



A novel aerobic mechanism for reductive palladium biomineralization and recovery by *Escherichia coli*

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3 1 A novel aerobic mechanism for reductive palladium

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6 2 biomineralization and recovery by *Escherichia coli*

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43
44 19 Aerobically-grown *E. coli* cells reduced Pd(II) via a novel mechanism using formate

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46 20 as the electron donor. This reduction was monitored in real-time using extended X-ray

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48 21 absorption fine structure. Transmission electron microscopy analysis showed that

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50 22 Pd(0) nanoparticles, confirmed by X-ray diffraction, were precipitated outside the

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52 23 cells. The rate of Pd(II) reduction by *E. coli* mutants deficient in a range of

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54 24 oxidoreductases was measured, suggesting a molybdoprotein-mediated mechanism,

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56 25 distinct from the hydrogenase-mediated Pd(II) reduction previously described for

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2
3 26 anaerobically-grown *E. coli* cultures. The potential implications for Pd(II) recovery
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5 27 and bioPd catalyst fabrication are discussed.
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10 29 **Keywords:** palladium nanoparticles, *Escherichia coli*, biomineralization.
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13 14 31 **Introduction**

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16 32 The microbial reduction of metals and radionuclides has attracted much interest, as it
17
18 33 can be potentially harnessed for bioremediation, metal recovery, the fabrication of
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20 34 novel nanobiominerals and even energy generation in biobatteries (Lloyd 2003; Lloyd
21
22 35 et al. 2008; Lovley 2006;). For example, the sulfate-reducing bacterium (SRB)
23
24 36 *Desulfovibrio desulfuricans* has been shown to use a periplasmic hydrogenase
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26 37 supplied with hydrogen to reduce soluble Pd(II), resulting in the precipitation of Pd(0)
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28 38 nanoparticles in the periplasm of the cell ('bioPd'). However SRB produce H₂S, a
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30 39 potent catalyst poison that must be removed before making the bioPd. Other
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32 40 organisms capable of this metal bioreduction include the Gram-negative bacteria
33
34 41 *Shewanella oneidensis* (De Windt et al. 2005), *Escherichia coli* (Deplanche et al.
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36 42 2010, 2014; Mabbett et al. 2006), *Pseudomonas putida*, *Cupriavidus necator* (Søbjerg
37
38 43 et al. 2009), *Cupriavidus metallidurans* (Gauthier et al. 2010), *Paracoccus*
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40 44 *denitrificans* (Bunge et al. 2010), *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* (Redwood et al. 2008),
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42 45 *Rhodobacter capsulatus* (Wood et al. 2010), and the Gram-positive bacteria *Bacillus*
43
44 46 *sphaericus* (Creamer et al. 2007), *Arthrobacter oxydans* (Deplanche et al. 2014;
45
46 47 Wood et al. 2010), *Micrococcus luteus* (Deplanche et al. 2014), *Staphylococcus sciuri*
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48 48 (Søbjerg et al. 2009) and *Clostridium pasteurianum* (Chidambaram et al. 2010). This
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50 49 property has allowed the use of 'palladised' whole cells or processed biomineral
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52 50 directly in industrially important reactions, often showing superior activity compared
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3 51 with a commercially available carbon-supported palladium catalyst. A number of
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5 52 studies have investigated the catalytic activity of bioPd, demonstrating its use in
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7 53 remediative reactions such as the reduction of Cr(VI) to Cr(III) (Beauregard et al.
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10 54 2010; Mabbett et al. 2006), the dehalogenation of chlorophenol, polychlorinated
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12 55 biphenyls, polybrominated diphenyl ethers (Baxter-Plant et al. 2003; De Windt et al.
13
14 56 2005; Harrad et al. 2007), trichloroethylene (Hennebel et al. 2009a, 2009b), and the
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16 57 pesticide γ -hexachlorocyclohexane (Mertens et al. 2007), in 'greener' chemical
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18 58 synthesis such as the hydrogenation of itaconic acid (Creamer et al. 2007) and 2-
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20 59 pentyne (Bennett et al. 2010), in Heck and Suzuki reactions (Bennett et al. 2013;
21
22 60 Deplanche et al. 2014), and also in the application of bioPd as a fuel cell
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24
25 61 electrocatalyst to produce electricity from hydrogen (Orozco et al. 2010; Yong et al.
26
27 62 2007). In each case where the bioPd was compared with an abiotically-produced
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29 63 palladium catalyst (finely-divided or supported on a carbon matrix), the bioPd was
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31 64 more active than or at least as active as the commercially available alternative.
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36 66 Production of catalytically active bioPd also was reported by an aerobically-grown
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38 67 *Serratia* sp. (Beauregard et al. 2010; Deplanche et al. 2014) under which condition
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40 68 hydrogenases are not expressed. Also, cells of *E. coli* deficient in the three major
41
42 69 hydrogenases reduced Pd(II) (albeit slowly: Deplanche et al. 2010), and showed
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44 70 larger Pd-nanoparticles located on the outer surface of the cells. This suggested an
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46 71 alternative mechanism of Pd(II) reduction which has not been investigated.
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51 73 *E. coli* produces bioPd which is comparably active to that produced by *D.*
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53 74 *desulfuricans* (Deplanche et al. 2014). This also provides a very useful model
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55 75 organism since it is facultatively anaerobic and has well-defined molecular tools to
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3 76 elucidate reaction mechanisms under aerobic and anaerobic conditions. The enzymes
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5 77 potentially involved in the bioreduction of palladium by *E. coli* under the latter
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7 78 conditions are the nickel-dependent hydrogenase enzymes Hyd-1, Hyd-2, and Hyd-3,
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9 79 and the formate dehydrogenase molybdoenzymes FDH-N, and FDH-H. Another
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11 80 molybdoenzyme, FDH-O, is expressed under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions.
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13 81 A possible role for FDH-O is to allow bacteria to adapt rapidly to a sudden shift from
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15 82 aerobic respiration to anaerobiosis, before FDH-N has been produced in sufficient
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17 83 amounts to continue formate metabolism (Abaibou et al. 1995). Hyd-1, Hyd-2, FDH-
18
19 84 O, and FDH-N are membrane-bound and periplasmically oriented, whereas Hyd-3
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21 85 and FDH-H are subunits of the formate hydrogenlyase (FHL) complex, an
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23 86 intracellular enzyme complex that is also membrane-bound but which faces into the
24
25 87 cytoplasm. The mechanisms responsible for the formate-dependent bioreduction by
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27 88 anaerobically-grown cultures of *E. coli* have been studied, showing that the
28
29 89 hydrogenase enzymes Hyd-1 and Hyd-2 are mainly responsible for Pd(II)
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31 90 bioreduction (Deplanche et al. 2010). In a study of formate-dependent Pd(II)
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33 91 bioreduction by *Desulfovibrio fructosovorans*, the deletion of the periplasmic
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35 92 hydrogenases caused the Pd(0) nanoparticles to be relocated to the cytoplasmic
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37 93 membrane site of the remaining hydrogenases, indicating that the periplasmic
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39 94 hydrogenases are at least partially involved (Mikheenko et al. 2008).
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47 95
48 96 The growth yield of anaerobic cultures is lower than that of aerobic cultures, and for
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50 97 economic production at scale a method of growth of high biomass density is required.
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52 98 When using anaerobic cultures there is also the cost of supplementing with sodium
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54 99 fumarate and glycerol. The dual aims of this study are to establish whether *E. coli*
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56 100 cells grown aerobically are capable of manufacturing bioPd and to identify the
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3 101 enzyme(s) responsible for such metal reduction. A move away from the need for
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5 102 anaerobic growth would simplify the preparation of high levels of active biomass for
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7 103 catalyst production at industrial scale.
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11 105 **Methods**

12 106 *Bacterial growth*

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16 107 Starter cultures: 50 ml LB broth in a 500 ml Erlenmeyer flask was inoculated with a
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18 108 single isolated colony of the *E. coli* strain under investigation and incubated
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20 109 aerobically (37°C, shaking at 180 rpm for 18 h).
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25 111 Aerobic cultures: An 11 ml starter culture was added to 99 ml LB broth in a 1 L
26
27 112 Erlenmeyer flask. Flasks were incubated for 24 h (37°C, 180 rpm) to produce
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29 113 stationary phase 'resting' cells. The pH of the cells after 24 h incubation was
30
31 114 measured to determine that organic acids had not been produced that would otherwise
32
33 115 lower the pH considerably (Vasala et al. 2006). Oxygen saturation of a 5 ml aliquot of
34
35 116 the broth culture was measured immediately after 24 h of incubation using an Oakton
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37 117 D06 Acorn Series dissolved oxygen meter.
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41 119 *Reduction of Pd(II) to produce bioPd on bacteria*

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43 120 The aerobically grown liquid culture was divided between two 50 ml Falcon tubes
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45 121 and washed three times in 20 ml MOPS-NaOH (morpholinepropanesulfonic acid)
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47 122 buffer, 20 mM at pH7.6 after centrifugation for 20 min at 2500 g. Cell pellets were
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49 123 adjusted to a mass of 250 mg wet pellet weight, and resuspended in the MOPS-NaOH
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51 124 buffer to a volume of 1 ml. One tube of 250 mg wet weight cells was resuspended in
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53 125 22.5 ml MOPS-NaOH buffer with 1 mM sodium tetrachloropalladate in a 30 ml bottle
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3 126 sealed with a butyl rubber stopper. The bottle was incubated in the dark at 30°C for 1
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5 127 h for the Pd(II) to biosorb to the cells (Baxter-Plant et al. 2003). 2.5 ml 10 mM
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7 128 sodium formate was then added to the bottle to initiate bioreduction of the Pd(II).
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12 130 *Use of mutants to determine electron transfer pathway to Pd(II)*

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14 131 In order to investigate the possible role of the aerobic formate dehydrogenase (FDH-O)
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16 132 and other hydrogenase/formate dehydrogenase enzymes in the reduction of Pd(II) by
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18 133 aerobically-grown cells of *E. coli*, the rates of reduction by six different additional
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20 134 strains (Table 1) were compared by measuring the Pd(II) remaining in solution by
21
22 135 ICP-MS. The strains were ‘palladised’ as above, and rates of reduction/removal
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24 136 compared to those in a series of controls: killed cells (MC4100), cell-free suspension,
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26 137 and live cells (MC4100) unsupplemented with formate.
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32 139 All strains except BL21(DE3) were from the culture collection of Professor Frank
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34 140 Sargent at the College of Life Sciences, University of Dundee. Strain BL21(DE3) was
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36 141 obtained from Invitrogen, Paisley, UK. Strain MC4100 $\Delta moaA$ was created by
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38 142 disruption of the *moaA* gene which encodes the molybdenum cofactor biosynthesis
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40 143 protein A, using the method of Datsenko and Wanner (2000) whereby PCR products
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42 144 are used to disrupt the gene of choice by recombination using the plasmid-borne
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44 145 phage λ Red recombinase.
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49 147 *X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis*

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52 148 The black precipitates were washed once in acetone and air dried, before analysis by
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54 149 X-ray diffraction (XRD). The measurements were performed on a Bruker D8
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56 150 Advance diffractometer, using Cu K alpha1 radiation. The samples were scanned
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3 151 from 5-70 degrees 2theta in steps of 0.2 degrees, with a count time of 2 seconds per
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5 152 step.

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10 154 *Extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS)*

11 155 Aliquots of the cell/Pd/formate suspension were taken at times 0 and 30 min, and 1, 3
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14 156 and 4 h from the addition of formate, and frozen immediately in liquid nitrogen. The
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16 157 direct reduction of Pd(II) to Pd(0) was demonstrated using EXAFS, performed at the
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18 158 European Synchrotron Radiation Facility (ESRF), in Grenoble, France. The samples
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20 159 were transported to the synchrotron at ESRF on dry ice, where they were thawed and
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22 160 injected immediately into sample holders, before freezing once more in liquid
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24 161 nitrogen and placing into the beam. X-ray absorption data were collected on beamline
25
26 162 BM29 at the Pd K-edge in the energy range 24 200 – 24 900 eV. Data were recorded
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28 163 at low temperature (77 K) and under vacuum to reduce the thermal Debye-Waller
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30 164 factor and prevent oxidation. A Si(III) double crystal monochromator was used,
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32 165 calibrated with a Pd foil, and the spectra were collected in fluorescence mode using a
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34 166 13-element solid-state detector. A reference spectrum of a palladium foil was
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36 167 recorded in transmission mode on station 9.3 at the SRS Daresbury. The data were
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38 168 background subtracted and the EXAFS spectra fitted in DL_Excurv
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40 169 (<http://www.cse.scitech.ac.uk/cmgi/EXCURV/>) using full curved wave theory
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42 170 (Gurman et al., 1984).

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49 172 *Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy*
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51 173 *(EDS)*

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54 174 Following Pd(II) reduction, cells were stored at 10°C overnight. The cell pellets were
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56 175 then rinsed twice with deionised water, fixed in 2.5% (wt/vol) glutaraldehyde,
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3 176 centrifuged for 5 min at 16 000 g, resuspended in 1.5 ml of 0.1 M cacodylate buffer
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5 177 (pH 7) and stained in 1% osmium tetroxide in 0.1 M phosphate buffer, pH 7 (60 min).
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7 178 Cells were dehydrated using an ethanol series (70, 90, 100, 100, 100% dried ethanol,
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10 179 15 min each) and washed twice in propylene oxide (15 min, 9500 g). Cells were
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12 180 embedded in epoxy resin and the mixture was left to polymerise (24 h; 60°C).
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14 181 Sections (100-150 nm thick) were cut from the resin block, placed onto a copper grid
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16 182 and viewed with a JEOL 1200CX2 TEM, accelerating voltage 80 keV. EDS was
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18 183 performed on electron-dark areas, to confirm the presence of palladium.
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22 23 185 **Results**

24 25 186 *Palladisation of E. coli BL21(DE3)*

26
27 187 The pH of the aerobically-grown liquid culture was between 7.7-7.9, indicating that
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29 188 there was not extensive production of organic acids due to overflow metabolism.
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31 189 Oxygen saturation measurements showed that the liquid culture was 72% saturated
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33 190 following 24 h of incubation, indicating that it was not oxygen-limited. After
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35 191 harvesting, the cells were able to couple the reduction of Pd(II) to the oxidation of
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37 192 formate, indicated by the rapid formation of a black precipitate, tentatively identified
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39 193 as Pd(0) (Figure 1). ICP-MS analysis confirmed complete removal of Pd(II) from
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41 194 solution within 45 min, and the presence of crystalline Pd(0) was confirmed using
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43 195 XRD in this, but not in the heat-killed cells control where the cells removed
44
45 196 substantial Pd(II) abiotically. An increase in metal biosorption by heat killed biomass
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47 197 as compared to live cells is well documented (Machado et al. 2009; Parameswari et al.
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49 198 2009) and was attributed to loss of membrane integrity to reveal additional
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51 199 intracellular metal binding sites (Machado et al. 2009).
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3 201 *Extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS)*
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5 202 The nature of the Pd associated with the biomass was assessed further using X-ray
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7 203 absorbance spectroscopy. The features in the corresponding EXAFS spectra (Figure 2)
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9 204 are due to the wave-like nature of the photoelectron, which is released from the atom
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11 205 with increasing energy and scattered from surrounding atoms with new waves being
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13 206 emitted. With increasing photon energy, the interference between the waves alternates
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15 207 between constructive and destructive, which leads to oscillations in the spectrum.
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17 208 Examining these oscillations gives information on the number, species and distance of
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19 209 the surrounding atoms. As seen in Figure 2, the samples taken at times 0 and 30 min,
20
21 210 which contain Pd(II), have identical EXAFS spectra. The samples taken at 60 min
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23 211 onwards are identical to the Pd(0) foil control, which indicates that only Pd(0) was
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25 212 present. Reduction of the Pd(II) to Pd(0) was therefore confirmed to be complete in
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27 213 less than 30 min, as confirmed by ICP-MS analysis.
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34 215 *Use of mutants to determine electron transfer pathway to Pd(II)*
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36 216 Aerobic cultures of the parental strains MC4100 and BW25113 and the strain which
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38 217 lacked all hydrogenases (JW2682) removed Pd(II) identically with no residual Pd(II)
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40 218 detected after 30 min (Figure 3). Removal of the hydrogenase enzymes had no effect
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42 219 on the rate of palladium removal from solution, confirming that these hydrogenases
43
44 220 have no role in the aerobic reduction of Pd(II). The FDH-O-negative strain JW3865
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46 221 reduced Pd(II) within 1 h, and the FDH-O/FDH-N-negative strain FTD128 within 2 h.
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48 222 Strain MC4100 $\Delta moaA$, lacking all molybdoenzymes, reduced the palladium within 7
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50 223 h. These results indicate the likely involvement of the FDH-O enzyme in the
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52 224 reduction of Pd(II) by aerobically-grown *E. coli* using formate, although other Mo-
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54 225 containing enzymes must also be involved given the impaired metal reduction noted
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3 226 with the Δmoa mutant. Controls containing no biomass showed no abiotic reduction
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5 227 of Pd(II) using formate (Figure 1B), although a brown precipitate was seen in the no-
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7 228 formate control. The X-ray powder diffraction pattern did not show the presence of
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9 229 any peaks characteristic of Pd(0) in this precipitate, indicating that it was probably
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11 230 amorphous and non-crystalline. Time zero on Figure 3 is the point at which formate
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13 231 was added, following 1 h of incubation to allow biosorption of the Pd(II) to the cells;
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15 232 hence the abiotic Pd(II) removal by killed cells (Figure 1) was apparent at the time of
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17 233 formate addition with no evidence for further Pd(II) reduction.
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22 235 *Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)*

23 236 TEM images of thin sections of cells showed that with all strains the reduced
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25 237 palladium was precipitated predominantly in the extracellular matrix of the cultures
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27 238 (Figure 4), although it appears that the nanoparticles may be associated with the outer
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29 239 membrane of the cells. Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) confirmed the
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31 240 presence of palladium in these precipitates.
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36 242 **Discussion**

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38 243 The results from this study demonstrate that it is possible for aerobically-grown
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40 244 cultures of *E. coli* to reduce Pd(II) enzymatically, with no need to remove oxygen
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42 245 from the experimental system during the bioreduction step. Autoclaved control
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44 246 experiments indicate that Pd(II) bioreduction in these cultures is enzymatic, with
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46 247 reduction of palladium not occurring in the absence of viable cells irrespective of the
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48 248 length of incubation. The major enzymes shown to be involved include the formate
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50 249 dehydrogenases FDH-O and FDH-N, although bioreduction still occurs in strains
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52 250 without these enzymes albeit at a much lower rate. Other molybdoenzymes must
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3 251 therefore be involved. The strain that lacked all molybdoenzymes did however still
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5 252 reduce the palladium, although this took 7 h, compared with less than 30 min by the
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7 253 wild-type strains. Hydrogenases, implicated as the dominant Pd(II) reductases in other
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10 254 experimental systems grown under anaerobic conditions (Deplanche et al. 2010;
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12 255 Mikheenko et al. 2008), are not expressed in aerobically grown cultures, and their
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14 256 lack of involvement was evident as the strain lacking hydrogenase enzymes reduced
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16 257 palladium at the same rate as the wild-type strains in this study.
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21 259 Furthermore, whichever biological system is responsible for the aerobic bioreduction
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23 260 of Pd(II), there seems to be little impact on the site of Pd(0) deposition. The location
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25 261 of the bioreduced Pd(0) in our experiments is almost always extracellular, although
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27 262 often associated with the outer membrane of the cells. This is particularly the case
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29
30 263 with the MC4100 $\Delta moaA$ strain (which lacks all molybdoenzymes), in which the
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32 264 majority of the Pd(0) nanoparticles are closely associated with the outer membrane
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34 265 (Figure 4E). One conclusion that may be drawn from this is that whilst cells that lack
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36 266 the formate dehydrogenases are still capable of reducing Pd(II), when all of these
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38 267 enzymes are missing a cellular component associated with the outer membrane may
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40 268 be responsible. Furthermore, this formate oxidation activity is much weaker than that
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43 269 seen with the strains containing formate dehydrogenases, where Pd(II) reduction is
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45 270 more rapid. It is possible however that following the initial enzymatic reduction of a
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47 271 small percentage of the Pd(II), the Pd(0) nanoparticles formed may themselves be
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49 272 responsible for catalysing the reduction of the remainder of the Pd(II) (Yong et al.
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51 273 2002), which would mean that only a minor, initial biological input is required.
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3 275 Although the formate dehydrogenase enzyme systems implicated in Pd(II)
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5 276 bioreduction by *E. coli* are periplasmic, the majority of the reduced Pd(0) precipitates
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7 277 outside the cell. It is possible that an electron shuttle system exists similar to that
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9 278 found in *Shewanella oneidensis* (von Canstein et al. 2008) that is as yet undiscovered
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11 279 in *E. coli*. It is also possible that the first Pd(0) nanoparticles to form breach the outer
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13 280 membrane, and themselves form an electron conduit for further Pd(II) reduction
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15 281 outside the cell. The pH of these experiments is also higher than others where Pd(0)
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17 282 nanoparticles accumulated in the periplasm (Redwood et al. 2008), which could
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19 283 indicate the higher biosorption of cationic metal to the outer membrane and
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21 284 extracellular polymeric substances, which are then not able to enter the periplasm.
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23 285 The influence of a higher pH in the location of the Pd(0) may be confirmed by the
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25 286 observation that Pd(0) nanoparticles were located on the cell surface of *D.*
26
27 287 *desulfuricans* when bioreduction of Pd(II) was performed at pH 7 (Yong et al. 2002).
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34 289 In conclusion, this study has demonstrated the presence of a novel biological
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36 290 mechanism responsible for the bioreduction of Pd(II) in aerobically-grown cultures of
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38 291 *E. coli*, catalysed mainly by molybdenum-containing enzyme systems. Subsequent
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40 292 studies will investigate the catalytic activity and selectivity of the Pd(0) nanoparticles
41
42 293 produced under aerobic conditions in a range of industrially important reactions. If
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44 294 active, this new form of bioPd has the advantage over that produced by anaerobic
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46 295 culture as it is easier to produce at high yield, from increased biomass levels
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48 296 associated with aerobic growth. There is also no requirement for additional processing
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50 297 steps to remove H₂S (produced by SRB systems), and the use of formate instead of
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52 298 hydrogen gas means that the procedure is less hazardous and more controllable. The
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54 299 advantages of this more scalable method of synthesis would need to be considered
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3 300 against any alterations in activity/selectivity of the resulting catalyst (versus synthetic
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5 301 and other bioPds), using a cost-benefit analysis. Importantly, identification of the
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7 302 specific enzymatic process(es) involved in the biomanufacture of bioPd is the first
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10 303 step towards application of the tools of synthetic biology for ‘designer catalyst’
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12 304 production for specific applications.

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16 306 In a geomicrobiological context, this study shows that aerobic cells of *E. coli* restrict
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18 307 the deposition of Pd(0) to locations outside the cell. However in both *D. desulfuricans*
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20 308 (grown anaerobically) and *Bacillus benzovorans* (grown aerobically) intracellular
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22 309 depositions of small Pd-nanoparticles were observed at the expense of both hydrogen
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24 310 and formate (JB Omajali, IP Mikheenko, ML Merroun, J Wood and LE Macaskie, in
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26 311 press) and, notably, were also seen in *E. coli* grown anaerobically (LE Macaskie, A
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28 312 Williams, R Priestley and J Courtney, unpublished). This raises questions about
29
30 313 potential biochemical ‘trafficking’ pathways of Pd(II), the possibility of Pd(II) efflux
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32 314 by aerobic (but not anaerobic) cells and, following from that, the possibility of
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34 315 biogeochemical cycling of this element.
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320

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324

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495 **Table 1.** *E. coli* strains used to determine biological involvement in the reduction of
 496 palladium (II) using formate as the electron donor.

Strain	Genotype	Phenotype	Reference
BL21(DE3)	<i>F2 ompT gal dcm lon hsdS_B(r_B⁻ m_B⁻) λ(DE3 [lacI lacUV5-T7 gene 1 ind1 sam7 nin5])</i>	Wild type strain commonly used for recombinant protein expression.	(Studier and Moffatt 1986)
MC4100	<i>F- ΔlacU169 araD139 rpsL150 relA1 ptsF rbs flbB5301</i>	Parental strain for FTD128 and $\Delta moaA$.	(Casadaban and Cohen 1979)
BW25113	<i>lacI^f rrbB_{T14} ΔlacZ_{WJ16} hsdR514 ΔaraBAD_{AH33} ΔrhaBAD_{LD78}</i>	Parental strain for JW2682 and JW3865.	(Datsenko and Wanner 2000)
FTD128	As MC4100, with in-frame deletion in the <i>fdhE</i> gene.	FDH-O & FDH-N negative.	(Luke et al. 2008)
JW2682	As BW25113, with in-frame deletion of the <i>hypF</i> gene.	Deficient in all hydrogenases.	(Baba et al. 2006)
JW3865	As BW25113, with in-frame deletion of the <i>fdoG</i> gene.	FDH-O negative.	(Baba et al. 2006)
MC4100 $\Delta moaA$	As MC4100, disruption of the <i>moaA</i> gene.	Deficient in all molybdoenzymes	This study.

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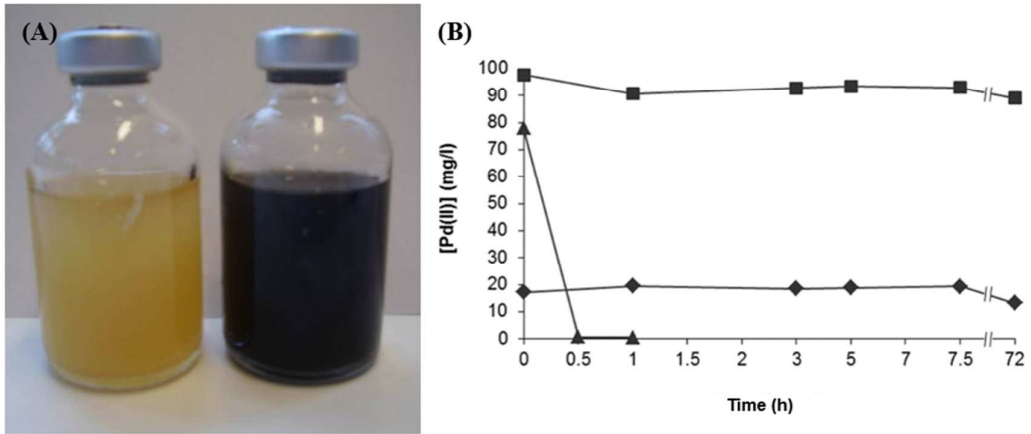
503 **Fig. 1.** (A) Complete reduction of Pd(II) to Pd(0) by an aerobically-grown culture of
504 *E. coli*. Both bottles contain cells resuspended in 20 mM MOPS buffer at pH7.6, and
505 1 mM sodium tetrachloropalladate (total volume 25 ml). This image was taken 45 min
506 after the addition of formate to the bottle on the right. (B) Reduction by *E. coli*
507 MC4100 and by controls showing no abiotic reduction of Pd(II). Controls used were
508 killed (autoclaved) cells and cell-free suspension. Soluble Pd(II) in the supernatant
509 was measured using ICP-MS. ▲ = MC4100; ■ = no cells; ♦ = killed cells.

510
511 **Fig. 2.** EXAFS data showing the presence of Pd(II) at 0 and 30 min (bottom two
512 traces), and Pd(0) at 1, 3 and 4 h (ascending series). The top trace is palladium foil.

513
514 **Fig. 3.** Pd(II) reduction by six different strains of *E. coli*, using formate as the electron
515 donor. Soluble Pd(II) in the supernatant was measured using ICP-MS. ♦ = BW25113;
516 □ = JW2682; ▲ = JW3865; Δ = MC4100 $\Delta moaA$; ■ = MC4100; ◇ = FTD128. Data
517 points for BW25113, JW2682 and JW3865 are mean values of triplicates, with
518 standard error shown.

519
520 **Fig. 4.** TEM of thin sections of aerobically grown cells showing extracellular
521 palladium; (A) MC4100, inset BL21; (B) BW25113, inset BL21 (no Pd); (C)
522 FTD128; (D) JW2682; (E) MC4100 $\Delta moaA$; (F) JW3865. Scale bar (A) = 100 nm;
523 (B)-(F) = 500 nm; insets = 1 μ m.

528 **Figure 1**

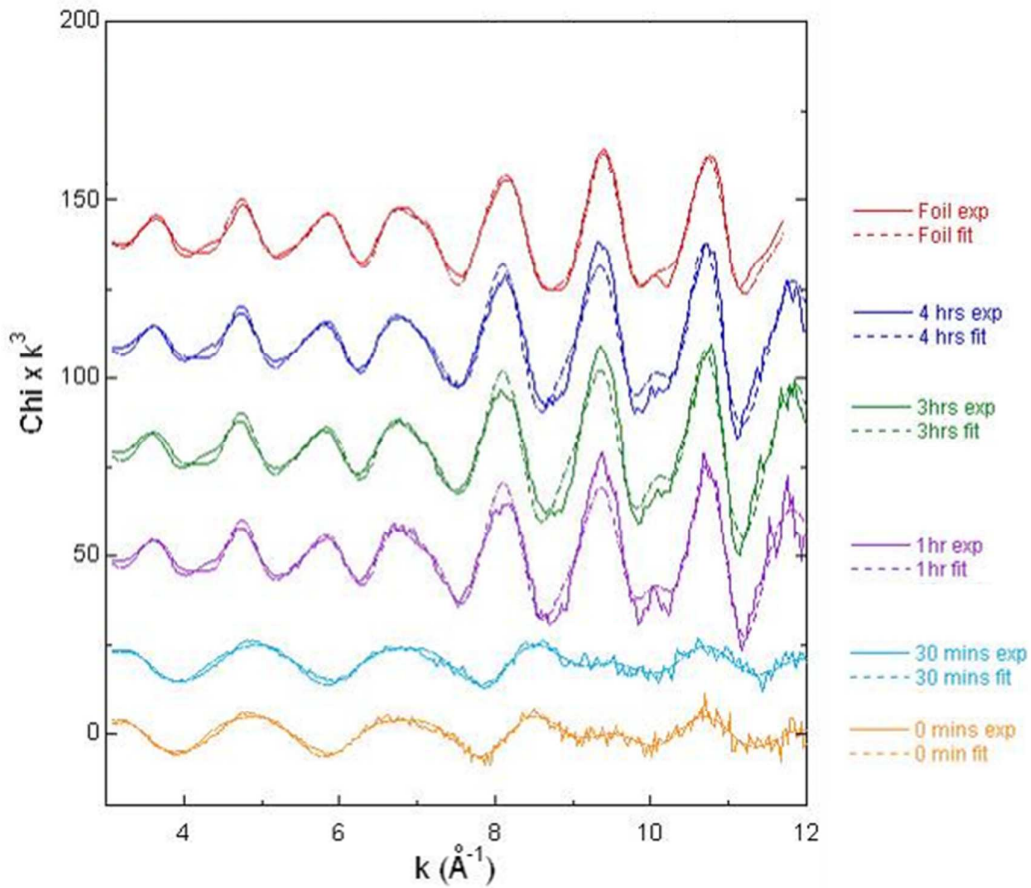


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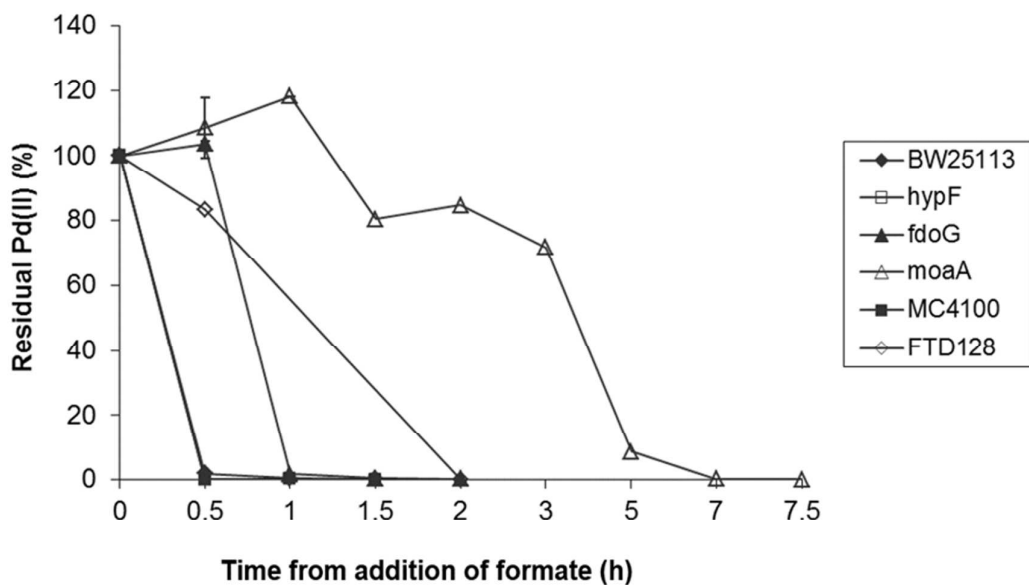
532 **Figure 2**



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535 **Figure 3**



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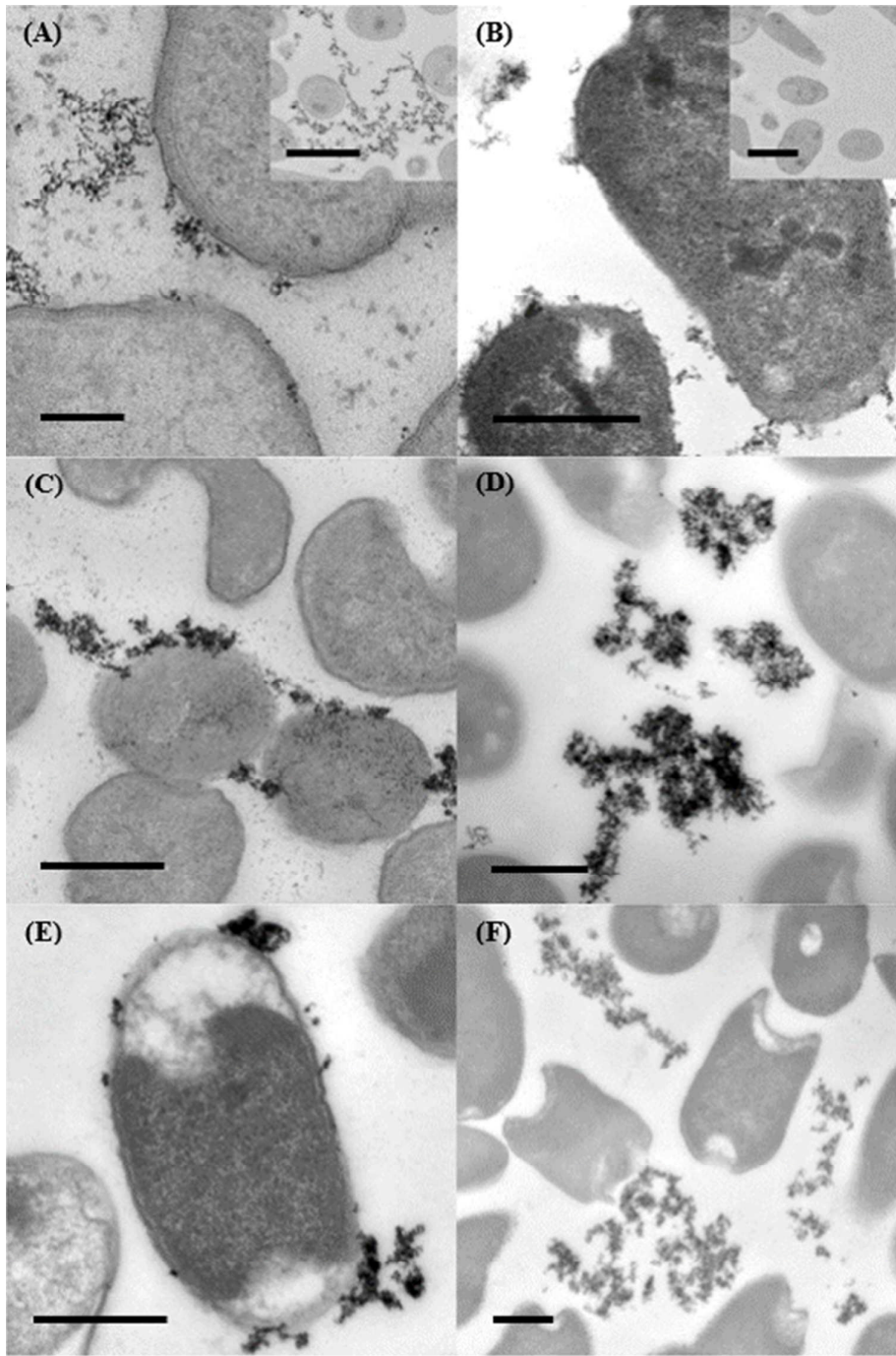
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552 Figure 4



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