Confocal Raman microspectroscopy reveals a convergence of the chemical 1

composition in methanogenic archaea from a Siberian permafrost-affected 2

- soil 3
- Paloma Serrano^{1, 2}, Antje Hermelink³, Peter Lasch³, Jean-Pierre de Vera⁴, Nicole König³, 4
- Oliver Burckhardt¹, Dirk Wagner^{1#} 5
- ¹ GFZ German Research Centre for Geosciences, Helmholtz Centre Potsdam, Section 6
- 7 Geomicrobiology, Telegrafenberg, 14473 Potsdam, Germany.
- ² Alfred Wegener Institute Helmholz Centre for Polar and Marine Research. Telegrafenberg 8
- 9 A45 14473 Potsdam, Germany.
- ³ Robert Koch Institute. Centre for Biological Threats and Special Pathogens; Nordufer 20 10
- 11 13353 Berlin, Germany.
- ⁴ German Aerospace Center (DLR) Berlin, Institute of Planetary Research. Rutherfordstraße 12
- 2 12489 Berlin, Germany. 13
- # corresponding author: Dirk Wagner, GFZ German Research Centre for Geosciences, 14
- Helmholtz Centre Potsdam, Section Geomicrobiology, Telegrafenberg, 14473 Potsdam, 15
- 16 Germany

- Tel: +49 331 288 28800 17
- Fax: +49 331 288 28802 18
- Email: Dirk.Wagner@gfz-potsdam.de 19
- Keywords: methanogenic archaea, Siberian permafrost, confocal Raman microspectroscopy, 21
- 22 chemical composition, environmental adaptations, mcrA.

Running title: Chemical convergence in methanogens from Siberian permafrost

Abstract

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

Methanogenic archaea are widespread anaerobic microorganisms responsible for the production of biogenic methane. Several new species of psychrotolerant methanogenic archaea were recently isolated from a permafrost-affected soil in the Lena delta (Siberia, Russia), showing an exceptional resistance against desiccation, osmotic stress, low temperatures, starvation, UV and ionizing radiation when compared to methanogens from non-permafrost environments. To gain a deeper insight into the differences observed in their resistance, we described the chemical composition of methanogenic strains from permafrost and non-permafrost environments using confocal Raman microspectroscopy (CRM). CRM is a powerful tool for microbial identification and provides fingerprint-like information about the chemical composition of the cells. Our results show that the chemical composition of methanogens from permafrost-affected soils presents a high homology and is remarkably different from strains inhabiting non-permafrost environments. In addition, we performed a phylogenetic reconstruction of the studied strains based on the functional gene mcrA to prove the different evolutionary relationship of the permafrost strains. We conclude that the permafrost methanogenic strains show a convergent chemical composition regardless of their genotype. This fact is likely to be the consequence of a complex adaptive process to the Siberian permafrost environment and might be the reason underlying their resistant nature.

42

43

Introduction

- 44 Methanogenic archaea are strictly anaerobic microorganisms that belong to the phylum
- 45 Euryarchaeota and produce methane as an obligate catabolic end-product (Ferry, 1993).
- 46 About 85 % of the annual global methane formation is mediated by methanogenic archaea

(Thauer <i>et al.</i> , 2008). Once released, methane can either be oxidized in biotic and abiotic
processes or accumulate in the Earth's atmosphere as a greenhouse gas, where it will slowly
oxidize by means of photochemical reactions. The atmospheric methane concentration has
increased more than twofold in the last 200 years (Hedderich & Whitman, 2006),
contributing to the increase in the Earth's temperature over the last decades.
Terrestrial permafrost predominantly occurs in the northern hemisphere and covers
approximately 24 % of Earth's land surface. It represents a significant natural source of
methane, largely of biological origin (Fung et al., 1991, Wagner et al., 2003). Arctic tundra
soils in Siberia are permanently frozen throughout the year with the exception of the thin
active layer, subjected to seasonal freeze-thaw cycles with in situ temperatures ranging from
-45°C to 25°C (Wagner et al., 2005). Several novel strains of psychrotolerant methanogenic
archaea were recently isolated from the active layer of a permafrost-affected soil in the Lena
Delta (Siberia, Russia). Unlike psychrophiles, psychrotolerant methanogens show a broad
adaptive potential to the fluctuating environmental conditions, including a wide temperature
range and the subsequent geochemical gradients (Simankova et al., 2003) as it can be
observed in the active layer of the permafrost environment. Previous experiments in our labs
have demonstrated the remarkable resistance of Siberian permafrost methanogenic strains
against desiccation, osmotic stress, low temperatures and starvation when compared to
methanogenic archaea from non-permafrost environments (Morozova & Wagner, 2007,
Wagner et al., 2013). They also exhibit a high level of resistance to monochromatic and
polychromatic UV and ionizing radiation (D. Wagner, unpublished data), comparable to tha
of Deinococcus radiodurans (Brooks & Murray, 1981). In addition, methanogens from
Siberian permafrost environments are able to survive simulated Martian thermo-physical
conditions (Morozova et al., 2007) and simulated Martian subsurface analog conditions
(Schirmack et al., 2013), in contrast to other psychrophilic methanogens from non-

permafrost habitats such as Methanogenium frigidum (Franzmann et al., 1997) from Ace
Lake, Antarctica, which cannot resist these conditions (Morozova et al., 2007). Among the
Siberian permafrost isolates, the genera Methanosarcina and Methanobacterium are broadly
represented. Methanosarcina can metabolize a broad spectrum of substrates, including
hydrogen, methanol and acetate (Liu & Whitman, 2008). Methanobacterium species present
a hydrogenotrophic metabolism, growing on H ₂ +CO ₂ or formate (Ferry, 1993).
The reasons why psychrotolerant methanogens from Siberian permafrost environments are
more resistant to a broad range of extreme parameters than their relatives from psychrophilic
and mesophilic non-permafrost habitats remains unknown. We hypothesize that this
difference might depend on specific adaptations reflected in their biomolecules. In order to
investigate the chemical composition of methanogens from Siberian permafrost and non-
permafrost habitats, we used a Raman spectroscopy setup. Raman spectroscopy is a
vibrational spectroscopic technique that provides fingerprint-like information about the
overall chemical composition of the cell and requires a minimal sample preparation,
allowing a rapid nondestructive investigation (Rösch et al., 2005, Harz et al., 2009). The
strains in this study were previously investigated by Fourier-transformed Raman
spectroscopy in an attempt to perform a bulk analysis of their chemical composition.
However, due to the nature of the cells and the presence of metabolic byproducts (Serrano et
al., 2013), confocal Raman microspectroscopy (CRM) proved to be the optimal method.
CRM combines a dispersive Raman setup with a high-numerical aperture confocal
microscope, enabling the study of the chemical structure and composition of individual cells
under diffraction-limited conditions (Krause et al., 2008, Hermelink et al., 2009). This
technique has allowed the characterization of the chemotaxonomic features in multiple
microorganisms to the species and even strain level (Maquelin et al., 2002).

Additionally, a phylogenetic reconstruction based on the gene mcrA was performed to investigate the phylogenetic relationships among the strains in this study. Microbial phylogenetics is often based on the 16S rRNA molecule, although other important molecular markers for classification are known. In methanogenic archaea, the functional gene mcrA codes for the α subunit of the methyl coenzyme-M reductase (MCR), which catalyzes the last step of the methanogenesis (Ferry, 2010). MCR is thought to be unique to methanogens and, since it retains a common function, sequence comparisons are considered to provide valid phylogenetic data (Reeve, 1992). The gene mcrA has also proven to be an alternative to 16S rRNA in the phylogenetic analysis of methanogen populations (Luton et al., 2002). In this study, we describe the overall chemical composition of three strains of methanogens from Siberian permafrost and two strains of methanogens from non-permafrost habitats by means of CRM in an attempt to gain insights into their different resistance to extreme and fluctuating environmental parameters. In addition, we give a phylogenetic overview of the studied strains and their evolutionary relationship based on the functional gene mcrA. Finally, we discuss the differences in the chemical nature in relation to the reconstructed phylogeny.

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

Materials and Methods

Archaeal cultures

The three psychrotolerant methanogenic strains from Siberian permafrost environments used for this study were *Methanosarcina soligelidi* SMA-21 (Wagner *et al.*, 2013), SMA-17 and SMA-27. They were isolated from the active layer of permafrost-affected soils in the Lena Delta, Siberia (Russia). In nature, they thrive in temperatures ranging from -45°C to +25°C and even if they can grow at temperatures down to 0°C, the optimal growth temperature of

the isolates is 28°C. *Ms. soligelidi* SMA-21 (DSM 26065^T) and SMA-17 appear as irregular cocci, ~1μm in diameter and cell aggregation is often observed. They show 99.9 % homology on the 16S rRNA sequence with *Methanosarcina mazei* (Mah, 1980). SMA-27 cells are elongated rods, ~3-4 μm long. Their closest relative according to the 16S rRNA molecule is *Methanobacterium congolense* (*Cuzin et al., 2001*) (96.4 % homology. Wagner, unpublished). Additionally, two mesophilic strains from non-permafrost habitats were used as reference strains. *Ms. barkeri* DSM 8687 originates from a peat bog in northern Germany (Maestrojuan *et al.*, 1992) and *Ms. mazei* DSM 2053 was isolated from a mesophilic sewage sludge plant in California, USA. Both strains were obtained from the German Culture Collection of Microorganisms and Cells (DSMZ, Braunschweig, Germany), appear as irregular cocci, ~1μm in diameter, grow in colonies and are found in diverse environments. Both show an empirical optimal growth at the temperature of 28°C.

Growth conditions of methanogenic strains

For an accurate comparison of the spectra, the Raman measurements were performed in living cells from pure cultures grown at optimal conditions at 28°C and at their stationary phase of growth (approximately 3 weeks after innoculating the cultures). The permafrost strains were not grown at simulated permafrost conditions for the following reasons: 1) permafrost conditions are extremely difficult to simulate, considering the yearly long term freezing and thawing cycles, that consequently cause changes in the salinity and the geochemical gradients, very difficult to accurately simulate in culture conditions. 2) The freezing and thawing cycles that would partly recreate permafrost conditions would cause environmental stress on the cells due to the changing parameters. Therefore, the permafrost populations would contain less viable healthy cells and the quality of the cultures between fresh non-permafrost cultures and aged permafrost cultures exposed to environmental stress would not allow a fair comparison of the chemical composition.

Pure cultures were grown in sealed bottles that contained 50 mL of MW medium [(L⁻¹): 146 147 NH₄Cl 0.25 G, MgCl₂ x 6H₂0, 0.4 G, CaCl₂ x 2H₂O 0.1 G, KCl, 0.5 G, KH₂PO₄, 0.2 G, Na HCO₃, 2.7 G, Cysteine, 0.3 G, Na₂S, 0.2 G; trace element solution (Balch et al., 1979), 148 149 10mL; vitamin solution (Bryant et al., 1971), 10mL] in Methanosarcina strains and CS medium [(L-1): NH₄Cl, 0.3 G, MgCl₂ x 6H₂O, 0.4 G, CaCl₂ x 2H₂O, 0.16 G, NaCl, 1.0 G, 150 151 KCl, 0.5 G, K₂HPO₄ 0.25 G, Na HCO₃, 2.7 G, Na-Acetate, 0.25 G, Na₂S₂O₄, 0.1 G, Na₂S, 0.25 G; trace element solution (Imhoff-Stuckle & Pfennig, 1983), 1mL; vitamin solution 152 153 (Bryant et al., 1971), 1mL] in the case of SMA-27 (since the growth of SMA-27 in MW 154 medium was suboptimal). Both media contain 2 mL resazurin (7-Hydroxy-3H-phenoxazin-3-on-10-oxide). The bottles were flushed and pressurized to one atmosphere with H₂/CO₂ 155 156 (80:20 v/v). For sample preparation, 200 mL from four sets of pure cultures in the stationary 157 phase of growth were centrifuged at 7900 g for 40 min and 4°C and washed twice in 200 mL of distilled water at 4600 g for 30 min and 4°C. 7 µL of the cell suspensions were air-dried 158 159 onto a CaF₂ slide, previously diluted 1:10 and 1:100 for a better observation of the single 160 cells.

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

Raman microspectroscopy

Raman spectra were captured using a WITec (Ulm, Germany) Model alpha 300R confocal Raman microspectroscope (CRM), calibrated according to the manufacturer's instructions with an Ar/Hg spectral lamp. The CRM contained an ultra-high throughput spectrometer (UHTS300) and used a back-illuminated EMCCD camera (Andor Technology PLC, Belfast, Northern Ireland) as detector. All the measurements presented in this article were performed with an apochromatic Nikon E Plan (100x/0.95) objective (Tokyo, Japan) and a working distance of 0.230 mm at an excitation wavelength of 532 nm (frequency doubled Nd-YAG laser; 35mW laser power). A minimum of 20 individual cells were measured, each of them

171	with 5s of accumulation time under full pixel binning and without gaining at the camera.
172	Further technical details about the Raman equipment and measurements were reported in
173	detail in Serrano et al. (2014).
174	For hierarchical clustering of the CRM spectra, a cosmic ray removal procedure was first
175	performed on the spectra, followed by the individual export of each spectrum via an ASCII
176	interface into OPUS 5.5 (Bruker Optik GmbH, Rheinstetten, Germany). As part of the pre-
177	processing, we carried out a quality test in order to assess the signal-to-noise ratio and a pre-
178	selection of the cell-based spectra that contains the principal components of the spectrum.
179	The first derivative with Savitzky-Golay smoothing/ derivative filter was applied using 9
180	smoothing points and normalized vectors. Spectral distances between pairs of individual
181	spectra were obtained based on the data from the 796-1854 and 2746-3205 cm ⁻¹ spectral
182	regions as D-values (Naumann, 2000) derived from normalized Pearson's product
183	momentum correlation coefficient. The normalization allows a variation between D-value=0
184	(r=1: high correlated data/identity), D-value=1000 (r=0: uncorrelated data) and D-
185	value=2000 (r=-1:anti-correlated spectra) and prevents negative values (Helm et al., 1991).
186	Average linkage was used as the clustering method. For the cluster analysis in Figure 4A, the
187	same method was applied to the average spectra obtained from averaging the individual
188	spectra of each strain shown in Fig. 2, including the outlying spectra.
189	The individual Raman intensities of all strains within the regions of 850 - 1850 and 2750 -
190	3200 cm ⁻¹ were treated as statistical variables and subjected to a rigid rotation via a Principal
191	Component Analysis (PCA) using the commercial software package MATLAB R2014a (The
192	Mathworks Inc, Natick, MA). This allows for the reduction of the original variables into
193	fewer, independent variables and to visualize and compare spectra between permafrost and
194	non-permafrost methanogenic strains.

Phylogenetic analysis

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

For phylogenetic analysis based on the mcrA sequence, the DNA was extracted from pure cultures of the five mentioned strains following the user manual of the UltraClean® DNA purification kit. The mcrA gene (Bokranz et al., 1988) was amplified with the primers ME1 (forward: gCMATgCARATHggWATgTC) and ME2 (reverse: TCATKgCTAgTTDggRTAgT). The PCR consisted in 32 cycles of 1min at 94°C (denaturation) followed by 1 min at 55°C (annealing) and 1 min at 72°C (elongation). A previous denaturation stage (10min, 95°C) and a final elongation (10min, 72°C) were performed, resulting in a 710 base pairs gene product. Sequencing was performed by GATC Biotech (Constance, Germany). The consensus sequence was obtained using the software CodonCode Aligner (Codoncode Cooperation, MA, USA). The nucleotide sequences from the Siberian permafrost strains were uploaded in GeneBank under the numbers KJ432634 (mcrA Ms. soligelidi SMA-21), KJ432635 (mcrA SMA-17) and KJ432633 (mcrA SMA-27). A multiple alignment of the five *mcrA* sequences was performed with ClustalW (Thompson et al., 1994) through Geneious pro 5.6.6 (Biomatters Ltd.) and a maximum likelihood tree (1000 bootstraps) was built using the GTR substitution model including the methanogenic archaea Methanopyrus kandleri (Kurr et al., 1991) order Methanopyrales, (Genbank U57340) as an outgroup.

214

215

216

217

218

219

Results

Raman spectra of permafrost and non-permafrost methanogens

The Raman spectra of the analyzed strains *Ms. soligelidi* SMA-21, SMA-17 and SMA-27 from Siberian permafrost and *Ms. barkeri* and *Ms. mazei* from non-permafrost habitats are illustrated in Figure 1 and described Table 1. The highest Raman intensity in all spectra was

the CH ₂ stretching vibration around 2936 cm ⁻¹ . The spectra from permatrost strains exhibited
a shoulder at 2885 cm ⁻¹ , which corresponds to the symmetric CH ₃ stretching (Socrates,
2004), indicating significant differences in the aliphatic chain composition between
permafrost and non-permafrost methanogenic strains. Raman modes of proteins were found
at 1669 cm ⁻¹ (amide I) and at 1243-1275 cm ⁻¹ (region of amide III). Their intensities are
correlated and show slightly lower values for Ms. soligelidi SMA-21 and SMA-17. The peak
at 1610 cm ⁻¹ corresponds to the bond C=C found in aromatic amino acids phenylalanine and
tyrosine and reached higher intensities in non-permafrost strains, whereas the peak at 1589
cm ⁻¹ is associated to the ring breathing modes of ribonucleotides guanine and adenine as well
as the amino acid tryptophan and was absent in permafrost strains. The intensity of the 1460
cm ⁻¹ band, attributed to CH ₂ deformation, was similar in all strains investigated. The peaks at
1344 cm ⁻¹ and 1338 cm ⁻¹ were both assigned to the deformation of the group CH in
carbohydrates and proteins (Ivleva et al., 2009). The peak at 1344 cm ⁻¹ reached the highest
intensity for Ms. mazei, the lowest for Ms. soligelidi SMA-21 and SMA-17 and intermediate
values for SMA-27 and Ms. barkeri, whereas the one at 1338 cm ⁻¹ was unique to the
permafrost strains SMA-21 and SMA-17. All the mentioned bands varied slightly in
bandwidth, position and intensity for each strain. The peaks in the spectral region located
between 1200 and 800 cm ⁻¹ showed relative higher intensities in permafrost strains than in
non-permafrost strains, including the bands located at 1167 cm ⁻¹ (C-C and C-O ring
breathing), 1128 cm ⁻¹ (characteristic of the C-O-C in the glycosidic link) and 1054 cm ⁻¹ (C-O
and C-C from carbohydrates, and C-C and C-N in proteins, Neugebauer et al., 2007). The
band at 1008 cm ⁻¹ was attributed to the symmetric benzene/ pyrrole in-phase and out-of-
phase breathing modes of phenylalanine (Ivleva et al., 2009). The band at 860 cm ⁻¹
corresponded to the C-C stretching modes and the C-O-C glycosidic link in polysaccharides
(Pereira et al., 2004), and the peak at 835 cm ⁻¹ was exclusive to the permafrost strains and

245	was attributed to the ring breathing of the amino acid tyrosine and the group O-P-O present
246	in nucleic acids (Ivleva et al., 2009).
247	The cluster analysis based on the Raman spectra showed the similarities and differences in
248	the overall chemical composition of permafrost and non-permafrost strains in stationary
249	phase, revealing two chemically different clusters illustrated in Figure 2 (individual spectra)
250	and 4A (average spectra). CRM spectra corresponding to individual cells of the same
251	microbial strain clustered together, with the exception of two spectra from SMA-27 and
252	three spectra from Ms. soligelidi SMA-21 (Fig. 2). The outlying spectra of SMA-27 were
253	equally distant to the spectra of the SMA-27 cluster and the Ms. soligelidi SMA-21/SMA-17
254	cluster, separated by the distance of 104.6 and 123.1 D-value units, respectively. Three
255	outlying spectra of Ms. soligelidi SMA-21 were separated by 70.8 D-value units from the
256	Ms. soligelidi SMA-21/ SMA-17 cluster. Spectra from Ms. mazei, Ms. barkeri and SMA-17
257	cells were less heterogeneous and grouped into unique clusters at the strain level.
258	The cluster analysis in Figure 4A shows an overview of the phenotypic resemblance in the
259	chemical composition based on the average spectra of each strain, obtained from averaging
260	the individual spectra, including the outliers (and therefore disregarding the intraspecific
261	variances in the heterogeneity). Strains Ms. soligelidi SMA-21 and SMA-17 were most
262	similar, separated by 15.6 D-values. The cluster Ms. soligelidi SMA-21/SMA-17 was
263	closely related to the strain SMA-27, also from Siberian permafrost, distanced by 37.8 D-
264	values. Apart from the permafrost group, the spectra from Ms. mazei and Ms. barkeri (non-
265	permafrost strains) grouped together, separated by 24.4 D-value units. The total distance
266	between the permafrost and the non-permafrost cluster was 84.4 D-values.
267	The PCA in Figure 3A shows the score plot of the first 3 principal components (PCs) that
268	cumulatively captured 88.04 % of the total variance in the spectral regions of interest. It
269	demonstrated that each strain occupies a distinct variable space, forming non-overlapping

data clouds. Additionally, PC1 can effectively separate the permafrost and the nonpermafrost groups (note that PCA has been carried out on normalized spectra), illustrating
shared spectral features within each of the two groups and divergent spectral features
between these groups. Figure 3B shows the loadings of the first three PCs. PC1 (62.72% of
the variance) is dominated by strong bands at the labeled wavelengths, which correspond to
the vibrational modes of proteins, carbohydrates, nucleic acids and lipids (Neugebauer *et al.*,
2007, Ivleva *et al.*, 2009) and illustrate additional differences within the chemical
composition between permafrost and non-permafrost strains. The downward peaks
correspond to distinct features shared by non-permafrost methanogens, whereas the upward
peaks correspond to shared features of permafrost methanogens.

Phylogenetic relationships of methanogenic archaea

A maximum likelihood tree (GTR substitution model, 1000 bootstraps) was built for the studied methanogens according to the *mcrA* nucleotide sequence, using *Methanopyrus kandleri* as the outgroup (Fig. 4B). All the *Methanosarcina* species clustered together, with *Ms. soligelidi* SMA-21 and SMA-17 from the Siberian permafrost showing identical *mcrA* sequences. The cluster *Ms. soligelidi* SMA-21/SMA-17 was closely related to *Ms. mazei*, sharing a 98.5 % identity in their sequences. *Ms. mazei* and *Ms. barkeri* presented a 91.5 % homology. Finally, SMA-27 was the most evolutionary distant strain, sharing only 61% of the *mcrA* nucleotide sequence with the rest of the studied strains.

Discussion

Previous studies have shown that methanogenic archaea from permafrost habitats are more tolerant to different environmental stress factors compared to those from non-permafrost

areas (Morozova et al., 2007, Morozova & Wagner, 2007, Morozova et al., 2015). In this study, we have shown that Siberian permafrost and non-permafrost strains could be classified into two different groups according to their chemical composition on the basis of CRM analysis. The Siberian permafrost strains (Ms. soligelidi SMA-21, SMA-27 and SMA-17) show a higher degree of similarity in their chemistry and the spectral clusters of SMA-27 and Ms. soligelidi SMA-21 present outlying spectra, suggesting that their populations are more chemically heterogeneous than the other strains (Fig. 2). However, the high phenotypic heterogeneity within a cell population and diversity between different growth phases described for Ms. soligelidi SMA-21 (Serrano et al., (2014) were also observed in all the strains investigated in this study. When comparing the cluster analysis of the individual spectra (Fig. 2) with the average spectra (Fig. 4A), two puzzling facts concerning the scale, and therefore the heterogeneity, were observed: (i) The scales were different, despite referring to the same data; (ii) The heterogeneity within the SMA-27 population was larger than the overall distance in the average spectra. The explanation relies on the fact that the average spectra were obtained by averaging the single spectra from each strain, including the outliers, which considerably increased the variance of the corresponding strains (Ms. soligelidi SMA-21 and most remarkably SMA-27). The largely different variances within each strain were therefore not proportionally weighed for the cluster analysis of the average spectra and, despite this fact, the permafrost and the non-permafrost strains cluster in different groups according to their chemical composition. The clusters resulting from the PCA of the individual spectra (Fig. 3A) support the cluster analysis in Figure 2, evidencing that CRM can be used to differentiate between strains, which form non-overlapping data clouds on the plot. Furthermore, the first principal component has separated out permafrost from non-permafrost strains. However, the Ramanspectroscopic differences between permafrost and non-permafrost strains (Fig. 1 and 3B) are

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

non-conclusive when it comes to pointing to specific biomolecules that differentiate the two groups. Raman spectroscopy exclusively shows the differences in the vibrational modes and thus in the chemical composition, without revealing the biomolecule itself. For example, the band at 2885 cm⁻¹ (Fig. 1) corresponds to the symmetric CH₃ stretching, indicating significant differences in the aliphatic chain composition between permafrost and nonpermafrost methanogens, but this technique does not allow for the identification of specific phospholipids. On the other hand, the evolutionary relationships among the strains do not correspond in all cases with the topology found for the chemical composition. The phylogenetic relationship provided by the gene mcrA proves that the permafrost strains do not form a monophyletic group (Fig. 4B). The mcrA sequences of Methanosarcina strains from the Siberian permafrost (SMA-21 and SMA-17) are closely related to each other, whereas SMA-27 presents only 61% of homology with the rest of the strains and aligned with the genus Methanobacterium. Sequence alignments of the 16S rRNA molecule corroborate these findings (Wagner, unpublished), evidencing that SMA-27 forms a distantly-related sister group. The non-permafrost strains, Ms. mazei and Ms. barkeri, share a remarkable degree of homology in both chemical composition and genetic information. The maximum likelihood analysis based on mcrA shows a full bootstrap support for the node that separates Ms. barkeri (Fig. 4B). Although the other two nodes within that group are not completely resolved, it is evidenced that Ms. mazei is the most closely related strain to Ms. soligelidi SMA-21 and SMA-17. This study proves that Siberian permafrost methanogenic strains share a related chemistry, regardless of their evolutionary origin. In other words, methanogens with different genotypes can exhibit an analogous phenotype in terms of chemical composition. This finding points to the evidence of the complexity of the adaptations to the environmental conditions,

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

suggesting that methanogenic strains from Siberian permafrost may have developed common biochemical adaptations to sub-zero temperatures, freeze-thaw cycles, osmotic stress and high levels of background radiation over geological time scales. A plausible phenomenon explaining the convergent chemical composition in permafrost strains despite their different genotype is the horizontal gene transfer (HGT) (Jain et al., 1999). HGT allows the rapid incorporation of novel functions that provide a selective advantage to the organism and there is proof of HGT in the evolution of some genes coding for enzymes involved in methanogenic pathways (Fournier, 2009). The Alien Hunter programme (Vernikos & Parkhill, 2006) predicted that between 35% and 51% of the genome of methanogenic archaea has undergone HGT, and the highest percentage corresponded to the psychrophilic archaeon Methanococcoides burtonii (Allen et al., 2009). However, the gene mcrA chosen for this study is not affected by this phenomenon. All mcr operons appear to have evolved from a common ancestor and since MCR plays a key role in the methanogenesis, it is highly conserved and provides valid phylogenetic information, independent of the 16S rRNA information (Reeve, 1992). Despite this fact, other operational genes involved in perhaps anabolic pathways may have experienced HGT with the consequent production of molecules/metabolites that might have provided a selective phenotypic advantage to the cells. That selective advantage would enable them to survive in the Siberian permafrost environment and leading to a convergent chemical phenotype of the methanogenic archaea. The specific biomolecules that are different for permafrost and non-permafrost strains and may provide the selective advantage, however, cannot be discriminated by means of CRM. CRM allows the discrimination between molecules based on their specific vibrational modes. When investigating the composition of a single cell, CRM can be used to describe only the Raman-active biomolecules such as molecules containing aromatic rings

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

(phenylalanine, tryptophan, pigments etc.), but this technology does not allow the identification of specific biomolecules (e.g. a particular protein or carbohydrate). Figure 1 and Table 1 illustrate both the quantitative (band intensities) and qualitative (band position) chemical differences found between spectra of permafrost (psychrotolerant) and non-permafrost (mesophilic) methanogens cultured at their optimal conditions and growth temperature (28°C). Some peaks experience a slight shift in comparison to their standard value in the literature (e.g. the symmetric benzene/pyrrole in-phase and out-of-phase breathing modes of phenylalanine appear at 1008 cm⁻¹ in contrast to Ivleva et al., 2009, with the same peak described at 1003cm⁻¹). Although the calibration of the spectrometer was verified once a week, calibration errors of 3-5 wavenumber units (deviation of approximately one pixel of the 1024 x 128 CCD element) cannot be excluded. However, a systematic calibration error of the CRM measurements is expected to only exert a minor effect on the results of cluster or principal component analysis. Furthermore, the Raman peaks illustrating the differences between the permafrost and non-permafrost groups are not identical in Fig. 1 and Fig. 3B, although they are focused in the same major spectral regions. For instance, the region 1571-1690 cm⁻¹ in the average spectra (Fig.1) contains minor fluctuations that correlate with the peaks identified on the PCA (Fig. 3B). This spectral region corresponds to proteins (amide I, 1669cm⁻¹) and aromatic amino acids, and evidences differences between permafrost and non-permafrost strains. The same fact is observed within the region 2846 -2959 cm⁻¹ (Fig. 1), which corresponds to lipids: multiple additional differences in the vibrational modes of permafrost and non-permafrost methanogens are revealed within that region on the PCA (Fig. 3B). The underlying compositional differences might be correlated with convergent biochemical adaptations to the Siberian permafrost environment and could explain the resistant nature of the permafrost strains when compared to other non-permafrost methanogens. These

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

adaptations to the Siberian permafrost environment might be related to one or multiple adaptive mechanisms to cold, radiation, desiccation, osmotic stress, and their corresponding seasonal fluctuations. The adaptive mechanisms described for psychrotolerant methanogenic archaea include modifications in cellular components and functional machinery or proteins in order to maintain their structural flexibility and activity under cold temperatures and changing conditions (Dong & Chen, 2012). For instance, the membrane lipids show increasing levels of unsaturation of the fatty acids (Cavicchioli et al., 2000). In Figure 1, the peak at 2936 cm⁻¹ (CH₂ stretching region) presents a similar intensity for all strains, pointing to the fact that the lipid content is comparable. Next to it, the peak at 2885 cm⁻¹ (symmetric CH₃ stretching) reveals a noticeable contrast between permafrost and non-permafrost strains, denoting qualitative differences in the aliphatic chain composition of the lipids (Socrates, 2004), even when growing at mesophilic temperatures. In addition, previous studies have reported that proteins in psychryotolerant methanogens present a reduced hydrophobic core and a less charged protein surface (Reed et al., 2013), as well as cold-adaptive chaperone proteins, such as Csp, CSD and TRAM domain proteins (Giaquinto et al., 2007). This study shows that the protein levels are slightly more abundant in non-permafrost strains and SMA-27, according to the amide I (1669 cm⁻¹) and amide III bands (1275-1243 cm⁻¹), which correspond to the peptide bond of proteins. On the other hand, the peak at 1610 cm⁻¹ is unique to phenylalanine and tyrosine and it is more abundant in non-permafrost strains. However, the peak at 1008 cm⁻¹, assigned to phenylalanine, is slightly higher in the permafrost methanogenic strains. The peaks at 1589 cm⁻¹ and 835 cm⁻¹ correspond also to aromatic amino acids, but are not unique to them. These findings are in principle compatible with the reduced hydrophobic cores of proteins in psychrotolerant methanogens found by Reed et al. (2013), since the proteins from permafrost methanogenic strains present relatively less aromatic (and hydrophobic) amino acids, with the exception of phenylalanine. Unfortunately, only the aromatic amino acids tryptophan, tyrosine and phenylalanine

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

419 produce Raman scattering, and therefore this technique does not allow further amino acid identification. 420 Particularly interesting is the band at 860 cm⁻¹, which is especially prominent in permafrost 421 strains and was previously assigned to the C-O-C 1,4-glycosidic link present in 422 423 carbohydrates and polysaccharides (Pereira et al., 2004, Ivleva et al., 2009). This distinctive band together with the band at 1338 cm⁻¹ confirms the presence of polysaccharide of similar 424 nature in permafrost strains. Many microorganisms, including archaea, have been reported to 425 426 produce exopolysaccharides (EPSs, sugar-based polymers that are secreted by microorganisms to the surrounding environment) as a strategy to survive adverse conditions 427 428 (Poli et al., 2011). In fact, they have been shown to play a protective role against desiccation (Ophir & Gutnick, 1994), which might be the case of the permafrost methanogenic strains in 429 430 the perennially frozen ground or frozen period of the active layer. 431 In conclusion, this study presents proof of concept that distantly related methanogens 432 (Methanosarcina and Methanobacterium) occurring in the same habitat have independently 433 developed similarities in the chemical composition (Hoover & Pikuta, 2009). Extreme 434 conditions such as sub-zero temperatures and osmotic stress generally affect macromolecule 435 structures and the thermodynamics of chemical reactions, having the same impact on all microorganisms. Hence, microorganisms that inhabit in the same extreme environment have 436 437 proven that the features and adaptations that unite them as a group are stronger than the 438 variation imposed by their phylogeny (Cavicchioli, 2006). The microbial communities of 439 permafrost environments have been often referred to as a "community of survivors" 440 (Friedmann, 1994) that have found themselves trapped in this environment and have 441 outcompeted those unable to withstand the given environmental conditions through a process 442 of continuous selection that lasted millions of years (Gilichinsky et al., 1993). The Siberian

443	permafrost methanogenic strains in this study corroborate the convergence of a certain
444	phenotype in response to the surrounding environment, independent of the genotype.
445	
446	Acknowledgements
447	The authors acknowledge Christoph Liedtke (University of Basel) and Susanne Liebner
448	(GFZ German Research Centre for Geosciences) for advice on phylogenetic reconstructions
449	and Mashal Alawi (GFZ German Research Centre for Geosciences) for his comments on the
450	manuscript. The authors declare no conflicts of interest. This work was supported by the
451	Federal Ministry of Economics and Technology (BMWi) by a grant to DW (50WB1152).
452	
453	References
454 455 456 457 458 459 460 461 462 463 464 465 466 467 468 469 470 471 472 473 474 475	Allen M, Lauro F, Williams T, et al. (2009) The genome sequence of the psychrophilic archaeon, Methanococcoides burtonii: the role of genome evolution in cold adaptation. ISME Journal 3: 1012–1035. Balch W, Fox G, Magrum L and Wolfe R. (1979) Methanogens: reevaluation of a unique biological group. Microbiol Rev 43: 260-296. Bokranz M, Baumner G, Allmansberger R, Ankel-Fuchs D and Klein A (1988) Cloning and characterization of the methyl coenzyme M reductase genes from Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum. J Bacteriol 170: 568-577. Brooks BW & Murray RGE (1981) Nomenclature for "Micrococcus radiodurans" and other radiation-resistant cocci: Deinococcaceae fam. nov. and Deinococcus gen. nov., including five species. Int J Syst Bacteriol 31: 353-360. Bryant MP, Tzeng SF, Robinson JM & Joyner Jr. AE (1971) Nutrient requirements of methanogenic bacteria. Adv Chem Ser 105: 23-40. Cavicchioli R (2006) Cold-adapted archaea. Nature Rev Microbiol 4: 331-343. Cavicchioli R, Thomas T & Curmi PMG (2000) Cold stress response in Archaea. Extremophiles: life under extreme conditions 4: 321-331. Cuzin N, Ouattara AS, Labat M & Garcia J (2001) Methanobacterium congolense sp. nov., from a methanogenic fermentation of cassava peel. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 51: 489 - 493. Dong X & Chen Z (2012) Psychrotolerant methanogenic archaea: diversity and cold adaptation mechanisms. Science China Life Science 55: 415-421. Ferry JG (1993) Methanogenesis. ecology, physiology, biochemistry and genetics. Chapman and Hall, New York, London.
476 477 478 479	Ferry JG (2010) The chemical biology of methanogenesis. <i>Planet Space Sci</i> 58 : 1775-1783. Fournier G (2009) Horizontal gene transfer and the evolution of methanogenic pathways. <i>Horizontal gene transfer: genomes in flux</i> (Gogarten, M.B.; Gogarten, J.P.; Olendzenski, L., eds.), pp. 163-179. Humana Press.

- 480 Franzmann PD, Liu Y, Balkwill DL, Aldrich HC, Conway de Macairo W & Boone DR (1997)
- *Methanogenium frigidum* sp. nov., a psychrophilic, H₂-using methanogen from Ace Lake,
- 482 Antarctica. *Int J Syst Bacteriol* **47**: 1068-1072.
- Friedmann EI (1994) Permafrost as microbial habitat. *Viable microorganisms in Permafrost.*
- 484 (Gilichinsky DA, ed.) pp. 21-26. Russian Academy of Science, Pushchino.
- Fung I, John J, Lerner J, Matthews E, Prather M, Steele LP & Fraser PJ (1991) Three-dimensional model synthesis of the global methane cycle. *J Geophysical Res* **96**: 13033-13065.
- 487 Giaquinto L, Curmi PMG & Siddiqui KS (2007) Structure and function of cold shock proteins in Archaea. *J Bacteriol* **189**: 5738–5748.
- Gilichinsky DA, Soina VS & Petrova MA (1993) Cryoprotective properties of water in the Earth cryolithosphere and its role in exobiology. *Origins Life Evol Biosphere* **23**: 65 75.
- Harz M, Rösch P & Popp J (2009) Vibrational spectroscopy- a powerful tool for the rapid identification of microbial cells at the single-cell level. *Cytometry Part A* **75A**: 104-113.
- Hedderich R & Whitman W (2006) *Physiology and biochemistry of methane-producing archaea*.
 Springer Verlag, New York.
- Helm D, Labischinski H & Naumann D (1991) Elaboration of a procedure for identification of
 bacteria using Fourier-transform infrared spectral libraries: A stepwise correlation approach.
 I Microbiol Methods 14: 127-147.
- Hermelink A, Brauer A, Lasch P & Naumann D (2009) Phenotypic heterogeneity within
 microbial populations at the single-cell level investigated by confocal Raman
 microspectroscopy. *Analyst* 134: 1149–1153.
- Hoover RB & Pikuta EV (2009) Psychrophilic and psychrotolerant microbial extremophiles in polar environments. *Polar microbiology* (Bej AK, Aislabie J & Atlas R, eds.), pp. 115 -156.CRC Press.
- 504 Imhoff-Stuckle D & Pfennig N (1983) Isolation and characterization of a nicotinic acid-
- degrading sulfate-reducing bacterium, *Desulfococcus niacini* sp. nov. *Arch Microbiol* **136**: 194–198.
- Ivleva NP, Wagner M, Horn H, Niessner R & Haisch C (2009) Towards a nondestructive
 chemical characterization of biofilm matrix by Raman microscopy. *Anal Bioanal Chem* 393:
 197-206.
- Jain R, Rivera MC & Lake JA (1999) Horizontal gene transfer among genomes: The complexity hypothesis. *PNAS* **96**: 3801–3806.
- Krause M, Rösch P, Radt B & Popp J (2008) Localizing and identifying living bacteria in an
 abiotic environment by a combination of Raman and fluorescence microscopy. *Anal Chem* 80:
 8568–8575.
- Kurr M, Huber R, König H, Jannasch HW, Fricke H, Trineone A, Kristjansson JK & Stetter KO (1991) *Methanopyrus kandleri*, gen. and sp. nov. represents a novel group of hyperthermorphilism other genes growing at 110%. Arch Microbiol 156: 220-247
- 517 hyperthermophilic methanogens, growing at 110°C. *Arch Microbiol* **156**: 239-247.

 518 Liu Y & Whitman W (2008) Metabolic phylogenetic and ecological diversity of the
- Liu Y & Whitman W (2008) Metabolic, phylogenetic, and ecological diversity of the methanogenic archaea. *Ann NY Acad Sci* **1125**: 171-189.
- Luton PE, Wayme JM, Sharp RJ & Riley PW (2002) The mcrA gene as an alternative to 16S rRNA in the phylogenetic analysis of populations in landfill. *Microbiol* **148**: 3521-3530.
- Maestrojuan GM, Bonne JE, Mah RA, Menaia JAGF, Sachis MS & Boone DR (1992) Taxonomy and
 halotolerance of mesophilic Methanosarcina strains, assignment of strains to species, and
 synonymy of *Methanosarcina mazei* and *Methanosarcina frisia*. *Int J Syst Bacteriol* 42: 561-
- 525 567.
- 526 Mah RA (1980) Isolation and characterization of of *Methanococcus mazei*. *Current Microbiology* 527 **3**: 321- 326.
- Maquelin K, Choo-Smith L-P, Kirschner C, Ngo Thi NA, Naumann D & Puppels GJ (2002)
- Vibrational spectroscopic studies of microorganisms. *Handbook of vibrational spectroscopy*,
- (Chalmers JM & Griffiths PR, eds.), pp. 3308 3334. John Wiley, Chichester.
- Morozova D & Wagner D (2007) Stress response of methanogenic archaea from Siberian
- permafrost compared with methanogens from non permafrost habitats. FEMS Microbiol Ecol
- **61** 16–25.

- Morozova D, Möhlmann D & Wagner D (2007) Survival of methanogenic archaea from Siberian
- permafrost under simulated martian thermal conditions. *Orig Life Evol Biosph* **37**: 189–200.
- Morozova D, Moeller R, Rettberg P & Wagner D (2015) Enhanced radiation resistance of
- 537 *Methanosarcina soligelidi* SMA-21, a new methanogenic archaeon isolated from a Siberian
- permafrost-affected soil in direct comparison to *Methanosarcina barkeri*. *Astrobiology* **15**:
- Naumann D (2000) Infrared spectroscopy in microbiology. *Encyclopedia of Analytical*
- 540 *Chemistry: applications, theory and instrumentation.* (Meyers R., ed), pp. 102-131. John Wiley and Sons Ltd, Chichester.
- Neugebauer U, Schmid U, Baumann K, Zieburh W, Kozitskaya S, Deckert V, Schmitt M & Popp J (2007) Towards a detailed understanding of bacterial metabolism- spectroscopic
- characterization of *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. *Chem Phys Chem* **8**: 124-137.
- Ophir T & Gutnick D (1994) A role for exopolysaccharides in the protection of microorganisms for dessication. *Appl Environ Microbiol* **60**: 740-745.
- Pereira R, Martin AA, Tierra-Criollo CJ & Santos I (2004) Diagnosis of squamous cell carcinoma of human skin by Raman spectroscopy. *Proceedings of SPIE* **5326**: 106 112.
- Poli A, Di Donato P, Abbamondi GR & Nicolaus B (2011) Synthesis, production, and
- biotechnological applications of exopolysaccharides and polyhydroxyalkanoates by archaea.
 Archaea 2011: 1-13.
- Reed CJ, Lewis H, Trejo E, Winston V & Evilia C (2013) Protein adaptations in archaeal extremophiles. *Archaea* **2013**: 273-275.
- Reeve JN (1992) Molecular biology of methanogens. *Annu Rev Microbiol* **46**: 165-191.
- Rösch P, Harz M, Schmitt M, *et al.* (2005) Chemotaxonomic identification of single bacteria by micro-Raman spectroscopy: application to clean-room-relevant biological contaminations. *Appl Environ Microbiol* **71**: 1626–1637.
- Schirmack J, Böhm M, Brauer C, Löhmannsröben HG, de Vera JP, Möhlmann D & Wagner D
 (2013) Laser spectroscopic real time measurements of methanogenic activity under
 simulated Martian subsurface analog conditions. *Planetary and Space Science* 98:198-204
- Serrano P, Wagner D, Böttger U, de Vera JP, Lasch P & Hermelink A (2014) Single-cell analysis
 of the methanogenic archaeon *Methanosarcina soligelidi* from Siberian permafrost by means
 of confocal Raman microspectroscopy for astrobiological research. *Planet Space Sci* 98: 191 197.
- Simankova MV, Kotsyurbenko OR, Lueders T, Nozhevnikova AN, Wagner B, Conrad R &
 Friedrich MW (2003) Isolation and characterization of new strains of methanogens from cold terrestrial habitats. *Syst Appl Microbiol* 26: 312-128.
- Socrates G (2004) Alkane group residues: CH group. *Infrared and Raman characteristic group frequencies Tables and charts.* (Socrates G., ed.), pp. 50-67. John Wiley and sons Ltd.,
 Chichester.
- Thauer RK, Kaster AK & Seedorf H (2008) Methanogenic archaea: ecologically relevant differences in energy conservation. *Nat Rev Microbiol* **6**: 579-591.
- The MathWorks, Inc. MATLAB and Statistics Toolbox Release 2014a. Natick, Massachusetts.
- Thompson JD, Higgins DG & Gibson TJ (1994) CLUSTAL W: improving the sensitivity of
- 575 progressive multiple sequence alignment through sequence weighting, position specific gap penalties and weight matrix choice. *Nucleic Acids Res* **22**: 4673 4380.
- 577 Vernikos GS & Parkhill J (2006) Interpolated variable order motifs for identification of
- 578 horizontally acquired DNA: revisiting the Salmonella pathogenicity islands. *Bioinformatics* **22**: 2196-2203.
- Wagner D, Kobabe S, Pfeiffer E-M & Hubberten H-W (2003) Microbial controls on permafrost
- fluxes from a polygonal tundra of the Lena Delta, Siberia. *Permafrost Periglac Process* **14**: 173-185.
- Wagner D, Lipski A, Embacher A & Gattinger A (2005) Methane fluxes in permafrost habitats of the Lena Delta: effects of microbial community structure and organic matter quality.
- 585 Environmental Microbiology 7: 1582-1592.

586	Wagner D, Schirmack J, Ganzert L, Morozova D & Mangelsdorf K (2013) Methanosarcina
587	soligelidi sp. nov., a desiccation and freeze-thaw resistant methanogenic archaeon isolated
588	from a Siberian permafrost-affected soil. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 63: 2986-2991.

Table 1. Description of the Raman bands identified in the spectra of the methanogenic strains from Siberian permafrost (*Ms. soligelidi* SMA-21, SMA-17 and SMA-27) and the mesophilic methanogens (*Ms. mazei* and *Ms. barkeri*) measured with an excitation wavelenght of 532nm. The values of the bands exclusive to one or a few strains are presented in grey. + indicates the presence of a certain band, and - its absence. Qualitative differences are indicated with the symbol (+), meaning a higher intensity of the peak and therefore cellular abundance.

Ms.

Ms.

SMA-17

Ms. soligelidi

SMA-27

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

597

Wavenumber

Description

(carbohydrates); C–N, C–C str (proteins); C–C str (lipids)

(cm ⁻¹)	The second secon	mazei	barkeri		SMA-21	
2936	CH ₃ str and	+	+	+	+	+
	CH ₂ str					
2885	CH ₃ str sym	-	-	+	+(+)	+(+)
1669	amide I (C=O str, NH ₂ bend, C=N str)	+(+)	+(+)	+	+	+(+)
1610	C=C (Phe, Tyr)	+ (+)	+ (+)	+	+	+
1589	G + A ring str (nucleic acids); Trp	+	+	-	-	-
1460	δ(CH2) scis, CH2 def	+	+	+	+	+
1344	δ(CH)	+(+)	+(+)	+	+	+(+)
1338	δ(CH)	-	-	+	+	-
1275-1243	Amide III	+(+)	+(+)	+	+	+(+)
1167	C–C, C–O ring breath, asym	+	+	+	+	+
1128	C–C str, C–O–C glycosidic link; ring breath, sym	+	+	+	+	+

1054	C-O, C-C str (carbohydrates); C- C; C-N (proteins)	+	+	+(+)	+(+)	+(+)
1008	n(CC) aromatic ring (Phe)	+	+	+(+)	+(+)	+(+)
860	C-C str; C-O-C glycosidic link	+	+	+(+)	+ (+)	+(+)
835	Ring breath Tyr; O– P–O str (DNA/RNA)	-	-	+	+	+

Figure Legends

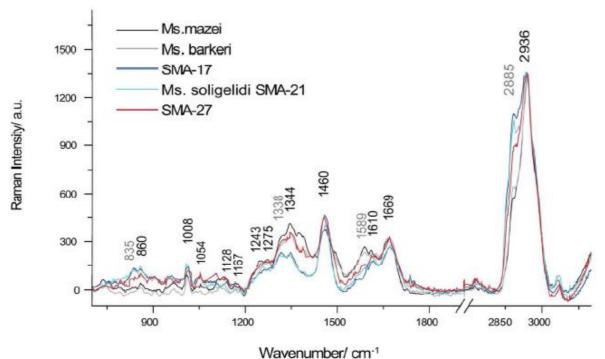
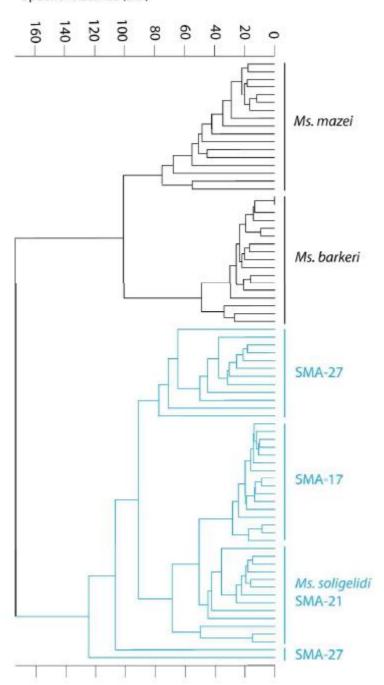


Figure 1. Average Raman spectra of methanogenic strains from Siberian permafrost (*Ms. soligelidi* SMA-21, SMA-17 and SMA-27) and non-permafrost environments (*Ms. mazei* and *Ms. barkeri*) measured with an excitation wavelength of 532nm. Note that values corresponding to the band positions specific to one or a few strains are presented in grey.





608 609

Figure 2. Cluster analysis (average linkage method) of Raman spectra from individual cells from permafrost and non-permafrost strains in stationary phase. CRM spectra from Methanosarcina mazei and Ms. barkeri (non-permafrost strains) form a cluster, which is well separated from the cluster of permafrost strains (SMA-27, Ms. soligelidi SMA-21 and SMA-17).

614

610

611

612

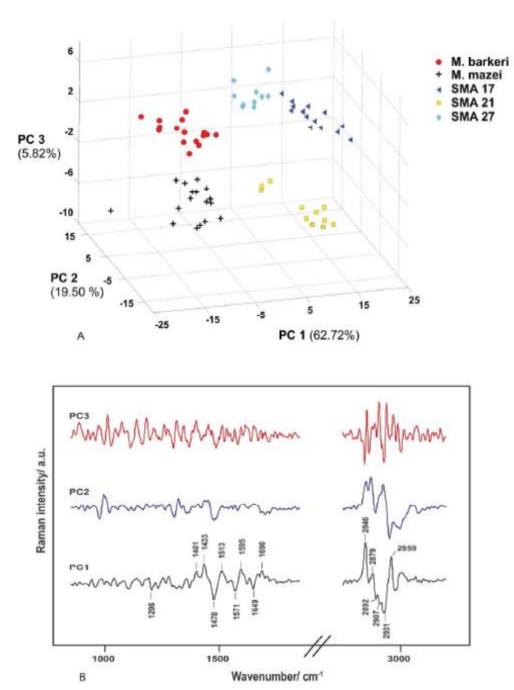


Figure 3. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of the individual spectra of the five methanogenic strains (A) Score plot of the first 3 principal components (PCs) of the total variance of the spectra. (B) Loadings of the first three principal components, illustrating the major spectral differences in PC1 (labeled peaks).

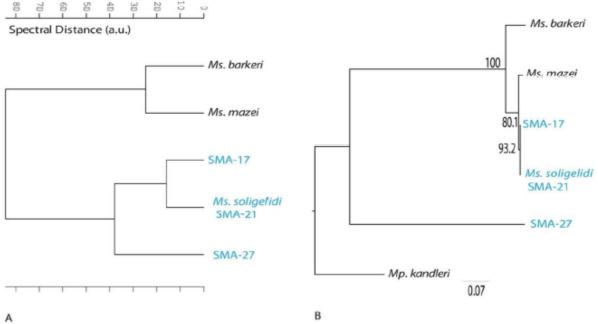


Figure 4. Chemical vs. phylogenetic relationships of methanogenic archaea from Siberian permafrost Methanosarcina soligelidi SMA-21, SMA-17 and SMA-27 (in blue) and the two non-permafrost strains used as reference Ms. barkeri and Ms. mazei (A) Cluster analysis of the average Raman spectra from permafrost and non-permafrost strains in stationary phase using the average linkage clustering method. (B) Maximum likelihood tree (GTR substitution model, 1000 bootstraps) according to the mcrA nucleotide sequence.

Methanopyrus kandleri (Methanopyrales) was used as the outgroup. The branch support values indicated in the nodes show the robustness of the phylogenetic reconstruction.