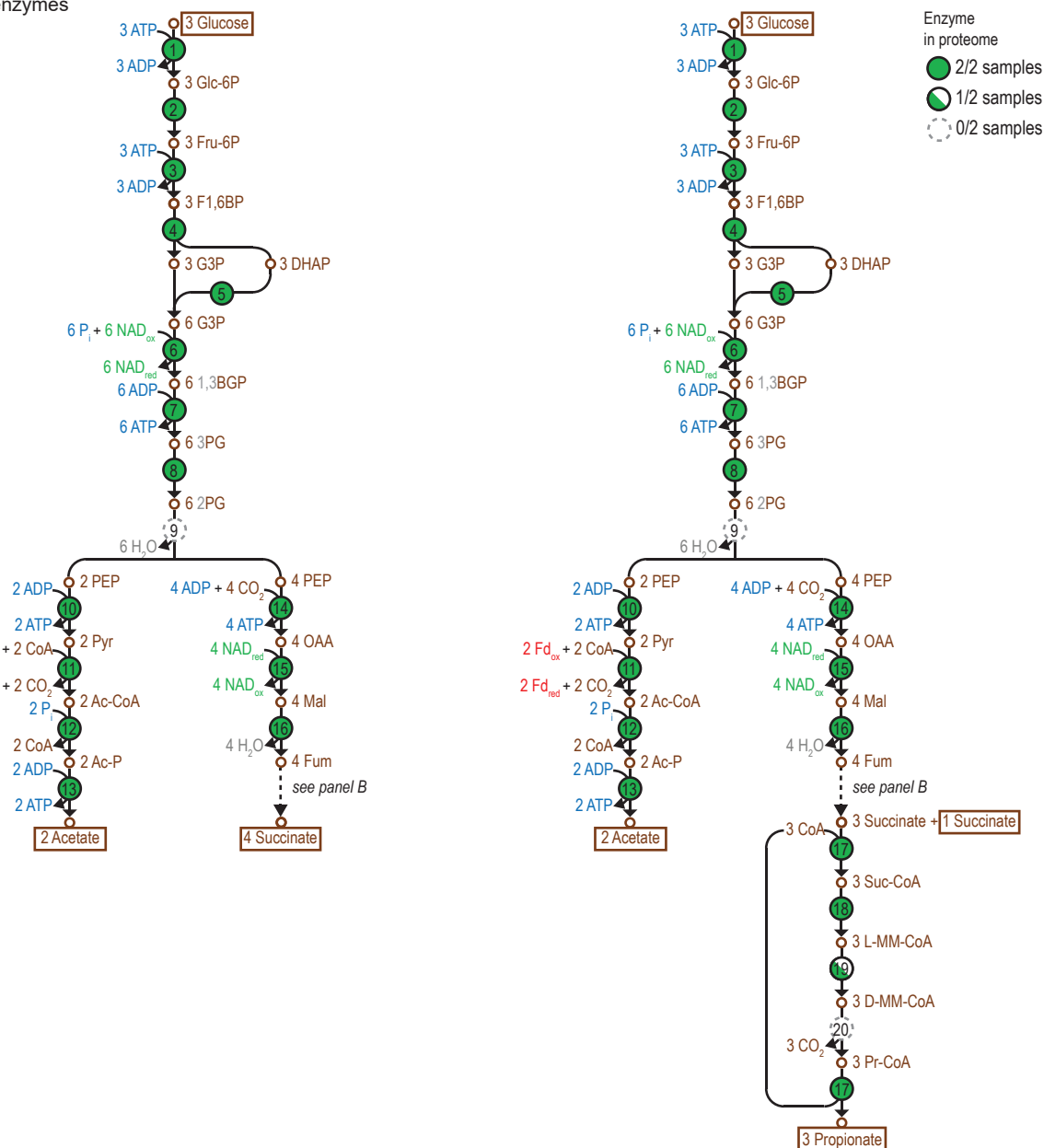
**Figure 5**

bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.11.08.515646>; this version posted November 8, 2022. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

*Prevotella brevis* GA3

*Prevotella ruminicola* 23

**A Cytoplasmic enzymes**



**B Rnf and other membrane-bound enzymes**

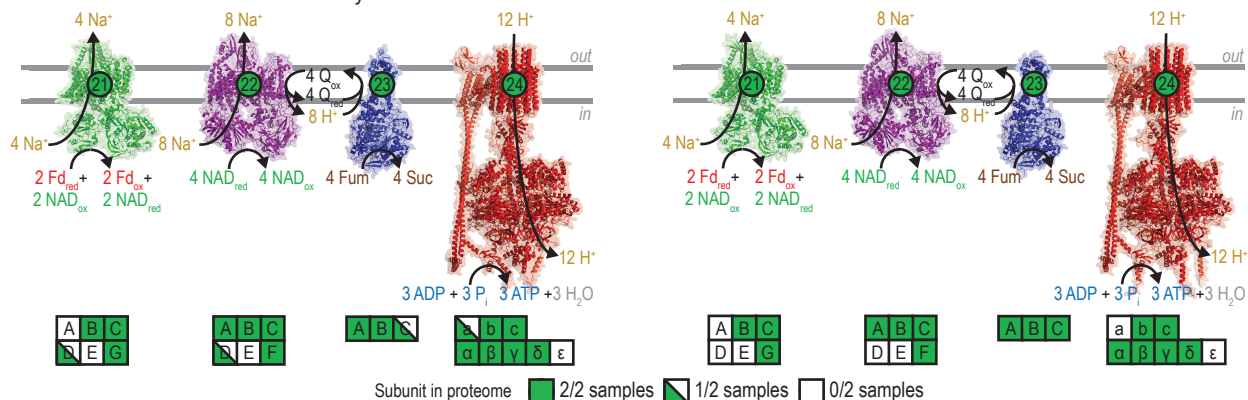


Figure 6

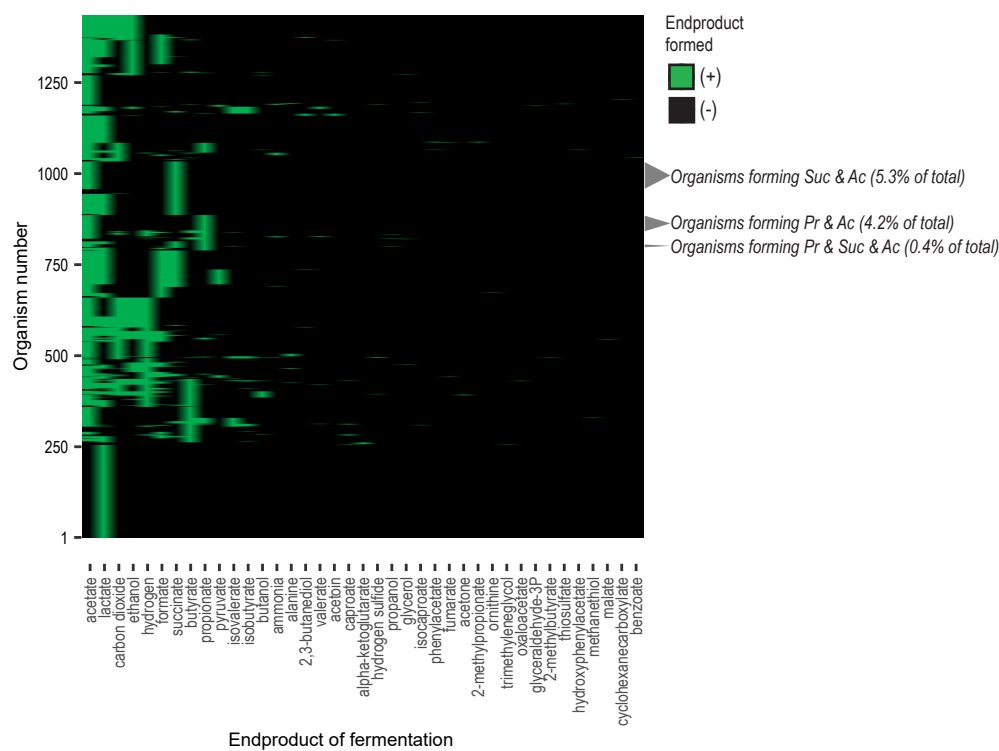
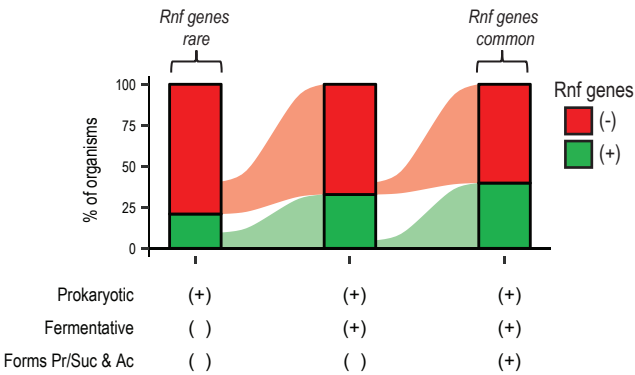
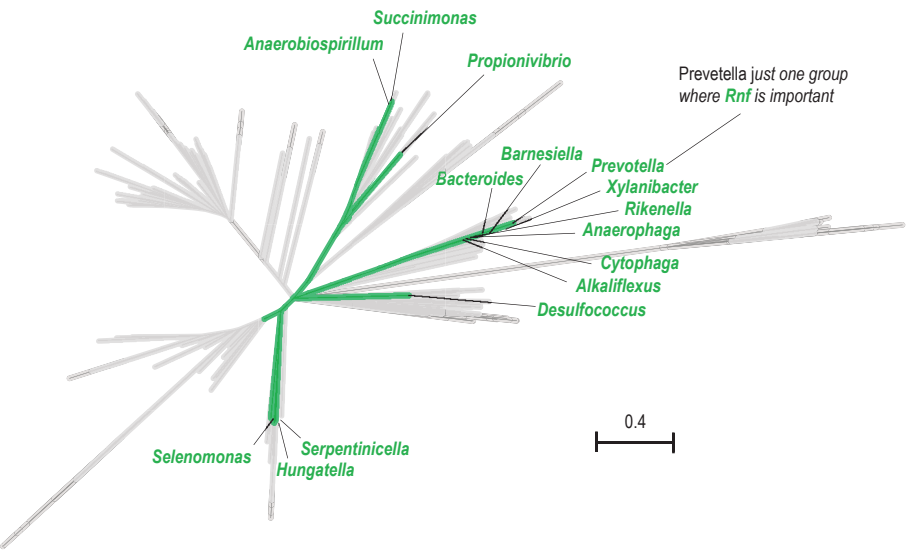


Figure 7

A Alluvial graph



B Phylogenetic tree



C Habitats

