1	The Page
2	Title: Consumption of atmospheric H <sub>2</sub> during the life cycle of soil-dwelling actinobacteria
3	<b>Authors:</b> Laura K. Meredith <sup>1,4</sup> , Deepa Rao <sup>1,5</sup> , Tanja Bosak <sup>1</sup> , Vanja Klepac-Ceraj <sup>2</sup> , Kendall R.
4	Tada <sup>2</sup> , Colleen M. Hansel <sup>3</sup> , Shuhei Ono <sup>1</sup> , and Ronald G. Prinn <sup>1</sup>
5	(1) Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Department of Earth, Atmospheric and Planetary
6	Science, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 02139, USA.
7	(2) Wellesley College, Department of Biological Sciences, Wellesley, Massachusetts, 02481
8	USA.
9	(3) Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Department of Marine Chemistry and
10	Geochemistry, Woods Hole, Massachusetts, 02543, USA.
11	Corresponding author:
12	Laura K. Meredith
13	Address: 77 Massachusetts Ave., 54-1320, Cambridge, MA, 02139
14	Telephone: (617) 253-2321
15	Fax: (617) 253-0354
16	Email: predawn@mit.edu
17	Running title: Uptake of H <sub>2</sub> during the life cycle of soil actinobacteria
18	Summary
19	Microbe-mediated soil uptake is the largest and most uncertain variable in the budget of
20	atmospheric hydrogen (H <sub>2</sub> ). The diversity and ecophysiological role of soil microorganisms that
21	can consume low atmospheric abundances of H <sub>2</sub> with high-affinity [NiFe]-hydrogenases is
	Author current addresses: (4) Stanford University, Environmental Earth System Science, Palo
	Alto, CA, 94305, USA. (5) Georgetown University, Communication, Culture and Technology,
	Washington, DC, 20057.

unknown. We expanded the library of atmospheric H<sub>2</sub>-consuming strains to include four soil Harvard Forest Isolate (HFI) *Streptomyces* spp., *Streptomyces cattleya*, and *Rhodococcus equi* by assaying for high-affinity hydrogenase (*hhyL*) genes and quantifying H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates. We find that aerial structures (hyphae and spores) are important for *Streptomyces* H<sub>2</sub> consumption; uptake was not observed in *Streptomyces griseoflavus* Tu4000 (deficient in aerial structures) and was reduced by physical disruption of *Streptomyces* sp. HFI8 aerial structures. H<sub>2</sub> consumption depended on the life cycle stage in developmentally distinct actinobacteria: *Streptomyces* sp. HFI8 (sporulating) and *R. equi* (non-sporulating, non-filamentous). Strain HFI8 took up H<sub>2</sub> only after forming aerial hyphae and sporulating, while *R. equi* only consumed H<sub>2</sub> in the late exponential and stationary phase. These observations suggest that conditions favoring H<sub>2</sub> uptake by actinobacteria are associated with energy and nutrient limitation. Thus, H<sub>2</sub> may be an important energy source for soil microorganisms inhabiting systems in which nutrients are frequently limited.

35 Main Text

## Introduction

Microbe-mediated soil uptake is the leading driver of variability in atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> and accounts for 60% to 90% of the total H<sub>2</sub> sink; however, the dependence of this sink on environmental parameters is poorly constrained by field and lab measurements (Xiao et al., 2007; recently reviewed by Ehhalt and Rohrer, 2009). Atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> is an abundant reduced trace gas (global average of 530 ppb) that influences the atmospheric chemistry of the troposphere and the protective stratospheric ozone layer (Novelli et al., 1999). Most notably, the reaction of H<sub>2</sub> with the hydroxyl radical (•OH) attenuates the amount of •OH available to scavenge potent greenhouse gases, like methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), from the atmosphere. The H<sub>2</sub> soil sink may play a

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

considerable role in buffering anthropogenic  $H_2$  emissions, which constitute approximately 50% of atmospheric  $H_2$  sources (Ehhalt and Rohrer, 2009). A process-level understanding of the  $H_2$  soil sink is required to understand the natural variability of atmospheric  $H_2$  and its sensitivity to changes in climate and anthropogenic activities.

Early studies established the H<sub>2</sub> soil sink as a biological process because of the enzymatic nature of H<sub>2</sub> consumption (Conrad and Seiler, 1981; Schuler and Conrad, 1990; Häring and Conrad, 1994). Initially, free soil hydrogenases were thought to be the primary drivers of the H<sub>2</sub> soil sink because chemical fumigation of soils had little effect on soil H2 uptake rates but significantly reduced the active microbial consumption or production of other trace gases, e.g., the active microbial uptake of CO (Conrad and Seiler, 1981; Conrad et al., 1983b; Conrad, 1996). Only indirect evidence existed to support the notion that the soil sink was an active microbial process (Conrad and Seiler, 1981; Conrad et al. 1983a; King, 2003b) until the isolation of Streptomyces sp. PCB7, the first microorganism to exhibit significant consumption of atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> (Constant et al., 2008). This organism demonstrated high-affinity (K<sub>m</sub> ~10-50 ppm), low-threshold (< 0.1 ppm) H<sub>2</sub> uptake kinetics characteristic of uptake by environmental soil samples (Conrad, 1996). Previously, only low-affinity (K<sub>m</sub> ~1000 ppm), high-threshold (> 0.5 ppm) H<sub>2</sub>-oxidizing microorganisms were characterized, which were unable to consume H<sub>2</sub> at atmospheric concentrations (Conrad et al., 1983b; Conrad, 1996; Guo and Conrad, 2008; summarized by Constant et al., 2009).

Streptomyces spp. are ubiquitous soil microorganisms that degrade recalcitrant materials in soils (Kieser et al., 2000). Theoretically, the observed rates of atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> soil consumption can sustain the maintenance energy requirements for typical numbers of Streptomyces spp. cells in soils (Conrad, 1999; Constant et al., 2010; Constant et al., 2011a).

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

However, the importance of atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> as a source of energy to soil microorganisms remains unknown. Atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> uptake was specifically linked to a group 5 [NiFe]hydrogenase gene cluster containing genes that encode for the small and large hydrogenase subunits, hhyS and hhyL, respectively (Constant et al., 2010). The hhyL gene is distributed unevenly amongst the Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi, and Acidobacteria phyla (e.g., many, but not all *Streptomyces* spp. possess the gene) (Constant et al., 2010; Constant et al., 2011b). The link between high-affinity H<sub>2</sub> uptake and hhyL has been reported in nine Streptomyces spp. and in Mycobacterium smegmatis (Constant et al., 2011b; King, 2003b), but it remains untested in many soil microorganisms. Additional research adding to the library of atmospheric H<sub>2</sub>-oxidizing bacteria is needed to identify the key microorganisms involved in H<sub>2</sub> biogeochemical cycling. Information about the genes and ecophysiology of these organisms can improve the process-level understanding of the H<sub>2</sub> soil sink (Conrad, 1996; Madsen, 2005). The life cycle of *Streptomyces* is complex and controls the timing of many physiological activities, which may include H<sub>2</sub> uptake (Kieser et al., 2000; Schrempf, 2008; Flärdh and Buttner, 2009). In soils, *Streptomyces* exist predominantly as inactive spores, which germinate in response to environmental triggers such as moisture and nutrient availability (Kieser et al., 2000) and grow vegetatively, producing a network of mycelia that grow into the substrate (Flärdh and Buttner, 2009). Over time, and in response to environmental triggers such as nutrient depletion or physiological stresses, the colony differentiates to form hydrophobic aerial hyphae that break the substrate surface tension and grow into the air, forming a millimeter-scale canopy in immediate contact with the atmosphere (Kieser et al., 2000; Schrempf, 2008). Finally, aerial hyphae differentiate and septate to form chains of resistant spores (Flärd and Buttner, 2009). In cultures of Streptomyces sp. PCB7 growing on soil particles, H<sub>2</sub> uptake coincided with the

presence of aerial hyphae and spores (Constant et al., 2008). It is unknown if  $H_2$  uptake occurs at the same life cycle stage in other *Streptomyces* strains and how long uptake persists in the spore stage. Furthermore, the timing of atmospheric  $H_2$  uptake in microbes that possess *hhyL*, but do not sporulate has not been measured.

The goal of this paper is to address two questions. First, our study asks whether environmental isolates and culture collection strains with the genetic potential for atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> uptake, i.e., the *hhyL* gene, actually exhibit atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> uptake. To expand the library of atmospheric H<sub>2</sub>-oxidizing bacteria, we quantify H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates by novel *Streptomyces* soil isolates that contain the *hhyL* and by three previously isolated and sequenced strains of actinobacteria whose *hhyL* sequences span the known *hhyL* diversity. Second, we investigate how H<sub>2</sub> uptake varies over organismal life cycle in one sporulating and one non-sporulating microorganism, *Streptomyces* sp. HFI8 and *Rhodococcus equi*, respectively. These experiments probe the advantage of atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> consumption to microbes and relationship between environmental conditions, physiology of soil microbes, and H<sub>2</sub>.

## **Results**

## H<sub>2</sub> uptake by microbial soil isolates and culture collection strains possessing hhyL.

Candidate *Streptomyces* strains, referred to henceforth as Harvard Forest Isolate (HFI) strains, were isolated from Harvard Forest soils. PCR amplification revealed that *hhyL* encoding the high-affinity [NiFe]-hydrogenase was present in six out of nine tested strains. Four of these strains (HFI6, HFI7, HFI8, and HFI9) were successfully retained in culture and were used to test the link between *hhyL* and H<sub>2</sub> uptake activity. These strains exhibited distinctive *Streptomyces* traits such as pigmentation, a fuzzy appearance indicating the production of aerial hyphae (Figures S1 and S2), and the distinctive earthy scent of geosmin (Schrempf, 2008). The 16S

rRNA gene sequences of the new isolates fell within the *Streptomyces* genus and were 100% identical to several different strains of *Streptomyces* spp. (Table S1). Of two clusters that were defined by Constant et al. (2011b) based on a deeply rooted split (99% of bootstrap replicates) in the phylogenetic tree of *hhyL* amino acid sequences (Figure S3), the HFI6 - HFI9 *hhyL* sequences group with *hhyL* Cluster 1. In addition to our *Streptomyces* isolates, we examined three culture collection strains in this study to broaden representation across the *hhyL* clusters and genera (Bergey et al., 1957): *Streptomyces griseoflavus* Tu4000 (Cluster 1), *Rhodococcus equi* (Actinobacterium, Cluster 1), and *Streptomyces cattleya* (Cluster 2).

(Insert Table 1 here)

To test whether organisms with *hhyL* gene sequences consume H<sub>2</sub>, we measured the uptake of atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> in sporulated *Streptomyces* cultures and in stationary stage of *R. equi*. The presence of *hhyL* predicted atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> uptake activity in HFI strains 6-9, *S. cattleya*, and *R. equi*, but not in *S. griseoflavus* Tu4000 (Table 1). We find that atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> uptake observed in strains with *hhyL* from Cluster 1 (*Streptomyces* strains HFI6 - HFI9 and *R. equi*) and Cluster 2 (*S. cattleya*). The biomass-weighted H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates of these isolates spanned nearly two orders of magnitude (from 10 to 780 nmol min<sup>-1</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>), and the *Streptomyces* strains that took up H<sub>2</sub> did so at rates more than 10-fold greater than dense stationary phase cultures of *R. equi* (Table 1). *R. equi* consumed atmospheric H<sub>2</sub>, both when grown on solid R2A medium and in liquid TSB medium (data not shown). Uptake rates of *Streptomyces* cultures were measured on solid medium because *Streptomyces* cultures typically do not progress through their full developmental cycle in liquid medium (Flärdh and Buttner, 2009). The Michaelis-Menten substrate affinity was determined from the x-intercept of Lineweaver-Burk plots of the inverse relationship between the first-order H<sub>2</sub> uptake rate and initial headspace H<sub>2</sub> concentrations

between 0 and 35 ppm. This method can be more error prone than the non-inverse approach performed over a greater range of initial H<sub>2</sub> mole fractions, but it better restricts H<sub>2</sub> uptake by low-affinity hydrogenases, and has enough sensitivity to distinguish high- and low-affinity uptake kinetics. K<sub>m</sub> values of HFI strains were typically low (40-80 ppm for HFI strains), which indicated that enzymatic processing of H<sub>2</sub> is tuned to operate efficiently at atmospheric levels of H<sub>2</sub> (high-affinity uptake). *S. cattleya* and *R. equi* appeared have high- or intermediate-affinity K<sub>m</sub> values (<1000 ppm), but did not pass the quality control measures (Experimental Procedures) to be included in Table 1. The minimum H<sub>2</sub> concentration, or threshold, consumed by each HFI strain ranged from 0.12 to 0.15 ppm, which is well below typical atmospheric mole fractions of around 0.53 ppm (Table 1). *S. cattleya* and *R. equi* thresholds were also below atmospheric levels at least below 0.45 and 0.30 ppm, respectively (Table 1). This study augments the library of organisms that contain *hhyL* sequences and take up atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> with high-affinity and a low-threshold from 10 to 16 strains.

#### H<sub>2</sub> uptake correlates with lifecycle stage in *Streptomyces* sp. HFI8

We randomly selected *Streptomyces* sp. HFI8 from our HFI strains as a representative organism to determine whether high-affinity H<sub>2</sub> consumption depended on the stage of the life cycle and how long uptake lasted in the sporulation stage. Microscopy revealed the progression of strain HFI8 through developmental stages over 44 days on solid agar (Figure S4). Following germination, the colonies of strain HFI8 grew as substrate mycelia (Figure S4-A). By day 1.8 the lawn reached its maximal aerial coverage and grew upward as aerial hyphae formed and then sporulated (Figure S4-B). The co-occurrence of partially septated aerial hyphae and spores indicated that the events were not simultaneous throughout the colony (Figure S4-B).

aerial hyphae and sporulation around day 2 (Figure 1). Aerial hyphae formation and sporulation are stages of the life cycle often associated with nutrient limitation in *Streptomyces* spp. H<sub>2</sub> uptake reached a maximum rate (9.4±2.3 nmol h<sup>-1</sup>) on day 3.8, two days after sporulation had begun, and then slowly decreased over the next 40 days, dropping below the detection limit of ±0.24 nmol h<sup>-1</sup>. Most cells between days 2.9 and 44 were a lawn of "dormant" spores that had completed the full life cycle (Figures S4-C-H). H<sub>2</sub> oxidation rates by dormant spores declined slowly over the 44-day experiment to negligible rates (Figure 1). All three replicates displayed similar timing, but the H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates were systematically lower in the third replicate, although the area coverage of the lawn and biomass was not demonstrably different among the replicates. A cursory set of measurements (data not shown) indicated similar trends in H<sub>2</sub> uptake over the life cycle of *Streptomyces* sp. HFI6, *Streptomyces* sp. HFI7, *Streptomyces* sp. HFI9, and *S. cattleya*.

## (Insert Table 2 here)

Because the formation of aerial biomass (hyphae and spores) occurred at the same time as the onset of  $H_2$  consumption in *Streptomyces*, we asked whether  $H_2$  uptake activity was physically located in the aerial biomass. We isolated the aerial fraction (spores and aerial hyphae) of strain HFI8 cultures by gently rolling glass beads over the entire surface of the colony and transferring the beads and aerial biomass to an empty, sterile glass vial (Figure S5).  $H_2$  uptake rates were measured in whole cultures before the transfer, in the vials with the transferred aerial fraction, and in the original vial with the substrate fraction that remained after the glass bead procedure (Table 2, Samples 1-6; Figure S5). The experiment lasted 2-4 hours following the aerial biomass transfer.  $H_2$  uptake in the transferred aerial biomass fraction was consistently low, typically near or below the limit of detection of  $\pm 0.24$  nmol  $h^{-1}$ , and was thus often

statistically indistinguishable from zero. Low uptake rates in the aerial fraction were not the result of poor biomass transfer efficiency by the glass bead procedure; glass beads transferred a significant proportion (Table 2,  $0.7\pm0.6$  mg) of the aerial biomass from the replicate cultures of that could be collected using a metal spatula ( $1.2\pm0.5$  mg). The drop in uptake also cannot be explained by aging over this period, because this occurs over the course of days or weeks and not hours (Figure 1). No reduction in  $H_2$  uptake stemming from reduced spore viability was expected because the biomass transfer procedure by glass beads is based on established methods for harvesting viable spores (e.g., Hirsch and Ensign, 1976; Hardisson et al., 1978). Furthermore, the number of viable spores in bead-treated cultures was indistinguishable from the number of viable spores obtained by transferring aerial biomass by a metal spatula from replicate vials incubated at the same time. This test was done by harvesting spores by the two methods, plating spore suspension dilutions, and counting the number of colony forming units as a function of the initial amount of biomass (protein mass) in the spore suspensions.

We found that the net  $H_2$  uptake diminished after the separation of the aerial biomass from the substrate biomass (Table 2). Even in replicates where glass beads were gently rolled over strain HFI8 lawns and all biomass was left in the original vial, net  $H_2$  uptake was significantly reduced (Table 2, Samples 7-12). The larger the initial  $H_2$  oxidation rate, the larger percentage reduction by the glass beads (Figure S6, linear fit,  $R^2$ =0.93), regardless of culture age or the amount of glass beads used for transfer (Samples 1-12). These experiments suggested that the colony structure and the presence of intact aerial hyphae were important for  $H_2$  uptake.

# H<sub>2</sub> uptake correlates with the growth stage of Rhodococcus equi

(Insert Figure 2 here)

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

Only some microbes containing hhyL are sporulating Streptomyces (Figure S3). To test whether  $H_2$  uptake by non-sporulating Actinobacterium R. equi is related to its lifecycle, we measured the uptake of  $H_2$  by this organism at various stages of growth in liquid cultures (Figure 2). The growth phases were determined from optical density measurements of the cultures. R. equi did not consume measurable quantities of  $H_2$  during the exponential growth phase (day 1 to 4), but started taking up  $H_2$  in the late exponential growth phase (day 4 to 7) and in the stationary phase (day 7 to 17) until the end of the experiment (Figure 2). The late exponential phase and stationary phase growth stages are associated with nutrient limitation.

The low H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates by R. equi were much closer to the experimental detection limit than *Streptomyces* sp. HFI8. This suggested that the lack of uptake could be related to low *R*. equi cell densities in late exponential and early stationary phase rather the altered cell physiology. To test this, we concentrated cells from a culture in exponential growth phase (day 1.9) into either fresh medium or sterile water to match the cell densities (Figure 2b) of H<sub>2</sub>oxidizing cultures in the late exponential and early stationary phases (comparable to those on days 4-6). In spite of the comparable cell densities, cells concentrated in this manner did not consume H<sub>2</sub> (-0.075±0.15 nmol h<sup>-1</sup>, Figure 2a). In addition, we diluted cells in stationary phase (day 7.8) into fresh medium or water to obtain suspensions whose cell densities matched those during days 2-3 of the exponential phase (Figure 2). Although H<sub>2</sub> oxidation rates of the exponentially growing cultures on days 2 and 3 were below the limit of detection (±0.12 nmol h<sup>-</sup> 1), comparably dense cells derived from the diluted stationary phase cultures took up H<sub>2</sub> (0.43±0.047 nmol h<sup>-1</sup>). All cultures were shaken vigorously to ensure the delivery of H<sub>2</sub> into the medium. Some extracellular factors of relevance to H<sub>2</sub> uptake, such as extracellular hydrogenases, may have been carried over into the diluted suspensions. The decrease in the

uptake of H<sub>2</sub> by stationary phase cells (74% of undiluted uptake) did not scale with the dilution (22% of the undiluted cell biomass), which corresponds to a relative mismatch factor of 3.5 in H<sub>2</sub> uptake versus dilution. The reason is unclear, and could result from H<sub>2</sub> substrate diffusion limitation in very dense cultures, which was partially alleviated upon dilution. If the cultures were diffusion limited for H<sub>2</sub> substrate, the observed H<sub>2</sub> oxidation rate (Table 1) and H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates during late exponential and stationary phases (Figure 2) may underestimate the potential H<sub>2</sub> uptake by cultures of *R. equi*. The uptake of H<sub>2</sub> only by stationary phase cells, either in the old culture medium or when resuspended in fresh medium or water, related the uptake of H<sub>2</sub> to the late exponential and stationary phases. Overall, these tests linked *R. equi* H<sub>2</sub> consumption with growth phase.

## **Discussion**

## Link between *hhyL* and H<sub>2</sub> uptake

Our results confirm links between *hhyL* and H<sub>2</sub> uptake to include *R. equi*, four *Streptomyces* HFI soil isolates from Cluster 1, and *S. cattleya* from Cluster 2, thereby providing additional support for the use of the high-affinity hydrogenase gene *hhyL* as a predictor for the capability to consume atmospheric hydrogen. H<sub>2</sub> uptake by *hhyL* by strains from Clusters 1 and 2 indicate that the phylogenetic divergence between the two groups does not compromise atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> uptake activity by *hhyL*, or its prediction. Strains HFI6 - HFI9 exhibit high H<sub>2</sub> uptake affinities and low uptake thresholds. Culture collection strains exhibit more variable H<sub>2</sub> uptake kinetics, in keeping with a recent suggestion that H<sub>2</sub> consuming microorganisms exhibit a continuum of affinities rather than a discrete grouping of high and low affinities (Constant et al., 2010). Current observations of high-affinity H<sub>2</sub> uptake are limited to the *Actinobacteria*, and future studies are required to determine whether H<sub>2</sub> uptake occurs in the other phyla containing

the *hhyL* gene, such as Chloroflexi, Planctomycetes, Verrucomicrobia, and Proteobacteria (Figure S3). A genome data-mining investigation revealed the ubiquity of *hhyL* in DNA extracted from forest, desert, agricultural, and peat soils samples, and although some evidence suggests a correlation between soil H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates and the number of H<sub>2</sub>-oxidizing bacteria, no correlation was found between *hhyL* DNA copies and soil H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates (Constant et al., 2011a; Constant et al., 2011b). Future work should be aimed both at understanding the diversity and ecophysiology of these *hhyL*-containing microorganisms and at developing methods to predict H<sub>2</sub> uptake activity across ecosystems.

## H<sub>2</sub> uptake and the developmental cycle of actinobacteria

Our results support a correlation between the developmental stage of *Streptomyces* spp. and high-affinity H<sub>2</sub> uptake in two ways. First, we did not observe any H<sub>2</sub> uptake in the substrate mycelium developmental phase of *Streptomyces* sp. HFI8. H<sub>2</sub> uptake began only after the formation of aerial hyphae and sporulation. Second, we found that *S. griseoflavus* Tu4000, which grew predominantly as substrate mycelium, did not take up H<sub>2</sub>. We propose that the impaired development (i.e. lack of aerial hyphae and/or spores) of *S. griseoflavus* Tu4000 may impair the production or activity of its high-affinity hydrogenase. In culture, *S. griseoflavus* Tu4000 is smooth and waxy, and does not produce the aerial hyphae typical of *Streptomyces* grown on solid culture (Figure S1 and S2). *S. griseoflavus* Tu4000 may belong to a class of *bld* (bald) mutants that are often deficient in aerial hyphae production (Kieser et al., 2000). Sporulation efficiency is also often reduced in *bld* mutants (Szabó and Vitalis, 1992), and *S. griseoflavus* Tu4000 does not form spores on various types of media (J. Blodgett, personal communication), including our cultures. To our knowledge, *S. griseoflavus* Tu4000 is the first *hhyL*-containing *Streptomyces* sp. found to be unable to oxidize atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> under the same experimental

absent from Cluster 1 *hhyL* containing cultures of a gram-negative beta-proteobacterium *Ralstonia eutropha* H16 (formerly known as *Alcaligenes eutropha* 16) grown on solid medium and tested for uptake in suspensions (Conrad et al., 1983b). Future experiments could compare sporulating *Streptomyces* with their *bld* mutants or stimulate the formation of aerial hyphae and/or sporulation in *bld Streptomyces* spp. mutants by application of exogenous δ-butyrolactone factor (Ueda et al., 2000; Straight and Kolter, 2009), and determine the effect of this stimulation on H<sub>2</sub> oxidation or *hhyL* expression. In summary, the combined lack of aerial hyphae, spores, and H<sub>2</sub> uptake in *S. griseoflavus* Tu4000 and the co-occurrence of these phenotypes in strain HFI8 underscored a strong developmental control of atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> uptake in *Streptomyces*. These observations motivate the use of *Streptomyces* mutants arrested at different points in the developmental cycle to investigate the regulation and physiological role of *hhyL* in sporulating actinobacteria.

Our measurements of H<sub>2</sub> uptake in HFI8 colonies disturbed by glass beads indicate that H<sub>2</sub> uptake depends on the physical structure of *Streptomyces* aggregates. Cultures treated by glass beads take up less H<sub>2</sub>, suggesting that the activity of the hydrogenase is impaired by the disturbance of the aerial structures. H<sub>2</sub> uptake by the disrupted colony could decrease because of loss in structural support, loss in signaling and nutrient transport within the bacterial lawn (Miguélez et al., 1999), or reduction in the aerial hyphae surface area in contact with the air. Therefore, we attribute the observed decrease in H<sub>2</sub> uptake to physical destruction of the lawn and colony structure of *Streptomyces*.

The  $H_2$  uptake by non-sporulating batch cultures of R. equi occurs only during late exponential and stationary phase, suggesting that its  $H_2$  consumption may support metabolism

under nutrient-limiting conditions. Similarly, H<sub>2</sub> uptake by strain HFI8 is present only during those stages of its life cycle associated with nutrient-limiting conditions, suggesting that H<sub>2</sub> may be an important energy source for *Streptomyces* under stress. This is consistent with previous reports of H<sub>2</sub> oxidation by *M. smegmatis*, a non-sporulating Actinobacterium with a Cluster 1 high-affinity [NiFe]-hydrogenase that can persist for many years in host tissue in a nutrient-deprived stationary phase (Smeulders et al, 1999; King, 2003b). *M. smegmatis* expresses the hydrogenase gene under starvation conditions and mutants lacking this hydrogenase have a reduced growth yield under these conditions (Berney and Cook, 2010). Therefore, the ability to scavenge low concentrations of H<sub>2</sub> may be an important adaptation of various sporulating and non-sporulating actinobacteria (Prescott, 1991; Smeulders et al, 1999; Scherr and Nguyen, 2009). This could be particularly true in terrestrial environments were nutrient concentrations are often low for extended periods and atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> is available.

## Implications for soil H<sub>2</sub> uptake in the environment

Uptake of atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> by spores, which are often considered to be metabolically dormant, may have consequences for both the sporulating microbes and the cycling of H<sub>2</sub> in the environment. H<sub>2</sub> oxidation rates in cultures of strain HFI8 continue to increase for two days after the onset of sporulation. This could reflect heterogeneity in the sample, because not all cells sporulate simultaneously, or maximum H<sub>2</sub> uptake by already formed spores. In any case, measurable H<sub>2</sub> oxidation in sporulated cultures persists for over a month, such that the time-integrated H<sub>2</sub> oxidation in any culture is much larger in spore state than at any other stage in the life cycle. Net H<sub>2</sub> consumption by HFI8 is at least tenfold larger in the spore state (days 4-44) than during the growth of substrate mycelium (through day 1.1) and formation of aerial hyphae (after day 1.8) combined. One should also keep in mind that the H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates measured in

culture studies depend on the specific medium, and may not be directly translated to different media or soil types, where the nutritional characteristics, moisture levels, and cell abundances likely differ. The persistence of H<sub>2</sub> oxidation by *Streptomyces* spp. may have consequences for environmental H<sub>2</sub> cycling and environmental conditions that promote the removal of atmospheric H<sub>2</sub>. Conditions that favor germination and growth, including soil moisture and nutrient availability (Kieser et al., 2000), may increase the population of *Streptomyces* spp. in the substrate mycelium phase and actually limit the amount of H<sub>2</sub> oxidized by soils. During moisture- or nutrient-limiting conditions, a greater fraction of the population of *Streptomyces* spp. will be in life cycle stages linked with H<sub>2</sub> uptake (aerial hyphae and spores).

Counterintuitively, H<sub>2</sub> uptake by *Streptomyces* spp. may be most significant when the environmental conditions are the harshest. H<sub>2</sub> uptake in spores under our experimental conditions is reduced to negligible levels after about a month (Figure 1), indicating that H<sub>2</sub> uptake may be very low in environments where conditions are harsh for long periods, such as deserts.

Ultimately, the goal of studying microbial influences on trace gas fluxes is to understand and predict emergent biogeochemical cycling in the environment. This study describes H<sub>2</sub> consumption by two developmentally distinct actinobacteria under nutrient-limiting conditions. Field measurements along a chronosequence of recent volcanic deposits support this notion by suggesting that relative uptake of H<sub>2</sub> by the soil microbial community (normalized by soil respiration rates) is most important when soils were limited by organic carbon (King, 2003a). However, insignificant or even opposing trends also exist (Conrad and Seiler, 1985; Rahn et al., 2002), which may be driven by other factors. Future studies are also needed to determine the impact of nutrient- and moisture-limiting conditions on H<sub>2</sub> uptake by soils and to consider the significance and implications of the energetic supply from H<sub>2</sub> for the microorganisms in the

competitive soil environment. A better understanding of the process-level controls on microbemediated  $H_2$  soil uptake is critical for evaluating the impact of a changing climate on the soil  $H_2$ uptake and the impact of continued anthropogenic  $H_2$  emissions on atmospheric chemistry and climate.

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

343

344

345

346

## **Experimental Procedures**

## **Microbial Strains**

Streptomyces spp. were isolated from soils within the footprint of the Environmental Measurement Site (EMS) atmospheric trace gas flux tower at the Harvard Forest Long Term Ecological Research site in Petersham, MA (42°32'N, 72°11'W). Atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> fluxes were concurrently measured at the same site (Meredith, 2012). Harvard Forest is a mixed deciduous forest with acidic soils originating from sandy loam glacial till (Allen, 1995). Most H<sub>2</sub> consumption occurs within the first few centimeters of soil beneath the litter layer (Yonemura et al., 2000; Smith-Downey et al., 2008); therefore, samples were collected from the uppermost six inches of soil after removal of the leaf litter. Sporulating soil organisms such as *Streptomyces* spp. were enriched for using desiccation and chemical destruction (El-Nakeeb and Lechavalier, 1963; Schrempf, 2008). Soils were dried for 3-4 hours at 55°C. Dry soil samples (1 g) were ground with a mortar and pestle and were combined with CaCO<sub>3</sub> (1 g). The soil mixtures were incubated for 2 days at 28°C in 100x15 mm polystyrene Petri dishes (sterile, polystyrene, 100x15 mm, VWR, Radnor, PA), with moistened filter paper (11.0 cm diameter, Grade 1, Whatman®, Kent, ME) fitted in the lids to maintain a humid environment. After this period, incubated soil mixtures were suspended in 100 ml sterile water and thoroughly vortexed. After

settling for 30 min, soil suspensions were serially diluted, and the 10<sup>0</sup>, 10<sup>-2</sup>, and 10<sup>-4</sup> dilutions were spread onto R2A plates (Difco™ R2A, BD, Franklin Lakes, NJ) that had been treated with 88 mg cycoheximide / L medium (Porter et al., 1960). After incubation at 30°C for 3-5 days, microbial colonies were screened for the presence of any of the following four distinctive *Streptomyces* traits: 1) antibiotic inhibition of neighboring growth (*i.e.*, zone of clearing), 2) a fuzzy appearance indicating the production of aerial hyphae (Figures S1 and S2), 3) pigmentation, or 4) the distinctive earthy scent of geosmin (Schrempf, 2008). Those exhibiting any of the traits were serially transferred onto fresh R2A plates until pure isolates were obtained. The resulting set of isolates, henceforth referred to as Harvard Forest Isolates (HFI), was maintained in culture on R2A agar at room temperature. Strains HFI6, HFI7, HFI8, and HFI9 were deposited to the United States Department of Agriculture NRRL Culture Collection for preservation as NRRL B-24941, NRRL B-24943, NRRL B-24942, and NRRL B-24940, respectively.

Strains from culture collections that were used in this study have published genomes accessible in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) databases (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/). *Streptomyces griseoflavus* Tu4000 (accession NZ GG657758) was kindly provided by the genome authors and collaborators (Michael Fischbach, John Clardy, Joshua Blodgett). The following strains were obtained from culture collections: *Rhodococcus equi* ATCC 33707<sup>TM</sup> (accession CM001149) and *Streptomyces cattleya* NRRL 8057 (accession NC 016111).

## DNA extraction and PCR amplification

DNA was extracted using the PowerSoil® DNA Extraction Kit (MoBio Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA) from colonies. PCR amplification of 16S rRNA and *hhyL* genes, respectively, was

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

performed using a Mastercycler<sup>®</sup> pro (Eppindorf, Hamburg, Germany) in 25 µl reaction volumes with the following reaction mixture: 12.125 µl ddH2O, 1.25 µl BSA (Roche, Indianapolis, IN), 2.5 µl 10x Ex Taq Buffer (TaKaRa), 0.125 (5 units/ µl) Ex Taq (TaKaRa), 2 µl dNTP (2.5 mM TaKaRa), 2.5 μl of each primer suspended at 3μM (IDT, Coralville, IA). The 16S rRNA gene was amplified using universal primers 27F:5'-AGA GTT TGA TCC TGG CTC AG-3' and 1492R:5'-ACG GCT ACC TTG TTA CGA CTT-3' (Lane, 1991), and hhyL gene was amplified using NiFe244F:5' - GGG ATC TGC GGG GAC AAC CA -3' and NiFe-1640R:5'-TGC ACG GCG TCC TCG TAC GG -3' (Constant et al., 2010). The following program was used: 5 min initial denaturation at 95°C, followed by 30 cycles consisting of 30 s template denaturation at 95°C, 30 s hold at the primer annealing temperature, 1.5 min extension at 72°C, and a final extension at 72°C for 5 min. Annealing temperatures of 50°C and 60.7°C were used for the amplification of the 16S rRNA and hhyL genes, respectively. The hhyL annealing temperature was optimized over a temperature gradient spanning eight temperatures between 50°C and 62.2°C using S. griseoflavus Tu4000 DNA as template. Each HFI strain was evaluated for the presence of a putative group 5 [NiFe]-hydrogenase by gel electrophoresis of the hhyL gene PCR reaction product. Gels were cast (1% agarose, 5ul GelRed nucleic acid stain (Biotum, Hayward, CA)), loaded (5µl PCR product and 2µl DNA loading dye (Fermentas, Glen Burnie, MD)), run (100 V for 1 hr), and visualized (UVP MultiDoc-It<sup>TM</sup> Digital Imaging System (UVP, Upland, CA)) to verify successful PCR amplification. Migration of HFI strain PCR product was compared to the S. griseoflavus Tu4000 hhyL gene as a positive control and to the DNA Molecular Weight Marker X (Roche, Indianapolis, IN) ladder for reference.

#### Gene sequencing and sequence analysis

PCR products were sequenced at Genewiz (Cambridge, MA) following the manufacturer's sample preparation guidelines. Both 16S rRNA and *hhyL* gene sequences (trimmed for >Q30) were identified by BLASTN (Altschul et al., 1990) and listed in Table S1. Hydrogenase *hhyL* amino acid sequences were aligned using ClustalW (Larkin et al., 2007) and phylogenetic analyses were carried out in Mega 5.2 (Tamura et al., 2011). Relationships were determined using a Maximum Likelihood method based on the Whelan and Goldman model (Whelan and Goldman, 2001) and checked for consistency using parsimony. The *hhyL* gene from archaeon *Sulfolobus islandicus* HVE10/4 was used as an outgroup. A 100 bootstrap maximum likelihood tree was constructed using Mega 5.2.

The gene sequences obtained for strains HFI6, HFI7, HFI8, and HFI9 were deposited in GenBank under accession numbers KC661265, KC661266, KF444073, and KF444074 for the 16S rRNA genes and under accession numbers KC661267, KC661268, KC661269, and KC661270 for the *hhyL* genes. 16S rRNA gene sequences were compared with published sequences in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) gene databases (BLASTN, http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) for phylogenetic identification (Table S1).

## H<sub>2</sub> uptake assays

H<sub>2</sub> oxidation rates were determined routinely by measuring the decrease in H<sub>2</sub> mole fractions in the microbial culture headspace over time. Microbial strains were cultivated aerobically on solid (R2A) or liquid (TSB) medium inside 160 ml glass serum vials. H<sub>2</sub> uptake rate measurements were initiated by isolating the serum vial headspace from the atmosphere with a crimped stopper and vials were slightly pressurized after closure by adding 15 ml of sterile lab air. Liquid cultures were continuously agitated at 200 rpm during the H<sub>2</sub> uptake assay to facilitate gas exchange across the air-liquid interface. The change in headspace H<sub>2</sub> was measured three

times at approximately forty-minute intervals.  $H_2$  uptake followed apparent first-order kinetics over the small range (0.1 to 4 ppm) of laboratory atmospheric  $H_2$  mole fractions:  $H_2(t) = H_2(0)e^{-bt}$ . First-order rate constants were determined from the slope (-b) of the logarithmic decrease in the headspace  $H_2$  mole fraction.  $H_2$  oxidation rates are reported at a  $H_2$  mole fraction of 530 ppb, the estimated global mean (Novelli et al., 1999).

H<sub>2</sub> mole fractions were measured using a Gas Chromatograph (GC, Model 2014, Shimadzu Co., Kyoto, Japan) retrofitted with a Helium ionization Pulsed Discharge Detector (HePDD, D-4-I-SH17-R Model, Valco Instruments Co. Inc., Houston, Texas). The instrument is similar to a recently described system for measuring H<sub>2</sub> at atmospheric levels (approximately 530 ppb) and has an improved precision, linearity and stability compared to methods that use a mercuric oxide detector (Novelli et al., 2009). Details of the instrument design and performance are publically accessible in Meredith (2012). Stainless steel flasks containing compressed air were used as working standards with ambient H<sub>2</sub> mole fractions. These were calibrated using the GC-HePDD system against a tertiary standard (514.3 ppb H<sub>2</sub> in air, aluminum 150A tank, Airgas, Radnor, PA) tied to the NOAA CMD/ESRL H<sub>2</sub> scale. Precisions, assessed by repeated standard measurements, were typically <1% (1 sigma) on the Shimadzu GC-HePDD.

The precision for  $H_2$  oxidation rate measurements is taken as two times the standard deviation of measurements of the  $H_2$  uptake in sterile control vials containing the same (liquid or solid) medium as the culture vials. This precision serves as the effective detection limit, that is, the minimum  $H_2$  oxidation rate that is distinguishable from zero by the measurement. Detection limits were determined separately for the time series of  $H_2$  uptake rates measured in control vials for strain HFI8 and R. equi because of the difference in medium, and were between ( $\pm 0.12$  and

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

 $\pm 0.24$  nmol h<sup>-1</sup>). H<sub>2</sub> uptake thresholds were determined after allowing the cultures to take up H<sub>2</sub> mole fractions for at least 90 minutes until headspace H<sub>2</sub> mole fractions reached stable values.

The Michaelis-Menten substrate affinity (K<sub>m</sub>) describes the affinity of H<sub>2</sub> uptake, relevant to the broad range of H<sub>2</sub> concentrations that occur in soils (H<sub>2</sub> mole fractions ranging from 0.01 to 1000 ppm) (Schink, 1997; Constant et al., 2008). Kinetic parameters of H<sub>2</sub> uptake were determined in sporulated *Streptomyces* cultures and in the stationary phase cultures of *R. equi*. The dependency of H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates on initial H<sub>2</sub> mole fractions were determined over a range of initial headspace H<sub>2</sub> mole fractions (set at about eight levels between 0.5 and 35 ppm H<sub>2</sub> by injecting a 1% H<sub>2</sub> in N<sub>2</sub> mix into the sealed headspace). Headspace H<sub>2</sub> was measured twice, 15 minutes apart in each culture containing different initial H<sub>2</sub> concentrations, and H<sub>2</sub> uptake was calculated from the linear uptake rate. The  $K_m$  and the maximum reaction rate  $(V_{max})$  for each strain was determined from Lineweaver-Burk (LB) plots of the inverse of the uptake rate (1/V) versus the inverse of the substrate concentration (1/S) the initial H<sub>2</sub> mole fraction. K<sub>m</sub> was determined as the  $K_m = -1 / x$ -intercept and Vmax as  $V_{max} = 1/y$ -intercept (Constant et al., 2008). As a crosscheck for the quality of the reported kinetic parameters, Eadie-Hofstee (EH) plots of V versus V/S were used to determine  $K_m$  from  $K_m = -\text{slope}$ .  $K_m$  and  $V_{max}$  values were reported for a given strain only if the LB and EH K<sub>m</sub> values methods agreed within 50%. A typical LB and EH plot is shown in Figure S7. H<sub>2</sub> uptake thresholds were determined after allowing the cultures to take up H<sub>2</sub> mole fractions for at least 90 minutes until headspace H<sub>2</sub> mole fractions reached stable values.

## Lifecycle analysis of Streptomyces spp.

The life cycle of *Streptomyces* spp. cultures was tracked in parallel with the  $H_2$  uptake to test the influence of developmental stage on atmospheric  $H_2$  uptake. Serum vials (160 mL)

containing 10 ml of R2A medium were inoculated with 100 µl of the spore suspension onto the agar surface. Control vials were supplemented with 100 µl sterile H<sub>2</sub>O. The developmental stages were assessed by microscopy, using a Zeiss Axio Imager.M1 microscope and Axio Cam MRm camera using Axio Vision (4.8) software (Zeiss, Peabody, MA).

Growth rates of filamentous organisms grown on solid media are difficult to measure; instead, photographs of the fractional area covered by *Streptomyces* colonies in the serum vial were used as an indication of growth rate. Final aerial biomass was quantified by a protein assay. Aerial biomass was aseptically harvested using a metal spatula and transferred to 1.5 ml tubes containing 0.3 g of glass beads (0.2 mm diameter) and 0.7 ml water. Cells were vortexed for 5 min at 2000 rpm followed by cooling on ice and then sonicated with three 30 s bursts and 1 min intermittent cooling on ice. Residues of membranes and nucleic acids were removed by transferring 0.5 ml of the protein extract to Costar® Spin-X® microcentrifuge filter tubes (Corning, Inc., Corning, NY) and centrifuging at 10,000 rpm for 15 minutes. Protein concentrations were determined using the Pierce BCA protein assay kit (Thermo Scientific, Rockford, IL) and a Synergy 2 Microplate Reader (BioTek, Winooski, VT) controlled by Gen5 (1.04.5) software.

To determine whether H<sub>2</sub> uptake in the aerial fraction (containing hyphae and spores) of a *Streptomyces* culture would continue to take up H<sub>2</sub> when separated from the substrate mycelium and medium, H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates were measured before and after by gently rolling between 2.5 and 10 g of 4 mm glass beads (Table 2) over *Streptomyces* sp. HFI8 lawns of various ages (2-15 days). The lawns grew on R2A solid medium in a serum vial and the aerial biomass was transferred to a sterile glass serum vial containing no medium (Figure S5). H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates were measured in the original culture vial, the lawn was treated with the glass beads and aerial

biomass was transferred immediately by moving the glass beads to a sterile vial. H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates were measured over the next 2-4 h in the sterile vial containing the isolated aerial biomass on glass beads, and in the original vial containing medium and the remaining substrate mycelium. The amount of biomass that was transferred was quantified using the protein assay described above. This procedure was performed for six replicates at different time points after sporulation and with different amounts of glass beads (Table 2, Samples 1-6). In addition, the effect of the glass beads on H<sub>2</sub> uptake in the absence of transfer was tested in six control samples. These samples were treated with the glass beads, but the beads remained in the original vials (Table 2, Samples 7-12) and H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates were measured in the same vials before and after disruption by glass beads.

## Growth phase analysis of R. equi

The relationship between the growth phase and  $H_2$  uptake of R. equi was assessed in liquid cultures. R. equi was inoculated by adding  $100 \, \mu l$  of a cell suspension into  $20 \, ml$  sterile TSB (Bacto<sup>TM</sup> Triptic soy broth, BD) liquid medium in  $160 \, ml$  glass serum vials. All cultures were incubated at  $30^{\circ}$ C and shaken at  $200 \, rpm$ . Growth was monitored by measuring the optical density (OD) of R. equi cultures as the absorbance at  $600 \, nm$  at  $25^{\circ}$ C in the Synergy 2 Microplate Reader. The relationship between OD and protein concentration was established by constructing a calibration curve between OD measurements of serial dilutions with known protein concentrations. R. equi protein concentrations were determined using the same general procedure as described for the Streptomyces spp. The growth phase in R. equi cultures were established using the semilogarithmic plot of the growth curve (Figure 2), where the exponential growth phase is taken as the period with the maximum, sustained positive slope. Late exponential phase was defined as the time when the growth rate slowed down, as identified by a

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

decreasing slope of the growth curve. Finally, stationary phase occurred where the growth curve slope was zero.

H<sub>2</sub> uptake by R. equi was low. A concentration/dilution experiment was performed to test whether the negligible H<sub>2</sub> oxidation rates at low cell densities in early exponential growth phase were the result of a lack of H<sub>2</sub> oxidation activity or the low signal-to-noise ratio due to the small number of active cells. R. equi cultures were inoculated at the beginning of the experiment, concentrated in exponential phase on day 1.9 by centrifugation at 8000 rpm for 10 min, and resuspended into either fresh TSB or in sterile H<sub>2</sub>O to final densities of 160 and 110-µg protein ml <sup>1</sup> in TSB and H<sub>2</sub>O, respectively. This was within the range of densities observed in late exponential and stationary phases (100-230 µg protein ml<sup>-1</sup>). Additionally, a sample was taken on day 7.8 in stationary phase (at a density of 190 µg protein ml<sup>-1</sup>) and was diluted in TSB or sterile H<sub>2</sub>O to cellular densities of 45 and 38 µg protein ml<sup>-1</sup> respectively, to match the density in the early exponential phase (10-100 µg protein ml<sup>-1</sup>). For both the concentration and dilution experiments, the cell pellets resulting from centrifugation were not washed during the procedure so that some extracellular material and original culture medium (< 1 ml) was diluted into fresh TSB or H<sub>2</sub>O to a maximum final concentration of 1/5<sup>th</sup>. H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates in the headspace of the concentrated or diluted samples were measured as described above.

## Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to Paula Welander for advice in the lab and to Diane Ivy for assistance with measurements. Strain *Streptomyces griseoflavus* Tu4000 was kindly contributed to this study by genome authors Michael Fischbach and John Clardy via Joshua Blodgett. L.K.M. is grateful for the opportunity to attend the MBL Microbial Diversity Course. L.K.M. was supported by from the following funding sources: NSF Graduate Research Fellowship, multiple

548	grants from NASA to MIT for the Advanced Global Atmospheric Gases Experiment (AGAGE),
549	MIT Center for Global Change Science, MIT Joint Program on the Science and Policy of Global
550	Change, MIT Martin Family Society of Fellows for Sustainability, MIT Ally of Nature Research
551	Fund, MIT William Otis Crosby Lectureship, and MIT Warren Klein Fund. D. R. was funded
552	through MIT Undergraduate Research Opportunities Program (UROP) with support from the
553	Lord Foundation and Jordan J. Baruch Fund (1947) and was supported by the Harvard Forest
554	REU Program.
555	
556	Conflict of Interest
557	Authors and co-authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.
558	
559	References
560	Allen, A. (1995) Soil science and survey at Harvard Forest. Soil Surv Horiz 36
561	Altschul, S.F., Gish W., Miller, W., Myers, E.W., Lipman, D.J. (1990) Basic Local Alignment
562	Search Tool. J Mol Biol 215: 403–410.
563	Bergey, D.H. and Gibbsons, N.E. (1957) Bergey's manual of determinative bacteriology, 7th
564	edn. Baltimore, USA: Williams & Wilkins Company.
565	Berney, M. and Cook, G.M. (2010) Unique flexibility in energy metabolism allows
566	mycobacteria to combat starvation and hypoxia. PloS ONE 5: e8614.
567	Conrad, R and Seiler, W. (1981) Decomposition of atmospheric hydrogen by soil
568	microorganisms and soil enzymes. Soil Biol Biochem 13: 43-49.

569	Conrad, R. and Seiler, W. (1985) Influence of temperature, moisture, and organic carbon on the
570	flux of H <sub>2</sub> and CO between soil and atmosphere: field studies in subtropical regions. J
571	Geophys Res 90: 5699–5709.
572	Conrad, R., Aragno, M., and Seiler, W. (1983a) Production and consumption of hydrogen in a
573	eutrophic lake. Appl Environ Microbiol 45: 502-510.
574	Conrad, R., Aragno, M., and Seiler, W. (1983b) The inability of hydrogen bacteria to utilize
575	atmospheric hydrogen is due to threshold and affinity for hydrogen. FEMS Microbiol
576	Lett 18: 207–210.
577	Conrad, R. (1996) Soil microorganisms as controllers of atmospheric trace gases (H <sub>2</sub> , CO, CH <sub>4</sub> ,
578	OCS, N <sub>2</sub> O, and NO). Microbiol Rev 60: 609–640.
579	Conrad, R. (1999) Soil microorganisms oxidizing atmospheric trace gases (CH <sub>4</sub> , CO, H <sub>2</sub> , NO).
580	Ind J Microbiol 39: 193–203.
581	Constant, P., Poissant, L., and Villemur, R. (2008) Isolation of <i>Streptomyces</i> sp. PCB7, the first
582	microorganism demonstrating high-affinity uptake of tropospheric H <sub>2</sub> . ISME J 2: 1066–
583	1076.
584	Constant, P., Poissant, L., and Villemur, R. (2009) Tropospheric H <sub>2</sub> budget and the response of
585	its soil uptake under the changing environment. Sci Total Environ 407: 1809–1823.
586	Constant, P., Chowdhury, S.P., Pratscher, J., and Conrad, R. (2010) Streptomycetes contributing
587	to atmospheric molecular hydrogen soil uptake are widespread and encode a putative
588	high-affinity [NiFe]-hydrogenase. Env Microbiol 12: 821–829.
589	Constant, P., Chowdhury, S.P., Hesse, L., and Conrad, R. (2011a) Co-localization of atmospheric
590	H <sub>2</sub> oxidation activity and high affinity H <sub>2</sub> -oxidizing bacteria in non-axenic soil and sterile
591	soil amended with <i>Streptomyces</i> sp. PCB7. Soil Biol Biochem 43: 1888–1893.

592	Constant, P., Chowdhury, S.P., Hesse, L., Pratscher, J., and Conrad, R. (2011b) Genome data
593	mining and soil survey for the novel group 5 [NiFe]-hydrogenase to explore the diversity
594	and ecological importance of presumptive high affinity H <sub>2</sub> -oxidizing bacteria. Appl
595	Environ Microb 77: 6027–6035.
596	Ehhalt, D.H. and Rohrer, F. (2009) The tropospheric cycle of H <sub>2</sub> : a critical review. Tellus B 61:
597	500–535.
598	El-Nakeeb, M.A. and Lechevalier, H.A. (1963) Selective isolation of aerobic Actinomycetes.
599	Appl Microbiol 11: 75–77.
600	Flärdh, K. and Buttner, M.J. (2009) Streptomyces morphogenetics: dissecting differentiation in a
601	filamentous bacterium. Nat Rev Microbiol 7: 36-49.
602	Guo,R. and Conrad,R. (2008) Extraction and characterization of soil hydrogenases oxidizing
603	atmospheric hydrogen. Soil Biol Biochem 40: 1149-1154.
604	Häring, V. and Conrad, R. (1994) Demonstration of two different H <sub>2</sub> -oxidizing activities in soil
605	using an H <sub>2</sub> consumption and a tritium exchange assay. Biol Fert Soils 17: 125–128.
606	Hardisson, C., Manzanal, M.B., Salas, J.A., and Suarez, J.E. (1978) Fine structure, physiology
607	and biochemistry of arthrospore germination in Streptomyces antibioticus. J. Gen.
608	Microbiol. 105: 203–214.
609	Hirsch, C.F. and Ensign, J.C. (1976) Nutritionally defined conditions for germination of
610	Streptomyces viridochromogenes spores. J. Bacteriol. 126: 13–23.
611	Kieser, T., Bibb, M.J., Buttner, M.J., Chater, K.F., and Hopwood, D.A. (2000) Practical
612	Streptomyces genetics. Norwich, UK: John Innes Foundation.
613	King, G.M. (2003a) Contributions of atmospheric CO and hydrogen uptake to microbial
614	dynamics on recent Hawaiian volcanic deposits. Appl Environ Microb 69: 4067–4075.

615	King, G.M. (2003b) Uptake of carbon monoxide and hydrogen at environmentally relevant
616	concentrations by mycobacteria. Appl Env Microbiol 69: 7266–7272.
617	Lane DJ (1991) 16S/23S rRNA sequencing. In Nucleic acid techniques in bacterial systematics.
618	Stackebrandt, E. and Goodfellow, M. (eds). John Wiley and Sons, New York, pp. 115-
619	148.
620	Larkin, M. A., Blackshields, G., Brown, N. P., Chenna, R., McGettigan, P. A., McWilliam, H.,
621	Valentin, F., Wallace, I. M., Wilm, A., Lopez, R., Thompson, J.D., Gibson, T.J., and
622	Higgins, D. G. (2007) Clustal W and Clustal X version 2.0. Bioinformatics (Oxford,
623	England) 23: 2947–8.
624	Madsen, E.L. (2005) Identifying microorganisms responsible for ecologically significant
625	biogeochemical processes. Nat Rev Micro 3: 439-446.
626	Meredith, L.K. (2012) Field Measurement of the Fate of Atmospheric H <sub>2</sub> in a Forest
627	Environment: from Canopy to Soil. Doctor of philosophy thesis, Massachusetts Institute
628	of Technology, MIT Center for Global Change Science, 250 pp.
629	(http://globalchange.mit.edu/research/publications/2366)
630	Miguélez, E.M., Hardisson, C., and Manzanal, M. (1999) Hyphal death during colony
631	development in Streptomyces antibioticus: morphological evidence for the existence of a
632	process of cell deletion in a multicellular prokaryote. J Cell Biol 145: 515-525.
633	Novelli, P.C., Lang, P.M., Masarie, K.A., Hurst, D.F., Myers, R., Elkins, J.W. (1999) Molecular
634	hydrogen in the troposphere: Global distribution and budget. J Geophys Res 104: 30,427-
635	30,444.

636	Novelli, P.C., Crotwell, A.M., and Hall, B.D. (2009) Application of gas chromatography with a
637	pulsed discharge helium ionization detector for measurements of molecular hydrogen in
638	the atmosphere. Environ Sci Technol 43: 2431–2436.
639	Porter, J.N., Wilhelm, J.J., and Tresner, H.D. (1960) Method for the preferential isolation of
640	Actinomycetes from soils. Appl Microbiol 8: 174-178.
641	Prescott, J.F. (1991) <i>Rhodococcus equi</i> : an animal and human pathogen. Clin Microbiol Rev 4:
642	20–34.
643	Rahn, T., Eiler, J. M., Kitchen, N., Fessenden, J. E., and Randerson, J. T. (2002) Concentration
644	and $\delta D$ of molecular hydrogen in boreal forests: Ecosystem-scale systematics of
645	atmospheric H <sub>2</sub> . Geophys Res Lett 29: 1–4.
646	Scherr, N. and Nguyen, L. (2009) Mycobacterium versus Streptomyces - we are different, we are
647	the same. Curr Opin Microbiol 12: 699–707.
648	Schink, B. (1997) Energetics of syntrophic cooperation in methanogenic degradation. Microbiol
649	Mol Biol Rev 61: 262-280.
650	Schrempf, H. (2008) Streptomycetaceae: life style, genome, metabolism and habitats.
651	Encyclopedia of Life Sciences. Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons, pp 1–7.
652	Schuler, S. and Conrad, R. (1990) Soils contain two different activities for oxidation of
653	hydrogen. FEMS Microbiol Ecol 73: 77-83.
654	Smeulders, M.J., Keer, J., Speight, R.A., and Williams, H.D. (1999) Adaptation of
655	Mycobacterium smegmatis to stationary phase. J Bacteriol 181: 270-283.
656	Smith-Downey, N.V., Randerson, J.T., and Eiler, J.M. (2008) Molecular hydrogen uptake by
657	soils in forest, desert, and marsh ecosystems in California. J Geophys Res 113: 1–11.

658	Straight, P.D. and Kolter, R. (2009) Interspecies chemical communication in bacterial
659	development. Ann Rev Microbiol 63: 99–118.
660	Szabó, G. and Vitalis, S. (1992) Sporulation without aerial mycelium formation on agar medium
661	by Streptomyces bikiniensis HH1, an A-factor-deficient mutant. Microbiol. 138: 1887-
662	1892.
663	Tamura, K., Peterson, D., Peterson, N., Stecher, G., Nei, M., and Kumar, S. (2011) MEGA5:
664	molecular evolutionary genetics analysis using maximum likelihood, evolutionary
665	distance, and maximum parsimony methods. Mol Biol Evol 28: 2731-9.
666	Ueda, K., Kawai, S., Ogawa, H., Kiyama, A., Kubota, T., Kawanobe, H., and Beppu, T. (2000)
667	Wide distribution of interspecific stimulatory events on antibiotic production and
668	sporulation among Streptomyces species. J Antibiot 53: 979–982.
669	Whelan, S. and Goldman, N. (2001) A general empirical model of protein evolution derived
670	from multiple protein families using a maximum-likelihood approach. Mol Biol 18: 691-
671	9.
672	Xiao, X., Prinn, R.G., Simmonds, P.G., Steele, L.P., Novelli, P.C., Huang, J., Langenfelds, R.L.,
673	O'Doherty, S., Krummel, P.B., Fraser, P.J., Porter, L.W., Weiss, R.F., Salameh, P. and
674	Wang, R.H.J. (2007) Optimal estimation of the soil uptake rate of molecular hydrogen
675	from AGAGE and other measurements, J Geophys Res, 112: 1-15.
676	Yonemura, S., Yokozawa, M., Kawashima, S., and Tsuruta, H. (2000) Model analysis of the
677	influence of gas diffusivity in soil on CO and H <sub>2</sub> uptake. Tellus B 52: 919–933.
678	
679	Table and Figure Legends

Table 1.  $H_2$  oxidation rates weighted by biomass (final protein mass) for Harvard Forest Isolate (HFI) strains and strains from culture collections (*S. cattleya*, *S. griseoflavus*, *R. equi*) at typical atmospheric ( $\sim$ 0.53 ppm)  $H_2$  mole fractions.  $H_2$  uptake affinity ( $K_m$ ), the maximum reaction rate ( $V_{max}$ ), and the minimum threshold for consumption are listed for each culture.

Table 2. Effect of physical disturbances of the aerial structure on H<sub>2</sub> oxidation rates in sporulated cultures of *Streptomyces* sp. HFI8. Gently rolling 4 mm diameter glass beads over culture lawns (Figure S5) reduced the observed H<sub>2</sub> uptake. The H<sub>2</sub> oxidation rates (the 5<sup>th</sup> column) in twelve whole cultures of strain HFI8 growing in serum vials on solid R2A medium were measured between 2 and 15 days after inoculation (the 2<sup>nd</sup> column). In samples 1-6, the aerial biomass was isolated from substrate biomass using glass beads to transfer aerial biomass to an empty, sterile vial. The amount of transferred biomass was measured by protein assay (the 4<sup>th</sup> column). We tested using different amounts (2.5 and 10g) of 4 mm diameter glass beads (the 6<sup>th</sup> column) and for the fraction of the lawn remaining in the original vial in the medium (the 7<sup>th</sup> column) measured within 2-4 hours. In samples 7-12, all biomass was left in the original vial, and H<sub>2</sub> oxidation rates were measured before and after treatment with glass beads. The difference in uptake due to the procedure (the sum of the uptake rates reported in the 6<sup>th</sup> and the 7<sup>th</sup> column minus the uptake before transfer in the 5<sup>nd</sup> column) is reported in the 8<sup>th</sup> column.

Figure 1. High-resolution time series of H<sub>2</sub> uptake in three replicate cultures of Streptomyces sp. HFI8. The lettered arrows at various time points correspond to the micrographs of the life cycle shown in Figure S4: (A) the substrate mycelium, (B) the formation of aerial hyphae and onset of sporulation, (C-H) cultures contain mainly spores. Enlarged inset shows the higher resolution measurements taken during the first four days. The detection limit (dashed lines) of  $\pm 0.24$  nmol h<sup>-1</sup> is reported as the double standard deviation of four values measured in uninoculated control vials (black dots).

Figure 2. Consumption of  $H_2$  by *Rhodococcus equi* in liquid culture. (a)  $H_2$  oxidation rate, (b) cell biomass (protein concentration). All data are shown for three liquid culture replicates. The detection limit (dashed lines) is of  $\pm 0.12$  nmol h<sup>-1</sup> and calculated as the double standard deviation of ten values measured in uninoculated control vials (black dots). Colored triangles show the results of concentration and dilution experiments. Cells in exponential phase were concentrated in either fresh TSB medium (green) or water (orange) to match protein concentrations in late exponential and stationary phase. Alternatively, cells from stationary phase were diluted in either fresh TSB medium (green) or water (orange) to protein concentrations similar to those in exponential phase cultures.

Table S1. The top database matches for strain HFI6 - HFI9 16S rRNA gene and *hhyL* nucleotide sequences indicate that the strains are *Streptomyces* spp. containing *hhyL* sequences. The GenBank accession number is listed for each deposited sequence. The results of NCBI Megablast BLAST search are listed for each sequence, where queries were made for the 16S rRNA sequences against the 16S rRNA gene sequence database and for the *hhyL* sequences against the entire nucleotide sequence database. The top match for each BLAST search is listed along with the total score, E value, and maximum identity of the match. Strain HFI6 - HFI9 16S rRNA gene sequences were 100% identical to several different strains of *Streptomyces* spp.

726 Strain HFI6 - HFI9 hhyL sequences are highly similar to published cultured and uncultured hhyL 727 sequences, of which some were submitted to public databases as hydB-like genes, though the 728 *hhyL* terminology has been more recently adopted (Constant et al., 2011b). 729 730 Figure S1. Photographs of Streptomyces griseoflavus Tu4000 and Streptomyces sp. HFI6 - HFI9 soil isolate colonies on R2A medium plates. S. griseoflavus Tu4000 had the smooth and 731 732 waxy appearance of a bld (bald) Streptomyces mutant, while strains HFI6 - HFI9 formed fuzzy 733 colonies consistent with the presence of aerial hyphae. The pigmentation of strains HFI6 - HFI8 734 was light pink and strain HFI9 was darker with a brown exudate secreted into the surrounding 735 medium. HFI6 - HFI9 strains had the strong scent of geosmin, while S. griseoflavus Tu4000 did 736 not. 737 738 739 Figure S2. Photomicrographs of *Streptomyces griseoflavus* Tu4000 and *Streptomyces* sp. 740 HFI6 - HFI9 soil isolate cultures on R2A medium plates. The same samples are photographed in 741 Figure S1. Only substrate mycelia are visible in the S. griseoflavus Tu4000 colony, while HFI6 -742 HFI9 strains had plentiful aerial hyphae. 743 744 Figure S3. Molecular phylogenetic analysis of *hhyL* sequences by the Maximum 745 Likelihood method. The diversity of the high-affinity group 5 [NiFe]-hydrogenase (hhyL) 746 sequences of the strains (bold) we tested for H<sub>2</sub> uptake (Table 1) are compared with hhyL 747

sequences from the NCBI microbial genome database in this amino acid tree. The hhyL-

containing *Streptomyces* sequences form two distinct clusters at a deep 99% bootstrap branch:

749 Cluster 1 and Cluster 2. Isolates that have been tested for H<sub>2</sub> uptake are marked to indicate 750 whether (\*) or not (†) high-affinity H<sub>2</sub> uptake was observed. Culture collection strains 751 investigated in this study were selected to broaden representation across the clusters and genera: 752 Streptomyces griseoflavus Tu4000 (Cluster 1), Rhodococcus equi (Actinobacterium, Cluster 1), 753 and Streptomyces cattleya (Cluster 2). Strains HFI6, HFI7, HFI8, and S. griseoflavus Tu4000 hhyL are closely related to Cluster 1 Streptomyces spp. soil isolates that take up H<sub>2</sub> (summarized 754 755 in Constant et al., 2011b), while strain HFI9 hhyL is more closely related to the R. equi hhyL. 756 Cluster 2 S. cattleya hhyL is closely related to Streptomyces sp. AP1 hhyL, which also consumes 757 H<sub>2</sub> (Constant et al., 2011b). Other culture collection strains that have been tested for H<sub>2</sub> uptake 758 include Ralstonia eutropha H16 (Conrad et al., 1983b) and Mycobacterium smegmatis (King, 759 2003). The evolutionary history was inferred by using the Maximum Likelihood method based 760 on the Whelan and Goldman, 2010 model. The hhyL gene from an archaeon Sulfolobus 761 islandicus HVE10/4 was used as the outgroup. The bootstrap values are shown next to the 762 branches. Initial tree(s) for the heuristic search were obtained automatically by applying 763 Neighbor-Join and BioNJ algorithms to a matrix of pairwise distances estimated using a WAG 764 model, and then selecting the topology with superior log likelihood value. A discrete Gamma 765 distribution was used to model evolutionary rate differences among sites (5 categories (+G, 766 parameter = 1.2590)). The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured in the number of 767 substitutions per site. The analysis involved 58 amino acid sequences. There were a total of 427 768 positions in the final dataset. Evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA5 (Tamura et al., 769 2011).

770

Figure S4. Microscopic observations of the development of *Streptomyces* sp. HFI8 show that strain HFI8 underwent the full lifecycle from spore to spore in less than 1.8 days, after which nearly all the viable cells existed as spores. Each panel shows a representative micrograph of the culture taken on a different day after the inoculation. Image A shows the substrate mycelium that grows after the germination of inoculated spores. By day 1.8 (B), septated aerial hyphae (punctuated tubular branches) and fully formed spores (round cells) are present. Mainly spores are present from day 2.9 to 22 (C-H) and the same persists until day 44 (not shown).

Figure S5. Photograph of serum vials during the aerial biomass removal experiments (Table 2, Samples 1-6) illustrates the separation of the aerial hyphae and spores from the substrate mycelium: a) vial containing an *whole* intact strain HFI8 culture (Table 2, column 5); b) vial from which the aerial biomass had been isolated using glass beads leaving behind the remaining *substrate* mycelium (Table 2, column 7); and c) vial containing the isolated *aerial* biomass on the surface of the glass beads (Table 2, column 6). In some samples, glass beads were rolled on the whole colony surface (a) and were left in the same vial with no biomass transfer (Table 2, Samples 7-12).

Figure S6. Scatter plot of the initial  $H_2$  oxidation rate versus the reduction in  $H_2$  uptake by *Streptomyces* sp. HFI8 during the glass bead procedure (Table 2;  $5^{th}$  and  $8^{th}$  columns). The larger the initial  $H_2$  oxidation rate, the larger percentage reduction by the glass beads ( $R^2$ =0.93), regardless of culture age or the amount of glass beads used for transfer.

Figure S7: Determination of  $H_2$  uptake kinetic parameters by the Lineweaver-Burk (LB) and Eadie-Hofstee (EH) methods for *Streptomyces* sp. HFI8. The  $H_2$  uptake rate (V) nmol  $h^{-1}$  and initial  $H_2$  concentration (S) in ppm are used to generate the LB plot as 1/V versus 1/S and EH as V versus V/S.  $K_m$  was determined from the LB plot as the  $K_m = -1$  / x-intercept (38 ppm) and  $V_{max}$  as  $V_{max} = 1/y$ -intercept (30  $\mu$ mol min<sup>-1</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>).  $K_m$  was determined from the EH plot as  $K_m = -1/y$ -slope (22 ppm).  $K_m$  and  $V_{max}$  values were reported for a given strain only if the LB and EH  $K_m$  values methods agreed within 50%`

Table 1.  $H_2$  oxidation rates weighted by biomass (final protein mass) for Harvard Forest Isolate (HFI) strains and strains from culture collections (*S. cattleya*, *S. griseoflavus*, *R. equi*) at typical atmospheric (~0.53 ppm)  $H_2$  mole fractions.  $H_2$  uptake affinity ( $K_m$ ), the maximum reaction rate ( $V_{max}$ ), and the minimum threshold for consumption are listed for each culture.

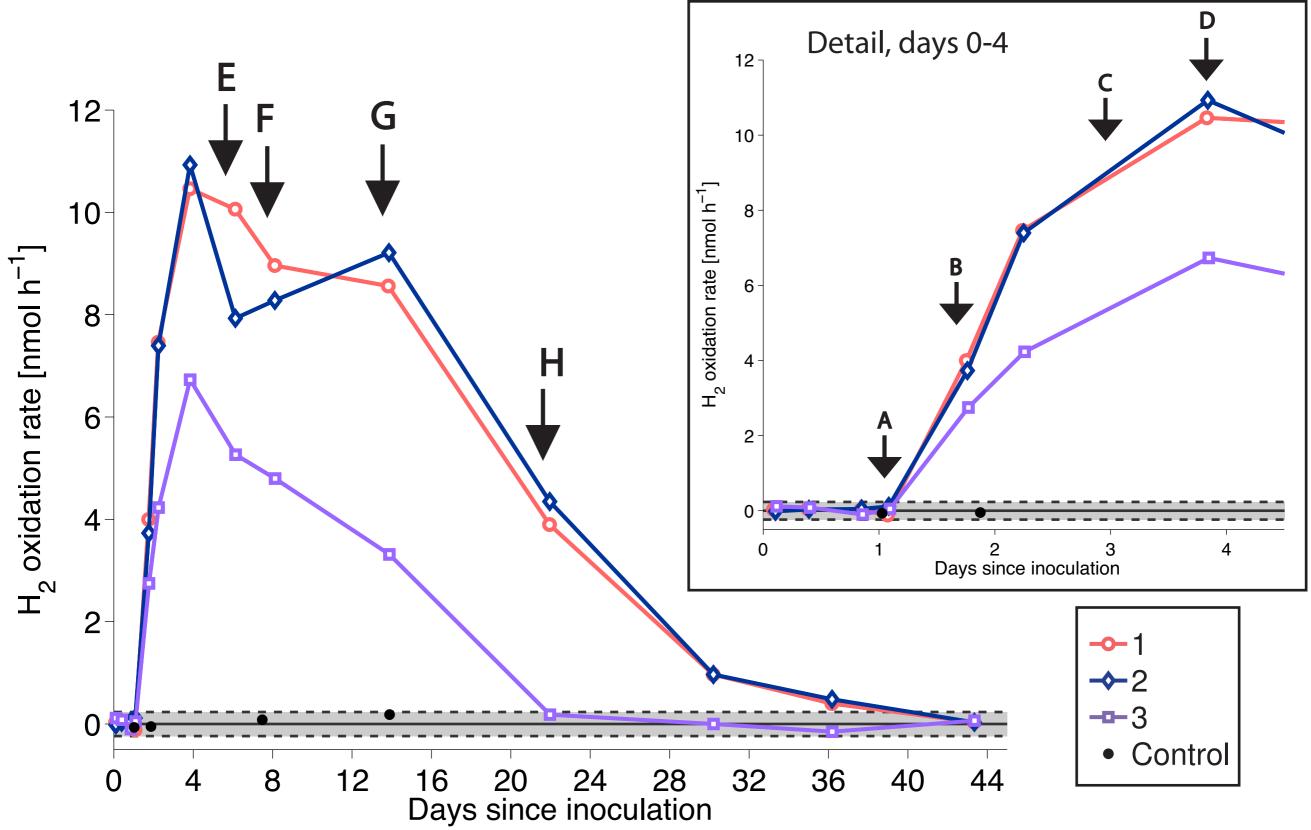
Strain	H <sub>2</sub> oxidation rate	K <sub>m</sub> *	V <sub>max</sub> *	Threshold	
	[nmol min <sup>-1</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> ]	[ppm]	[µmol min <sup>-1</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> ]	[ppm]	
Streptomyces sp. HFI6	780	80	180	< 0.15	
Streptomyces sp. HFI7	420	60	78	< 0.12	
Streptomyces sp. HFI8	240	40	30	< 0.15	
Streptomyces sp. HFI9	100	40	14	< 0.12	
Streptomyces	0	-	-	-	
griseoflavus Tu4000					
Streptomyces cattleya	130	**	**	< 0.45	
Rhodococcus equi	10	**	**	< 0.30	

<sup>\*</sup> Determined by the Lineweaver-Burke method over a 0-35 ppm H<sub>2</sub> range, which is less precise than the non-inverse approach, but avoids interference by low-affinity hydrogenases.

<sup>\*\*</sup> Kinetic parameters determination did not pass quality check (Experimental Procedures).

Table 2. Effect of physical disturbances of the aerial structure on H<sub>2</sub> oxidation rates in sporulated cultures of *Streptomyces* sp. HFI8. Gently rolling 4 mm diameter glass beads over culture lawns (Figure S5) reduced the observed H<sub>2</sub> uptake. The H<sub>2</sub> oxidation rates (the 5<sup>th</sup> column) in twelve whole cultures of strain HFI8 growing in serum vials on solid R2A medium were measured between 2 and 15 days after inoculation (the 2<sup>nd</sup> column). In samples 1-6, the aerial biomass was isolated from substrate biomass using glass beads to transfer aerial biomass to an empty, sterile vial. The amount of transferred biomass was measured by protein assay (the 4<sup>th</sup> column). We tested using different amounts (2.5 and 10g) of 4 mm diameter glass beads (the 3<sup>rd</sup> column). H<sub>2</sub> uptake is reported for the fraction of aerial biomass transferred to glass beads (the 6<sup>th</sup> column) and for the fraction of the lawn remaining in the original vial in the medium (the 7<sup>th</sup> column) measured within 2-4 hours. In samples 7-12, all biomass was left in the original vial, and H<sub>2</sub> oxidation rates were measured before and after treatment with glass beads. The difference in uptake due to the procedure (the sum of the uptake rates reported in the 6<sup>th</sup> and the 7<sup>th</sup> column minus the uptake before transfer in the 5<sup>nd</sup> column) is reported in the 8<sup>th</sup> column.

ID	Day	Beads	Aerial	H <sub>2</sub> oxidation rate [nmol h <sup>-1</sup> ]				
		[g]	biomass	Whole	Aerial +	Substrate	Change in net	
			[mg]		glass		uptake (%)	
					beads			
1	2	10	na	4.1	0.6	1.5	-1.9 (-48%)	
2	8	10	0.3	6.8	0.3	2.9	-3.6 (-52%)	
3	15	10	0.1	6.9	0.3	1.7	-4.9 (-71%)	
4	9	2.5	1.5	3.6	0.1	2.1	-1.4 (-40%)	
5	9	5	0.6	3.8	0.1	2.2	-1.4 (-37%)	
6	9	10	1.1	3.8	0.1	2.1	-1.6 (-43%)	
				Whole	Whole + glass beads			
7	9	10	na	2.2	1.3		-0.9 (-41%)	
8	9	10	na	2.8	2.1		-0.7 (-25%)	
9	9	10	na	2.4		1.5	-0.9 (-38%)	
10	9	10	na	1.5		2.0	-0.3 (-20%)	
11	9	10	na	2.4		2.0	-0.4 (-18%)	
12	9	10	na	2.2		1.9	-0.3 (-13%)	



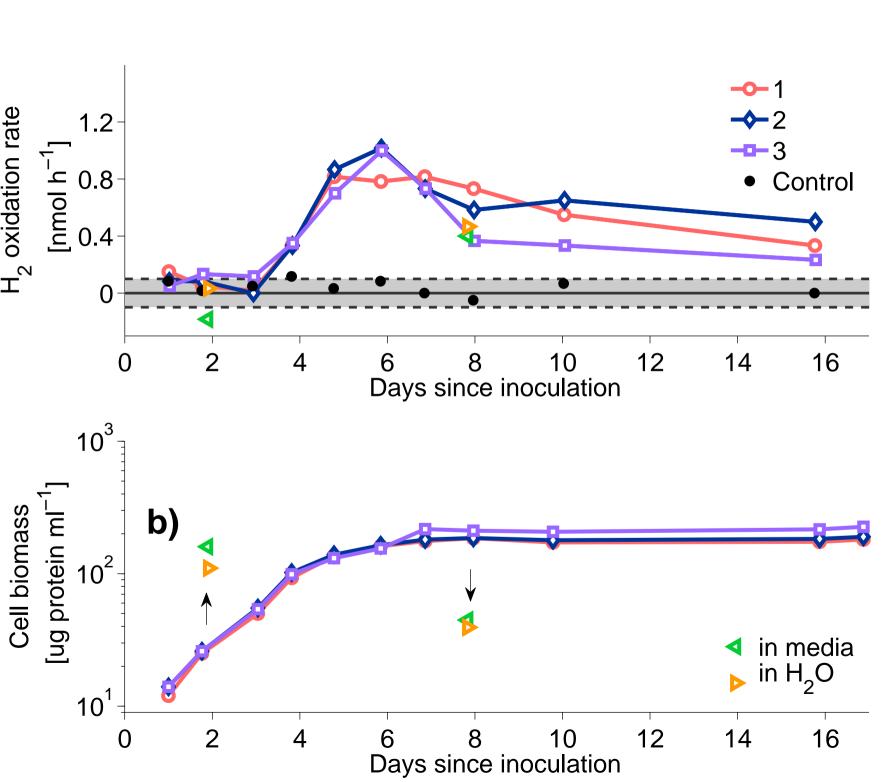
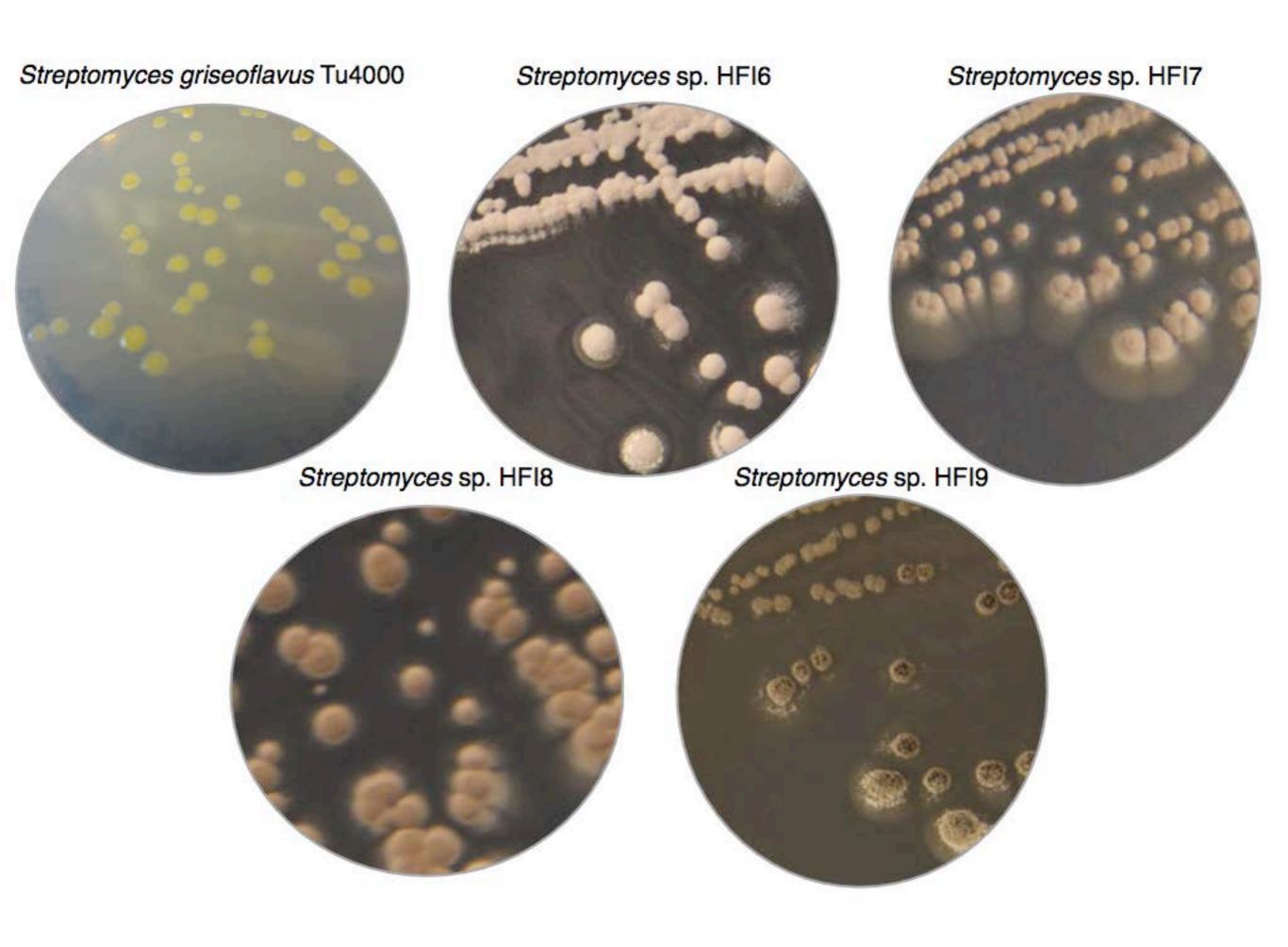


Table S1. The top database matches for strain HFI6 - HFI9 16S rRNA gene and *hhyL* nucleotide sequences indicate that the strains are *Streptomyces* spp. containing *hhyL* sequences. The GenBank accession number is listed for each deposited sequence. The results of NCBI Megablast BLAST search are listed for each sequence, where queries were made for the 16S rRNA sequences against the 16S rRNA gene sequence database and for the *hhyL* sequences against the entire nucleotide sequence database. The top match for each BLAST search is listed along with the total score, E value, and maximum identity of the match. Strain HFI6 - HFI9 16S rRNA gene sequences were 100% identical to several different strains of *Streptomyces* spp. Strain HFI6 - HFI9 *hhyL* sequences are highly similar to published cultured and uncultured *hhyL* sequences, of which some were submitted to public databases as *hydB*-like genes, though the *hhyL* terminology has been more recently adopted (Constant et al., 2011b).

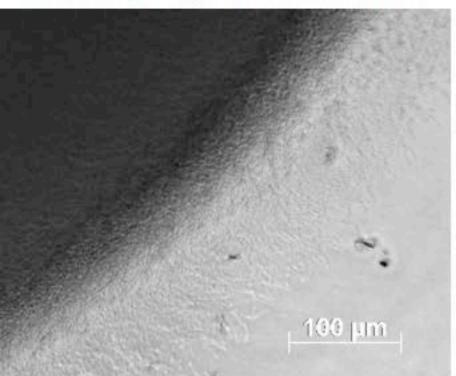
Strain	Gene	Nucleotide sequence	BLAST results				
		Accession number	Top database match (accession number)	Total	E	Max	
				Score	value	ident	
HFI6	16S rRNA	<u>KC661265</u>	Streptomyces lavendulae subsp. lavendulae strain NBRC 12344 (AB184081.2)	2532	0.0	100%	
HFI7	16S rRNA	<u>KC661266</u>	Streptomyces roseochromogenus strain MJM9261 (GU296744.1)	2532	0.0	100%	
HFI8	16S rRNA	<u>KF444073</u>	Streptomyces roseochromogenus strain MJM9261 (GU296744.1)	2532	0.0	100%	
HFI9	16S rRNA	<u>KF444074</u>	Streptomyces sanglieri strain NBRC 100784 (NR 041417.1)	2521	0.0	100%	
HFI6	hhyL	<u>KC661267</u>	Streptomyces sp. MP1 NiFe-hydrogenase large subunit ( <i>hydB</i> ) gene (GQ867040.1)	1838	0.0	95%	
HFI7	hhyL	<u>KC661268</u>	Streptomyces sp. MP1 NiFe-hydrogenase large subunit ( <i>hydB</i> ) gene (GQ867040.1)	1866	0.0	96%	
HFI8	hhyL	<u>KC661269</u>	Streptomyces sp. MP1 NiFe-hydrogenase large subunit ( <i>hydB</i> ) gene (GQ867040.1)	1432	0.0	97%	
HFI9	hhyL	<u>KC661270</u>	Streptomyces sp. S9n30 partial hhyL gene for [NiFe]-hydrogenase ( <u>HF677116.1</u> )	2207	0.0	99%	

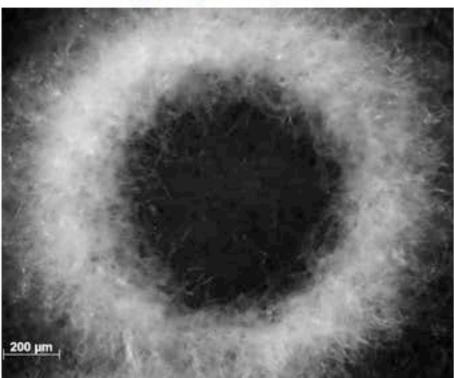


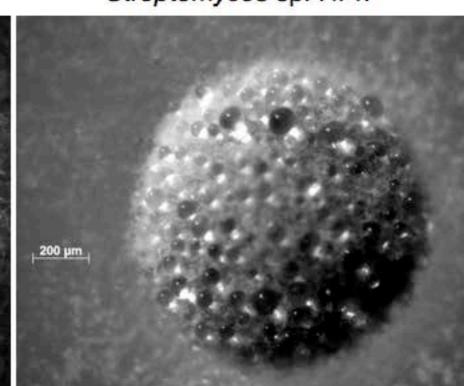
Streptomyces griseoflavus Tu4000

Streptomyces sp. HFI6

Streptomyces sp. HFI7

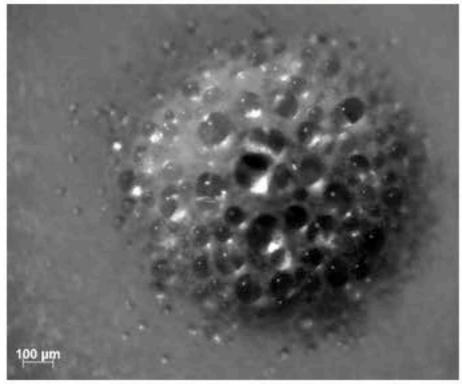


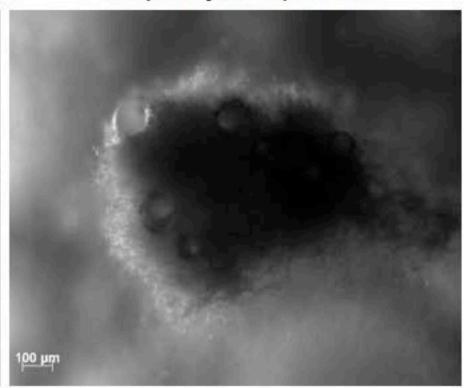


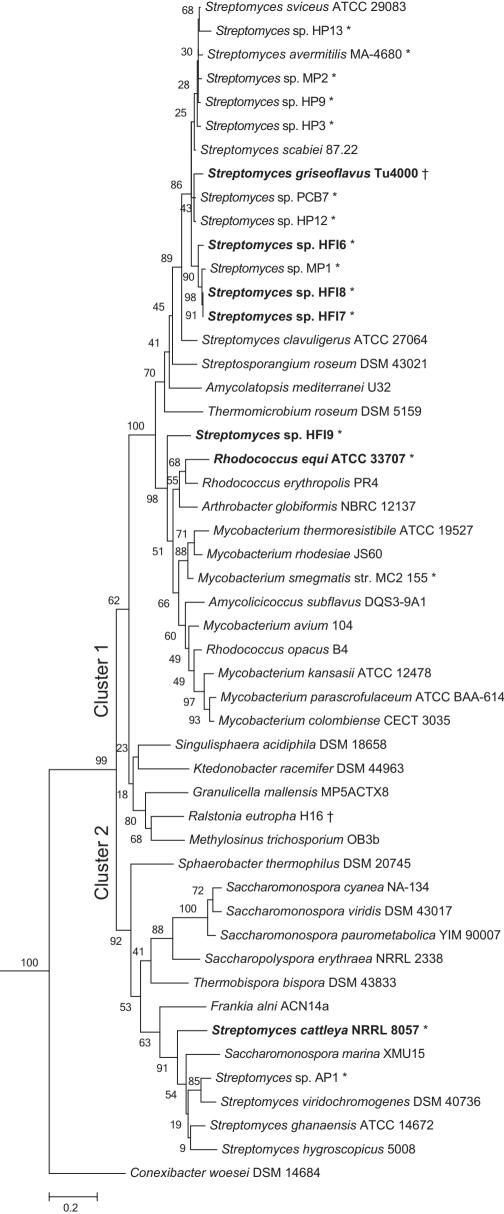


Streptomyces sp. HFI8

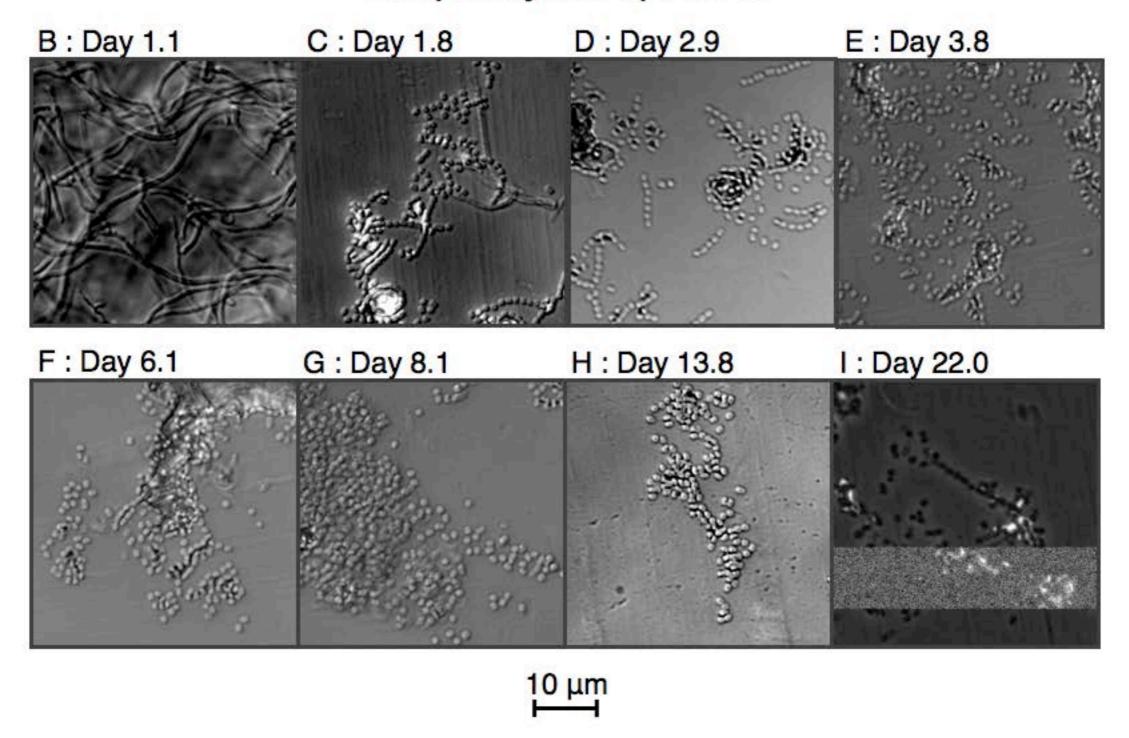
Streptomyces sp. HFI9

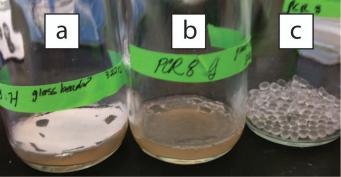


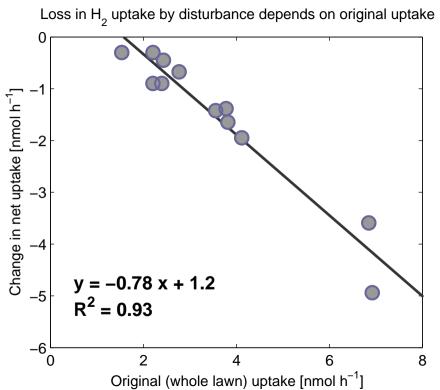




## Streptomyces sp. HFI8







## Kinetic Parameter Determination for Strain HFI8

