Faculty of Science and Engineering

School of Biological and Marine Sciences

2019-12-16

Acidithiobacillus

Boden, Rich

http://hdl.handle.net/10026.1/16340

10.1002/9781118960608.gbm01079.pub2 Wiley

All content in PEARL is protected by copyright law. Author manuscripts are made available in accordance with publisher policies. Please cite only the published version using the details provided on the item record or document. In the absence of an open licence (e.g. Creative Commons), permissions for further reuse of content should be sought from the publisher or author.

1 Gbm01079

2 Genus Acidithiobacillus

3

4 **Defining publication:** Kelly and Wood 2000, 513^{VP}.

5

6

- Authors: Rich Boden^{1,2*} and Lee P. Hutt¹
- ¹ School of Biological and Marine Sciences, Faculty of Science and Engineering, University of Plymouth,
- 8 Plymouth, Devon, United Kingdom, PL4 8AA.
- 9 ² Sustainable Earth Institute, Faculty of Science and Engineering, University of Plymouth, Plymouth,
- 10 Devon, United Kingdom, PL4 8AA.
 - * Author for correspondence (<u>rich.boden@plymouth.ac.uk</u>)

12

13

11

- Etymology: A.ci.di'thi.o.ba.cil'lus. L. masc. adj. acidus, sour, tart; Gr. neut. n. theîon, sulfur, brimstone
- 14 (transliterated to L. neut. n. thium); L. masc. n. bacillus, a short rod, a short wand; N.L. masc. n.
- 15 Acidithiobacillus, acid-loving sulfur rodlet.

16

22

17 **Abstract:**

- Cells are short, motile rods with a single polar flagellum. Some strains have an obvious glycocalyx. Gramstain-negative. Endospores, exospores and cysts are not produced. Obligate chemolithoautotrophs, with
- 20 electron donors including reduced inorganic sulfur species such as thiosulfate, tetrathionate, elementary
- sulfur (viz. α -S₈ and μ -S_{∞}). Some species can also use molecular hydrogen, ferrous iron or metal sulfides
 - such as pyrite (FeS₂) as electron donors. Some species are diazotrophic. Heterotrophy, methylotrophy and
- 23 the so-called "C₁ autotrophy" are not observed. Carbon assimilated from CO₂ via the transaldolase-variant
- of the Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle. Carboxysomes are used for CO₂ concentration. Obligately respiratory,

with molecular oxygen, ferric iron or elementary sulfur as terminal electron acceptors, varying by species. Most strains grow in the range of 20-37 °C, though some have a narrower range and one species is thermophilic. Optimal growth from pH 2.0-5.8 and an overall range of pH -0.6-6.0. The major respiratory quinone is ubiquinone-8 (UQ-8), and some traces of ubiquinone-9 (UQ-9), ubiquinone-7 (UQ-7) and menaquinones (MK) are also found in some species. The dominant fatty acids are palmitic acid ($C_{16:0}$), vaccenic acid ($C_{18:1}$), cis-11-cyclopropyl-nonadecanoic acid ($C_{19:0}$ cyclo ω_8c), palmitoleic acid ($C_{16:1}$), myristic acid ($C_{14:0}$) and lauric acid ($C_{12:0}$). The dominant polar lipids are cardiolipin, aminolipids, phospholipid, phosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylethanolamine. The G+C fraction of genomic DNA is around 52.0-63.9 mol%. Form IAc (carboxysomal) and Form II (cytoplasmic) D-ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase are used, as are forms bo_3 and bd-I ubiqunol oxidases and, in the iron-oxidizing species, the aa_3 -type cytochrome c oxidase. A description of Acidithiobacillus concretivorus comb. nov. is also given.

Keywords: chemolithoautotroph, thermophile, acidophile, sulfur oxidizer, iron oxidizer

Description:

Cells are slender, often short rods 0.4- 0.8×1.4 - $1.8 \,\mu\text{m}$. Rapidly motile and usually monotrichous but some taxa are lophotrichous. Gram-stain-negative. Endospores, exospores and cysts are not produced. Volutin granules accumulated in some species. Sulfur-oxidising obligate autotrophs, with some species also using ferrous iron, sulfide minerals and/or molecular hydrogen as electron donors. Iron-oxidizing species are facultative anaerobes, and use ferric iron as terminal electron when elementary sulfur serves as the electron donor, though the remainder of species are obligate aerobes. Diazotrophy is observed in some species. Assimilates carbon via the transaldolase variant of the Calvin-Benson-Bassham (CBB) cycle, using form IAq (cytoplasmic), form II (cytoplasmic) or form IAc (carboxysomal) D-ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RuBisCO). The proton-translocating bo_3 -type ubiquinol oxidase and the non-translocating bd-I ubiquinol oxidase are used by all species, with the proton-translocating aa_3 -type cytochrome c oxidase found only in the iron oxidizing taxa.

The dominant fatty acids are palmitic acid ($C_{16:0}$), vaccenic acid ($C_{18:1}$), cis-11-cyclopropyl-nonadecanoic acid ($C_{19:0}$ cyclo ω_8c), palmitoleic acid ($C_{16:1}$), myristic acid ($C_{14:0}$) and lauric acid ($C_{12:0}$). The dominant polar lipids are cardiolipin, phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylethanol and aminolipids.

Type species: Acidithiobacillus thiooxidans (Waksman and Joffe 1922) Kelly and Wood 2000, 513^{VP} (Thiobacillus thiooxidans Waksman and Joffe 1922, 239)

Number of species with validly published names: 7.

Family classification:

Acidithiobacillaceae (fbm00213)

Further Descriptive Information

Nutrition and growth conditions. All species are obligate acidophiles, with growth optima of pH 2.0–3.4. Most are mesophilic, with one species (*Acidithiobacillus caldus*) thermophilic. All species grow under air on tetrathionate or elementary sulfur as electron donors, and a clade of four species (*A. ferrooxidans*, *A. ferridurans* and *A. ferriphilus*) can additionally use ferrous iron or metal sulfide minerals as electron donors. Molecular hydrogen use varies by species, and in some cases by strain. The "iron clade" can grow anaerobically at the expense of ferric iron if elementary sulfur is the electron donor. The sulfur-oxidizing species generally tolerate lower pH values (as low as pH -0.6) than the "iron clade" and usually also tolerate higher pH values, too. This is owing to the pH effects on Fe(II) and Fe(III) redox chemistry and their solubility: as the pH rises towards neutrality, the Gibbs energy change for ferrous iron oxidation yields

very little energy (see section on *Growth Physiology*), and the ferric iron produced tends to form ferric

hydroxide, which reduced oxygen transfer through the medium: as such, growth towards neutrality on iron is generally very weak, for the few species that tolerate pH so high.

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

An imperative point when cultivating *Acidithiobacillus* spp. is that they must have access to an electron donor at all times: when this runs out, they will be unable to extrude protons from the cell, and will be killed as a result. As such, when washing, suspending or storing cells in low pH buffers (*e.g.* 20 mM glycine-HCl, pH 2.2-3.6), some cell lysis will occur, even at low temperatures. Some workers omit buffers and just use a dilute sulfuric acid solution of the appropriate pH for washing and resuspending cells, and then transfer them to *e.g.* 20 mM PIPES-HCl, pH 7.2 immediately prior to lying for enzyme assays or proteomic work. Harvesting procedures that avoid loss of biomass in this way are discussed by Silverman and Lundgren (1959).

Growth physiology. To maintain pH homeostasis and a cytosol of pH c.6-7, acidophiles must use active transport to remove protons from the cell against a concentration gradient. One could thus assume that the maintenance coefficients (m_S , cf. Pirt (1975)) of Acidithiobacillus spp. are somewhat higher than neutrophilic species, given the elevated cost of living at low pH, where ATP is used continually for H⁺ export and both ATP and NAD(P)H are consumed for repair; however, this does not appear to be the case. In the following examples, growth pH is given in parentheses after the binomial. For Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans (pH 2.5) in thiosulfate-limited chemostats, m_S is 770 µmol S₂O₃²-/g dry biomass/h, and under tetrathionate limitation, m_S is 1,030 μ mol S₄O₆²⁻/g dry biomass/h. For *Acidithiobacillus thiooxidans* (pH 2.5) under tetrathionate limitation (pH 2.5), m_S is 40 µmol $S_4O_6^{2-}/g$ dry biomass/h. By comparison, for neutrophilic (pH 7.6) species under thiosulfate limitation, ms values are broadly similar, or if anything, higher, viz. Paracoccus versutus (850 μ mol S₂O₃²⁻/g dry biomass/h) and Annwoodia aquaesulis (1,270 μ mol $S_2O_3^{2-}/g$ dry biomass/h) [values determined by hyperbolic fit of data curated by Kelly et al. (1997), using the method of Boden and Hutt (2018)]. For comparison, Pirt (1975) reported Enterobacter cloacae subsp. cloacae grown under glucose-limitation at pH 7.2 under air had m_S of 522 μmol glucose/g dry biomass/h, which he considered fairly typical for heterotrophs. These data suggest that for *Acidithiobacillus* spp., growth at low pH either incurs no greater maintenance costs, or that these costs have been overcome by their evolutionary adaptations to low pH. For example, substrate-level phosphorylation may account for a fraction of ATP biosynthesis, whereas the neutrophilic chemolithoautotrophs given as examples above use only oxidative phosphorylation. *Acidithiobacillus* spp. can also make use of the high extracellular proton concentration to form a proton gradient for ATP biosynthesis, and thus probably don't need to rely on proton motive force (Δp) generated through electron transport as heavily as other organisms (Ingledew, 1982) – they thus have three potential routes of ATP generation: i) substrate-level phosphorylation; ii) Δp formed through proton extrusion to the periplasm during electron transport, fueling ATP synthase, and/or iii) Δp formed by external proton concentrations, fueling ATP synthase.

Proteomic work on Acidithiobacillus caldus at pH 1.1, 2.5 and 4.0 has shown that some acid resistance

systems such as peptidyl-glutamate 4-carboxylase (EC 4.1.1.90) are only expressed at pH 1.1 (Mangold et al., 2013), thus the chemostat data given above at pH 2.5 may not represent the organism needing to make use of the full gamut of acid resistance systems and thus m_8 may be much higher at pH 1.1 and below. Maximum specific molar growth yields (Y_{MAX}) are about 12.1 g dry biomass/mol $S_4O_6^{2-}$ for Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans and Acidithiobacillus thiooxidans, indicating a similar means of energy conservation from tetrathionate. Similar yields are found in the neutrophilic Halothiobacillus spp. (gbm01133) grown at pH 7. The Y_{MAX} for A. ferrooxidans on thiosulfate is 8.2 g dry biomass/mol $S_2O_3^{2-}$, which is, again, broadly similar to that of Halothiobacillus neapolitanus (gbm01133), but much lower than those of Thiobacillus spp. (gbm00969) or Annwoodia spp. (gbm0161), for instance (data from Kelly et al., 1987). It is difficult to draw conclusions from these data are there are so many gaps in our understanding of the fundamental physiology of these organisms, but it would indicate a great variation in energy conservation or anabolic costs.

It is also informative to compare the relative 'nutritional value' of various electron donors with respect to ATP formation. The standard Gibbs energy changes (ΔG°) for their oxidations by molecular oxygen (determined *de novo* by RB) are as follows. The oxidation of ferrous iron to ferric hydroxide (Fe(OH)₃) is given for comparison as this is the dominant reaction at higher pH values, *versus* the oxidation to ferric sulfate at low pH:

 $S_2O_3^{2-} + 2O_2 + H_2O \Rightarrow 2SO_4^{2-} + 2H^+$

 $S_4O_6^{2-} + 3\frac{1}{2}O_2 + 3H_2O \rightarrow 4SO_4^{2-} + 6H^+$ $\Delta G^{\circ} = -1.244.78 \text{ kJ/mol tetrathionate}$ $S_8 + 12O_2 + 8H_2O \rightarrow 8H_2SO_4$ $\Delta G^{\circ} = -3.623.36 \text{ kJ/mol}$ orthorhombic cyclooctasulfur $2FeS_2 + 3O_2 + 6H_2O \Rightarrow Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + 12H^+$ $\Delta G^{\circ} = -243.06 \text{ kJ/mol pyrite}$ $4FeSO_4 + O_2 + 2H_2SO_4 \rightarrow 2Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + 2H_2O_4$ $\Delta G^{\circ} = -71.55 \text{ kJ/mol ferrous sulfate}$ $4Fe^{2+} + O_2 + 10H_2O \rightarrow 4Fe(OH)_3 + 8H^+$ $\Delta G^{\circ} = -24.78 \text{ kJ/mol ferrous iron}$

 $2H_2 + O_2 \Rightarrow 2H_2O$ $\Delta G^{\circ} = -474.36 \text{ kJ/mol molecular hydrogen}$

For anaerobic respiration, the ΔG° values for the oxidation of elementary sulfur or molecular hydrogen by ferric iron are lower than their aerobic counterparts, as one would expect:

 $S_8 + 48Fe^{3+} + 32H_2O \Rightarrow 8SO_4^{2-} + 48Fe^{2+} + 64H^+$ $\Delta G^\circ = -1,932.24 \text{ kJ/mol orthorhombic cyclooctasulfur}$ $H_2 + 2Fe^{3+} \Rightarrow 2H^+ + 2Fe^{2+}$ $\Delta G^\circ = -148.54 \text{ kJ/mol molecular hydrogen}$

The method of Kelly (1990), elaborated on in the *Thermithiobacillus* (gbm01080) chapter, allows a comparison of the thermodynamic maxima for ATP formation from these data. As such, we can see that on a molar basis and for aerobic growth, elementary sulfur is in theory the best electron donor, yielding about 79 mol ATP/mol, followed by tetrathionate at 27 mol/mol, assuming only forward electron transport and perfect coupling *etc* – however, if we normalize the sulfur species to "per sulfur atom", the ATP yields are about the same for thiosulfate, tetrathionate and elementary sulfur (7.9, 6.7 and 9.8 mol/mol, respectively). In contrast, ferrous iron presents as a particularly weak electron donor at pH 2.0 (at which these organisms grow), yielding about 0.7 mol ATP/mol. Thus, for an organism on Fe(II) to obtain as much ATP as on S₈, about 113 mol Fe(II) must be oxidized *versus* one of S₈. For comparison, the growth of a generalist on glucose by oxidation (-2,880 kJ/mol, about 62 mol ATP/mol) or fermentation (-218 kJ/mol, about 4.7 mol ATP/mol), it can be seen that most sulfur compounds could in theory yield broadly similar amounts of ATP to glucose oxidation, but iron gives much less than even glucose fermentation. For anaerobic oxidation of

elementary sulfur, the maximum amount of ATP formed (43 mol ATP/mol) is about half of that for the aerobic oxidation (80 mol ATP/mol), which correlates to the much lower *Y* for ferric iron respiration.

The specific molar growth yields (*Y*) of *Acidithiobacillus* spp. relate not only to the energy output of substrate oxidation but also the energy demands of CO₂ fixation, *via* the transaldolase-variant Calvin-Benson-Bassham (CBB) cycle, this is much higher than *via* Krebs' cycle *etc* in a generalist (Kelly, 1990):

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

$12CO_2 + 61ATP + 25.5NADPH + 3NH_3 \rightarrow C_{12}H_{24}O_6N_3 + 18H_2O_1$

The NADPH requirement is particularly difficult to overcome for an obligate autotroph growing on electron donors other than molecular hydrogen, since all of this NADPH must be formed from NADH made via reverse electron transport. The fraction of Δp and thus substrate consumed for NADH production has not been estimated in a wide range of organisms but figures in the range of 3-5 % of substrate being oxidized for NADH production are probably typical based on current understanding, but this will vary by substrate, position of coupling of its oxidation to the respiratory chain etc. Electrons from substrates that couple at cytochrome c have to pass two translocation sites to yield NADH, whereas those that couple at the quinone pool only have to pass one – if all translocation sites were equal, we would assume substrates of the latter group would not be oxidized as much in order to provide NADH as those in the former. **Metabolism**. Although recent advances have been made, the sulfur-oxidation pathways have still not been fully elucidated and probably vary between species, but recent advances have been made. Recent studies have indicated that monosulfanemonosulfonates play key roles in the oxidation of sulfur from pyrite (FeS₂). based on studies of an A. ferrooxidans strain isolated from a mine-drainage pond in China (Tu et al., 2017). These somewhat arcane, unstable oxyanions have the general formula $S_nO_3^{2-}$, the simplest of which is monosulfanemonosulfonate, better known as thiosulfate, S₂O₃². Whilst thiosulfate is very stable, the remainder of the series are very unstable, but may be conjugated to protein-carriers in vivo to afford stability. It is not yet known if the monosulfanemonosulfonates have roles in the oxidation of other sulfur species. Similarly, it is also not known if their role during ferric iron respiration of sulfur in anoxia (in which they are more stable) is more significant than in the aerobic oxidation of sulfur.

The oxidation of S_8 in A. ferroxidans has recently been elucidated in more detail by Wang et al. (2019).

Briefly, S₈ rings react with thiol groups on cysteine residues on an outer membrane protein, forming H₂S

and sulfite in the periplasm. The former is oxidized by sulfide:quinone oxidoreductase (Sqr, EC 1.8.5.4) on the inner membrane, yielding polysulfane (S_n^2) which reacts with sulfite present to form thiosulfate (polysulfanes are sometimes called "polysulfides" in the literature, but the latter strictly refers to organosulfur compounds of structure R_1 - S_n - R_2). Thiosulfate is oxidized by the quinone-linked thiosulfate dehydrogenase (Tqo, EC 1.8.5.2), forming tetrathionate and donating electrons to ubiquinone (this could potentially also be catalyzed by the cytochrome c-linked thiosulfate dehydrogenase (TsdA, EC 1.8.2.2), activity of which has been recorded in this genus (Silver and Lundgren, 1968), but no gene homologs are found). Tetrathionate is cleaved into sulfate and polysulfane (S_n^{2-}) by tetrathionate hydrolase (TetH, EC 3.12.1.B1). Polysulfane chains react with glutathione (GSH), forming GSSH, which is oxidized in the cytoplasm by a series of proteins comprising the sulfur transporters TusA and DsrE, thiosulfate sulfurtransferase (rhodanese, Rhd, EC 2.8.1.1), persulfide dioxygenase (Sdo, EC 1.13.11.18) and a heterodisulfide reductase-like complex (Hdr), forming GSH and sulfite, and donating electrons to ubiquinone. This sulfite is conjugated to adenosine 5'-monophosphate (AMP) forming adenosine 5'phosphosulfate (APS), catalyzed by APS reductase (Apr/Aps, EC 1.8.99.2). APS is then lysed by sulfate adenylyltransferase (Sat. EC 2.7.7.4), forming sulfate, ATP and protons. These terminal reactions from sulfite to sulfate via APS reductase etc provide ATP by substrate-level phosphorylation: this is distinct from Thermithiobacillus spp. in which substrate-level phosphorylation does not occur (Wood and Kelly, 1986). Ubiquinol formed during the earlier steps donates electrons to the bo_3 -type ubiquinol oxidase (or, if respiration is 'backed-up' owing to a paucity of ADP, and Δp is very high, to the bd-I type ubiquinol oxidase). Electrons from ubiquinol can also be transported in the reverse direction at the expense of Δp , generating NADH. Elementary sulfur oxidation in A. caldus (Wang et al., 2019) is quite different, after the initial opening of the

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

Elementary sulfur oxidation in *A. caldus* (Wang *et al.*, 2019) is quite different, after the initial opening of the S_8 ring. H_2S is oxidsed by Sqo to form zero-valence sulfur (S^o), which is then converted into polysulfane (S_n^2) in a separate step. Some of the sulfite formed in the ring-opening steps reacts with the pendent cysteine of the SoxYZ protein of the Lu-Kelly complex, which is catalyzed by SoxAX. The Lu-Kelly cycle then oxidizes the pendent sulfonate ($-SO_3^-$) moiety with SoxB, which cleaves it as sulfate. Thiosulfate then in turn binds to the pendent sulfane ($-S^-$) moiety, and is then oxidized by SoxB in turn, forming sulfate. Both

bisulfide (HS⁻) and sulfur from S₈ can then bind to the pendent sulfane moiety of SoxYZ and be oxidized to sulfate. Another fate of sulfite is by reaction with S^o, forming thiosulfate (the Suzuki and Silver reaction). The latter is oxidized to tetrathionate by Tgo per A. ferrooxidans. From this point onwards, a multiply branched set of pathways occurs, the precise regulation of which is not fully understood. The ultimate fate of tetrathionate-sulfur is to sulfite, which is used in substrate-level phosphorylation reactions per A. ferrooxidans. Why the organism needs both the Lu-Kelly cycle and APS reductase pathways for sulfite oxidation is unclear, but since the former generates Δp (used to synthesise ATP from ADP, or NADH from NAD⁺) and the latter generates ATP without Δp or ADP, it would seem that the redox balance of the respiratory chain, the size of the cellular ADP-pool and the NADH demand of the cell would be likely contributors to regulation of which pathway is used at any given time. Ferrous iron oxidation is also variable within the genus. In A. ferrooxidans ATCC 23270^T and A. ferridurans ATCC 33020^T, an iron:rusticvanan reductase (EC 1.16.9.1), a form of cytochrome c, on the outer membrane oxidizes Fe(II) to Fe(III) and transfers the electron to rusticyanin A (RusA) in the periplasm. Rusticyanins are small copper proteins (c. 16 kDa), which transfer electrons to a further cytochrome c, from which they are transferred to the aa_3 -type cytochrome c-oxidase and molecular oxygen. For reverse electron transport to generate NADH, electrons are transferred from RusA to a cytochrome c_4 , then on to the bc_1 complex, the quinone pool and the NADH dehydrogenase (quinone, EC 1.6.5.11). In Acidithiobacillus ferriphilus strains, the iron oxidation enzyme (Iro, EC 1.16.3.x, a high-potential iron-sulfur protein, HiPIP) oxidises Fe(II) to Fe(III) in the periplasm, transferring electrons to cytochrome c, which are then transferred either directly to the aa₃ cytochrome c oxidase per the above, or via rusticyanin B (RusB). Although rusticyanins have been assumed for many years to be critical to iron oxidation, A. ferrivorans CF27 apparently lacks both rusA and rusB genes but still grows on ferrous iron (Hedrich et al., 2011). Molecular hydrogen oxidation coupled to growth has been observed in A. caldus, A. ferrooxidans and A. ferridurans, but not A. thiooxidans (Hedrich and Johnson, 2013b). Growth on molecular hydrogen typically gives very good specific molar growth yields (two or more orders of magnitude higher than on ferrous iron), and the culture pH remains circumneutral, whereas on Fe(II) or sulfur compounds, it drops during growth. This has proven to be a useful means of generating high growth yields for genomic work (Prof D. Barrie

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

Johnson, University of Bangor, UK, personal communication). Oxidation of molecular hydrogen can be coupled to molecular oxygen or ferric iron reduction. A respiratory [NiFe]-hydrogenase (EC 1.12.99.6), catalyzes the oxidation of H_2 to H^+ , with transfer of electrons to cytochrome b and then the quinone pool. Electron transport from ubiquinol can be forward or reverse, as described above. This should not be confused with the cytoplasmic uptake [NiFe]-hydrogenase of A. ferrooxidans used during diazotrophic growth, for scavenging molecular hydrogen generated therein (Valdés et al., 2008; Vignais et al., 2001). Whilst the original authors reported that Acidithiobacillus caldus (Hallberg and Lindström, 1995) was capable of mixotrophic growth (viz. simultaneous autotrophic growth at the expense of a sulfur oxyanion and heterotrophic growth on a sugar or complex medium), later workers have not been able to replicate this (D. Barrie Johnson, personal communication). Thus, it may have been owing to contamination. No reported growth on organic carbon compounds has been observed for any Acidithiobacillus spp. It is usual to cultivate Acidithiobacillus spp. on flowers-of-sulfur or roll sulfur (former comprises orthorhombic cyclooctasulfur (α -S₈) with 'significant' amounts of polymeric (*catena*-S_{∞} or μ -S) sulfur (Steudel and Eckert, 2003), whereas the latter is 99 % α -S₈, 0.6 % cycloheptasulfur (S₇), Lesté-Lasserre (2001)). Growth on catena- S_{∞} has been observed in A. ferrooxidans ATCC 23270^T, and this allotrope interestingly produces less growth per unit biomass than α -S₈. This property makes it a potentially interesting additive in biohydrometallurgy, where excess biomass can compromise the mineral surface, but strong acid production is needed (He et al., 2011). A. thiooxidans growth on elementary sulfur is stimulated by low concentrations of surfactants such as sodium 2-ethylhexyl sulfate (Tergitol 08) or polysorbate 80 (TWEEN® 80) – increasing the wetting of the surface of the sulfur particles (Starkey et al., 1956). The dipolar sudanophilic granules in A. thiooxidans containing polyhydroxybutyrate were once believed to play a role in the initial wetting of sulfur (Umbreit et al., 1942), though it was later found that phosphatidylinositol (PI) was a wetting agent in this species (Schaeffer and Umbreit, 1963), though Jones Benson (1965) also demonstrated phosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidic acid and phosphatidylcholine in culture supernates, which were not found as major polar lipids cell extracts, and that PI was only present to a comparatively minor degree compared to these compounds.

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

In vitro, growth of Acidithiobacillus strains can be difficult if organic contaminants are present, such as detergents (Onysko et al., 1984), carboxylic acids, or some contaminating metals. As with almost all acidophiles, the uncoupling agent-type effect of carboxylate salts is of course inhibitory to growth and must be avoided. At pH below the p K_a , carboxylates revert to carboxylic acids and can thus cross a cell membrane. Upon entry into the cytoplasm, they are at a pH greater than their p K_a and liberate protons, returning to the conjugate base, lowering the intracellular pH, eventually killing the cell – fumarate, succinate, formate, acetate, oxalate, trichloroacetate and many others have been shown to be toxic at 1 mM or below (Tuttle and Dugan, 1976). Sulfamate (NH₂SO₃⁻) is also toxic to A. ferrooxidans but apparently via a different mechanism as it has a p K_a of about 0.1 at room temperature, thus would only be inhibitory at very low pH values via this uncoupling mechanism but is toxic to cultures at pH 4.5 (Lusty et al., 2006). When growing these organisms on natural minerals, contaminating metals can pose an issue, in particular hexavalent chromium (CrO₄²-/Cr₂O₇²-) is toxic to many strains growing on iron, but on elementary sulfur, the formation of intermediary sulfite and thiosulfate permits some A. ferrooxidans to 'resist' Cr₂O₇²⁻ (reducing it to Cr³⁺) at up to 2 mM. This is sensu stricto chemical reduction of Cr₂O₇²⁻ by thiosulfate/sulfite, not biological reduction or true resistance (Sisti et al., 1996). A. ferrooxidans growth on Fe(II) or FeS₂ is inhibited by Ag⁺ at 1 µM (Tuovinen et al., 1985; Hoffman and Hendrix, 1976), but the addition of yeast extract to cultures (which presumably binds Ag⁺) can alleviate this. Cu²⁺, Zn²⁺, Cd²⁺ and Cr³⁺ ions did not inhibit A. ferrooxidans at 1-10 mM, but Pb²⁺, Sn²⁺, MoO₄²⁻, Hg⁺, Hg²⁺ and Ag⁺ were fully inhibitory at 1 mM (Imai et al., 1975). Additionally, SeO₃²⁻, TeO₃²⁻, AsO₃²⁻ and MoO₄²⁻ were toxic, the latter at concentrations as low as 30 µM, in A. ferrooxidans ATCC 13661 (Tuovinen et al., 1971; N.B. strain no longer available). In a range of A. ferrooxidans isolates from Brazilian uranium and coal mines, resistance to Ag⁺, Hg²⁺, Co²⁺ and Cu²⁺ was found to be variable at strain-level, which could relate to plasmid-mediated resistance (Garcia Jr and da Silva, 1991). A. ferrooxidans ATCC 23270^T is sensitive to UO₂²⁻ ions, but adding 5 mM EDTA to cultures was sufficient to overcome this inhibition (Mahapatra and Mishra, 1984). A. thiooxidans is inhibited by WO₄²⁻, a common ingredient in trace-element solutions, which inhibits the enzymes of sulfur oxidation (Negishi et al., 2005). In A. thiooxidans ATCC 8085, growth on elementary sulfur is inhibited by VO₄³-, MoO₄²- and CrO₄²- at 0.2-0.5 mM (Jack et al., 1980).

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

Chemotaxonomic features. Fatty acid and polar lipid data for *Acidithiobacillus* spp. are given in Table I and are broadly similar to those of *Thermithiobacillus* spp. (gbm01080), but with a greater proportion of cyclopropyl and ω -cyclohexyl fatty acids, which is probably owing to their acidophilic nature (Da Costa *et al.* 2011). The polar lipids in *Acidithiobacillus* spp. include cardiolipin (diphosphatidylglycerol, CL), which has a role in maintaining Δp by acting as a 'proton trap'. This confines the periplasmic proton pool in a discreet region, minimizing proton loss through the membrane. In acidophiles, this role is expanded to include trapping ingressing protons to prevent damage (Haines and Dencher, 2002). The dominant respiratory quinone is ubiquinone-8 (UQ-8), in common with the rest of the *Acidithiobacillales* (obm00092), but minor amounts of ubiquinone-9 (UQ-9), ubiquinone-7 (UQ-7) are found in some species, and an unidentified menaquinone (MK) was also found in *A. caldus*.

Genomic and biochemical features, and their relation to ecology. The genome sequences of many *Acidithiobacillus* spp. have been completed and made publically available *via* the Integrated Microbial

Genomes (IMG) database. Properties of those from species with validly published names are curated in Table I. They are usually about 3 Mbp with 2,500-3,000 protein coding genes. All of the genomes sequenced thus far show the presence of Form IAc ('green') D-ribulose 1.5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RuBisCO, EC 4.1.1.39), which is founded exclusively within carboxysomes ('polyhedral bodies'). These intracellular compartments are consistently found in *Acidithiobacillus* spp., and are involved in the concentration of CO₂. This is hardly surprising since in low pH environments bi/carbonate has a very low availability, and effectively trapping dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) is a challenge. Form IAc is optimized for low pCO₂ and low to high pO₂. The cytosolic Form II RuBisCO is also found, and is optimized for medium to high pCO₂ with low pO₂. It is probably used when pO₂ is low, or in organisms growing at the higher end of their pH range, or in environments with otherwise high pCO₂. The bo₃-type ubiquinol oxidase (proton translocating, EC 1.10.3.10) is the respiratory terminal oxidase in all Acidithiobacillus spp. and is used during growth on sulfur species, oxidation of which is coupled entirely to ubiquinone reduction. The bd-I-type ubiquinol oxidase (non-translocating, EC 1.10.3.14) is also found, which is used to restore redox balance when the quinone pool becomes dominated with quinol, usually because of a paucity of ADP and thus a high Δp . It effectively acts as a [H] relief valve. In iron-oxidizing

species, in which Fe(II) oxidation is cytochrome c mediated, a cytochrome c oxidase (EC 1.9.3.1) of the aa_3 type is found, which is optimized for atmospheric pO₂, and does not perform well at lower pO₂.

Cultivation, Enrichment and Isolation Procedures

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

General cultivation: Deionized water that has then been glass-distilled (ddH₂O) is what we use in our laboratory and it gives very reliable, reproducible growth. We dispose of it after 10 days and store it in acidwashed Nalgene aspirators. As with all acidophiles, they should not be grown in the vicinity of organisms on ammonium- or protein-rich media, since ammonia or polyamines produced will dissolve readily from the air into low pH media, causing the death of the organisms. The same applies to the autoclaving of these media: it must be done separately, in a clean autoclave that does not contain spills of protein-rich broths. We use various basal salts for cultivation – all of them can be solidified in several ways, but agar or agarose are generally unable to set firmly at low pH values. Instead, 15.0 g/L PhytagelTM or GelzanTM CM (previously Gelrite® – all are brands of gellan gum from a Sphingomonas sp.) is used. The medium volume is reduced by 50 % and the PhytagelTM is autoclaved in the other 50 % of ddH₂O, and, after cooling both components to c.60 °C, they are combined and the plates poured. Thick plates must be poured for thermophiles, as they will dry out rapidly during incubation at elevated temperatures. Silica gel media are not usually necessary for most strains but can be useful nonetheless. For 1 L of silica gel-set medium, all ingredients are combined in 250 mL ddH₂O to which 750 mL LUDOX® HS-40 colloidal silica (W. R. Grace & Co., Columbia, MD) is then added, with stirring. The mixture is then poured into 6-cm diameter glass Petri dishes and autoclaved. After autoclaving is complete, allow the autoclave to cool naturally overnight without releasing the pressure early as this will blow holes in the solidified medium. Note that the use of larger plates tends to result in cracks forming (Kingsbury and Barghoorn, 1954). A clean white, opaque, pearlescent medium is formed using LUDOX® HS-40 in tetrathionate-based media. For especially 'fussy' strains, the LUDOX® HS-40 can be deionized by passing through a mixed-bed of Amberlite™ IR-120 and Amberite™ IR-45 immediately before use. Tuovinen and Kelly (1973) cover various other gelling agents and their properties with respect to this genus. See also Johnson (1995) and Nancucheo et al. (2016) for useful discussion on solid media design, including useful layered media. These contain heterotrophic acidophilic Acidiphilium spp. or "Acidocella aromatica" in a lower layer to consume organic acids produced

during agar(ose) hydrolysis at very low pH. Such organic acids would otherwise poison Acidithiobacillus spp. growing on the upper layer. Brock (1975) determined that water potential (ψ) was a critical parameter for successful growth of A. ferrooxidans in particular, and reported that ψ below -32 bars were inhibitory for growth (ionic strength > 3.2 M). This is an important consideration for growth, particularly in ore-column leaching experiments or column enrichments where moisture levels are low. Additionally in flask or reactor culture where solute concentrations can be very high e.g. when high concentration ferrous sulfate is used as the electron donor. Ionic strengths (determined per Debye and Hückel, 1923) are given for each medium in this section. General Acidithiobacillus basal salts (GABS, pH 4.0-4.5, ionic strength 0.049 M) for cultivation in general on thiosulfate or tetrathionate comprises (g/L in ddH₂O): (NH₄)₂SO₄ (0.60), KH₂PO₄ (0.60), MgSO₄·7H₂O (0.25), CaCl₂·2H₂O (0.05). For growth on thiosulfate or tetrathionate, these are added to 20 or 10 mM, respectively, prior to autoclaving, by directly dissolving the sodium or potassium salts in GABS. After autoclaving, 50 mL aliquots are dispensed into sterile 250-mL glass wide-mouth Erlenmeyer flasks and 0.2 mL 3.6 mM FeSO₄·7H₂O in 0.1 N HCl (filter sterilized) is added to each flask as a trace metal. For growth of Acidithiobacillus caldus on tetrathionate we use CA-basal salts (CABS, pH 2.50, ionic strength 0.501 M), which comprises (g/L ddH₂O): Na₂SO₄ (1.41), (NH₄)₂SO₄ (3.00), MgSO₄·7H₂O (0.50), KCl (0.10), K₂HPO₄ (0.05), trace metals solution CA (10 mL), K₂S₄O₆ (5.00). All ingredients except for the potassium tetrathionate and trace metals solution are dissolved in 850 mL ddH₂O. This solution is then adjusted to pH 1.75 using 1 N H₂SO₄, and diluted to 970 mL before autoclaving. Trace metals solution and tetrathionate (in 20 mL ddH₂O) are separately filter sterilized and then added to the cooled, autoclaved uion. Trace metal solution CA comprises (g/L ddH₂O): FeCl₃·6H₂O (1.10), Ca(NO₃)₂·4H₂O (1.00), H₃BO₃ (0.20), MnSO₄·H₂O (0.20), ZnSO₄·7H₂O (0.09), Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O (0.08), CoCl₂·6H₂O (0.06), CuSO₄·5H₂O (0.05), and should be stored at room temperature in non-actinic glass and should not be autoclaved neat.

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

For growth of Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans on tetrathionate, we use high-pH FA-basal salts (FABS4.4, pH 4.4, ionic strength 0.406 M) containing (g/L ddH₂O): KH₂PO₄ (3.00), MgSO₄·7H₂O (3.00), (NH₄)₂SO₄

(0.50), CaCl₂·2H₂O (0.25), K₂S₄O₆ (5.00). Ingredients are dissolved in 975 mL ddH₂O and the solution adjusted to pH 4.4 with 1 N H₂SO₄, before distributing into flasks and autoclaving. For growth of A. ferrooxidans on ferrous iron, we use low-pH FA-basal salts (FABS1.4, pH 1.4, ionic strength 0.744 M) containing (g/L 0.1 N H₂SO₄): KH₂PO₄ (0.40), MgSO₄·7H₂O (0.04), (NH₄)₂SO₄ (0.04), FeSO₄·7H₂O (13.90) – after dissolving all of the ingredients, check the pH and adjust if required before distributing into flasks and autoclaving. The final medium in most common use for various Acidithiobacillus spp. is 9K (pH 3.0, ionic strength 1.35 M) originally by Silverman and Lundgren (1959), which comprises (g/L 5mM H₂SO₄): K₂HPO₄ (0.50), MgSO₄·7H₂O (0.50), (NH₄)₂SO₄ (1.00), FeSO₄·7H₂O (50.00), Ca(NO₃)₂ (0.5), KCl (0.1). If necessary adjust pH to 3.0 after dissolution of ingredients and prior to autoclaving. This medium can also be used with tetrathionate (10 mM) or elementary sulfur/minerals (5 g/L) in place of ferrous sulfate. For growth on molecular hydrogen, CABS without tetrathionate is used, and NiSO₄·6H₂O is added to 0.5µM (0.3 mg/L), either from a stock solution or by adding to the trace metals solution CA. A 'QuickFit' flask with 'SubaSeal' vaccine stopper is used with a headspace containing 40 % v/v H₂ and 10 % v/v CO₂, leaving about 10 % v/v O₂ from air. An inverted, sterile flask can easily be filled by the downward displacement of air from a hydrogen cylinder, and then sealed with a vaccine stopper. Air and CO₂ are then injected to give the appropriate final concentrations and a slight overpressure. For growth on thiosulfate, CABS or GABS media can be used with Na₂S₂O₃·5H₂O to 20 mM (5.00 g/L) in place of tetrathionate, but it will chemically break down at low pH. It is important to note that any flasks previously containing iron salts as electron donors or terminal electron acceptors should be cleaned as follows to avoid damage to glassware or laboratory plumbing. Flasks are emptied of culture without autoclaving them flasks first. They are then filled to the brim with concentrated HCl (37 % w/v) and left overnight in the fumehood. This acid will turn somewhat yellow with iron leached from the glass surface. 'Dirty' acid is re-used for this washing procedure until almost black in colour, and is then disposed of as hazardous waste. Flasks are rinsed thoroughly in ddH₂O and washed in the normal way.

They are finally soaked in 2 % v/v HNO₃ for 48 h then washed in ddH₂O until the washings are pH neutral.

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

If flasks are not acid-washed in this way to remove iron deposits, they will precipitate on contact with detergents and become irreversibly stuck to the glass. It is important to note that flasks used for iron cultures should never be washed in the dishwasher (even following HCl washing) as, over time, a ferric phosphate deposit forms inside of the appliance and associated plumbing, which cannot be removed. For growth on terminal electron acceptors other than molecular oxygen, ferric sulfate (Fe₂(SO₄)₃) at 20 mM (8.00 g/L) is used, with usually elementary sulfur (5.00 g/L) as the electron donor. Cultures are incubated in 'QuickFit' Erlenmeyer flasks sealed with 'SubaSeal' vaccine stoppers – they are flushed thoroughly with argon or oxygen-free nitrogen (including the sterile medium therein) prior to inoculation. Argon is more costly, but as atomic argon is much denser than molecular nitrogen, it is more effective at sweeping air from glassware. It will also form an argon-blanket over the culture held in the vessel, such that any minor air leaks through a vaccine stopper do not reach the culture. A Schlenk manifold for alternate evacuation and argon-gassing can be useful, particularly if large numbers of flasks are to be prepared on a regular basis. Minerals and elementary sulfur are easily sterilized by Tyndallisation and added to medium at 0.5-5.0 g/L. For details, see the chapter on *Thermithiobacillus* (gbm01080). Sterilization using γ -radiation, where available, is suitable for minerals where steam would cause hydroxide formation. Alternatively, soaking mineral samples in sodium benzoate solution (0.44 M) for 24 h and then thoroughly rinsing in sterile ddH₂O and drying can be used – this is useful for mineral packed inside of leaching column reactors (Onysko et al., 1984). A. thiooxidans and A. concretivorus can be removed from natural mineral samples using vapor-phase p-chlorocresol or chloroxylenol (7-14 day exposure followed by thorough 'washing' in a stream of sterile air). A. ferrooxidans can be removed with the same methods or also with a 1:1 mixture of thymol and N,Ndicyclohexylamine nitrite. This is also useful for removing Acidithiobacillus contaminants from specimengrade sulfide minerals held in collections, to prevent degradation (Booth and Sefton, 1970). **Analytical methods:** During growth on ferrous iron in particular, the amount of biomass present does not appreciably change the optical density of the culture, whereas deposits of jarosite (KFe³⁺(OH)₆(SO4)₂) do raise the optical density and this makes it an unsuitable parameter for determination of biomass. In the absence of a cell-counter that tolerates mineral particles and can distinguish jarosite or sulfur or other mineral particles from cells (e.g. the CellFacts II Analyzer, CellFacts Analytics Ltd, Coventry, UK), one

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

must use a proxy measurement for growth. Growth on molecular hydrogen or tetrathionate do not pose such an issue and the optical density at 440 nm is used against a calibration curve. Cells can be counted in a Petroff-Hausser chamber after dilution 1:1 in 5 % (w/v) formalin. Tuovinen and Kelly (1973) report plate-count methods that may be useful still for some purposes. Measurement of iron oxidation is also a very useful measure of growth – this is easy to do by titration of media. Assuming a starting concentration of 50 mM Fe(II), 5 mL volumes of culture (no need to remove biomass) are titrated against against 0.100 M ceric sulfate in sulfuric acid, using the ferrous sulfate complex of 1,10-phenanthroline (ferroin) as the indicator. This changes from red to blue at end-point. This titration follows the stoichiometry:

 $2Ce(SO_4)_2 + 2FeSO_4 \rightarrow Ce_2(SO_4)_3 + Fe_2(SO_4)_3$

The ceric sulfate used should be a precise volumetric standard solution, either procured ready-made, or prepared quite economically and standardized oneself. First, 21.00 g ceric hydroxide is dissolved in 100 mL 98 % H₂SO₄ with stirring. Once fully dissolved, 300 mL ddH₂O is cautiously and slowly added over about 30 min. The solution is left overnight, and then filtered through Whatman No. 1 filter paper into a 1-L volumetric flask, and is then diluted to volume with ddH₂O. This solution is then standardized against an arsenic (III) standard, as follows. 0.200 g arsenic (III) oxide (dried at 105 °C for 1-2 h before weighing) is dissolved in 20 mL 2.00 M NaOH, warming gently until absolutely <u>all</u> of the solid material has dissolved. After cooling to room temperature, 25.00 mL 2 M H₂SO₄ is added, followed by 0.6 mL 'osmic acid'. The latter is prepared from 1.26 mL electron microscopy grade 0.4 % (*w/v*) osmium tetroxide solution, diluted to 2 mL in a volumetric flask with 50 mM H₂SO₄ – take great care from this step onwards to work in the fumehood and with eye protection as OsO₄ vapours permanently damage the eye! To this solution, 0.5 mL *N*-phenylanthranilic acid (diphenylamine-2-carboxylic acid) is added as the indicator. This changes from yellow-green to violet at end-point. This solution in its entirety is titrated against the prepared ceric sulfate solution and the precise concentration of the latter is determined from the stoichiometry:

$2Ce(SO_4)_2 + H_3AsO_3 + H_2O \rightarrow Ce_2(SO_4)_3 + H_3AsO_4 + H_2SO_4$

The concentration obtained is then used in all cerimetric titrations of Fe(II) in media. All osmium-containing waste is poured into a large beaker in the fume hood and an equal volume of corn oil or olive oil added, which reduces OsO₄ to safer, insoluble black OsO₂ over about 24 h.

For total iron (from which ferric iron can then be determined by subtracting the ferrous iron), either ICP-OES or ICP-MS can be used. For 'real time' determinations, titration following reduction to Fe²⁺ is useful. The medium is passed through a Jones reductor to reduce Fe³⁺ to Fe²⁺, and the latter determined by titration as described above. The Jones reductor uses zinc amalgam to reduce ferric iron:

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

$$Zn(Hg) + 2Fe^{3+} \Rightarrow Zn^{2+} + Hg^{0} + 2Fe^{2+}$$

The Jones reductor comprises a 360×20 mm glass tube topped with a c. 100 mL reservoir (60×45 mm). There is a sintered glass frit and tap at the distal end of the tube, which is connected via a rubber bung to a 1-L Büchner flask set up at the pump. A second flask is set up as a trap, to protect the pump. On the underside of the bung, a further length of glass tubing is connected with silicone tubing so as to reach to 0.5 cm from the bottom of the flask. About 250-300 g high purity zinc turnings in a wide beaker with a glass-covered stirring 'flea' are covered with 70 mM HgCl₂ solution and stirred for 10 min. The supernate is decanted off and the amalgamated zinc washed with 3-4 changes of ddH₂O – it should be bright silver in color – and is then packed into the glass tube, 500 mL ddH₂O are slowly drawn through the tube with a gentle vacuum from the pump, leaving the column material covered in water when the tap is closed. It should never be left exposed to the air at any time. To use, 50 mL 2 N H₂SO₄ is added to the reservoir and is drawn into the column with a vacuum until just below the top of the amalgam. This step is repeated twice and a clean, dry 1-L Büchner flask is then put into place. The analyte is diluted 10 fold in 2 N H₂SO₄ and is drawn through the column at about 1 mL/s. Once the reservoir is almost empty, 2 × 100 mL volumes of 0.5 N H₂SO₄ are drawn through, into the same flask, followed by 100 mL ddH₂O. The flask is disconnected and ferrous iron determined therein from a 50.00 mL aliquot by titration as above. If determining ferric iron in this way in leaching experiments in chloride-rich ores, it is necessary to add 25 mL Zimmermann-Reinhardt solution after reduction but prior to titration. This prevents the oxidation of chloride at the expense of Ce(IV), which would overestimate the Fe(II) present. This solution is made by dissolving 50 g manganous sulfate tetrahydrate in 250 mL ddH₂O to which 100 mL 98 % H₂SO₄ in 300 mL ddH₂O is added with stirring, followed by 100 mL 85% H₃PO₄.

Growth on other electron donors other than iron is often stronger, but at times it is still not possible to measure *via* conventional means. During growth on thiosulfate or tetrathionate, their depletion can easily be

determined. Sulfate is also easily determined, which is the end product of elementary sulfur oxidation. Thiosulfate and tetrathionate can be determined by ion chromatography or HPLC, for which there are many published methods. When not available, a colorimetric assay (based on Kelly *et al.*, 1969) can be used. In this assay, thiosulfate and tetrathionate must be determined together. Culture (0.5-1.0 mL, no need to remove biomass) is added to duplicate 25 mL volumetric flasks. To each flask, 4 mL of 0.2 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) and 5.0-5.5 mL ddH₂O are added. To the first flask ("A"), 5 mL 0.1 M KCN solution is added, and the flask capped and incubated at 4 °C for at least 20 min (they can be incubated for days, if necessary). To the second flask ("B"), 5 mL 0.1 M KCN are added and the flask capped and incubated at 4 °C for 20 min, following which 1.5 mL 0.1 M CuSO₄·5H₂O is added and the flask shaken, then incubation continued for at least 15 min (or many days). To both flasks, 3 mL 0.75 M Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O in 0.80 M HClO₄ is added, and the solution rapidly shaken to dissolve any precipitates before diluting to volume and measuring absorbance at 460 nm against reagent blanks. This measurement should be done rapidly as the red ferric thiocyanate complex is light labile. The ferric thiocyanate complex has an extinction coefficient of 4.4 mM⁻¹ cm⁻¹, from which the concentrations each in flask can be determined with the Beer-Lambert equation. The reactions in the flasks and concentrations of analytes are given as follows:

A: 1 mol $S_4O_6^{2-}$ yields 1 mol SCN^- , thus $[SCN^-]_A = [S_4O_6^{2-}]_A$

B: 1 mol S₄O₆²⁻ yields 2 mol SCN⁻, and 1 mol S₂O₃²⁻ yields 1 mol SCN⁻, thus [SCN⁻]_B – [SCN⁻]_A = [S₂O₃²⁻]_B For determination of sulfate, ion chromatography is also often used. Indirect determination of sulfate with ICP-OES, atomic absorption spectroscopy *etc* are also possible, providing samples are pre-treated with acidified LaCl₃ solution to remove interfering carbonates and phosphates beforehand. A volume of a standard BaCl₂ solution is then added and the resulting BaSO₄ precipitate allowed to settle. Residual Ba²⁺ in the supernate can then be determined by ICP-OES or AA based on the stoichiometry:

$BaCl_2 + SO_4^{2-} \rightarrow BaSO_4 + 2Cl^{-}$

From this, the original sulfate concentration is found by the difference between the initial amount added and the amount remaining in solution. Ba²⁺ can also be determined by titration if the solution is adjusted to pH 11.5-12.7, against a standard EDTA solution, using methylthymol blue in KNO₃ solution as the indicator.

Sulfate can be determined directly by various turbidometric methods that are suitable for rapid-screening. Briefly, analyte (1-5 mL) is added to a 100-mL volumetric flask containing 10.00 mL 4.1 M NaCl in 0.2 M HCl. 20.00 mL 30 % (*v/v*) glycerol in ethanol is added and the contents of the flask are diluted to volume with ddH₂O. BaCl₂ (0.30g, finely ground) is added to each flask and flasks are immediately mixed by end-over-end rotation at a rate of 1 rps for 1 min. Flasks are then allowed to stand for *exactly* 3 min. Optical density at 440 nm is determined. We have found that this method is much more reproducible in colorimeters that use round test tubes in place of cuvettes, rather than in digital spectrophotometers, and we get very precise determinations against external standards. This is probably owing to the shape of the sample container (round *vs* square), the morphology of the light beam and the bandwidth of the light being broader in a colorimeter. The concentration of SO₄²⁻ must be determined from a calibration curve, and an external standard of defined concentration should be procured and used with each batch of assays.

Maintenance: Mineral or elementary sulfur oxidizing strains are maintained quite easily following growth

in 9K or GEBS under air using 5 g/L sterile pyrite, chalcopyrite, lignite or roll sulfur as the electron donor. After growth is evident, viability is retained for 2-4 months at 4-10 °C (Gupta and Agate, 1986). Many *Acidithiobacillus* spp. do not preserve well by freezing with glycerol or dimethylsulfoxide, but successful recovery of frozen cultures of *A. ferrooxidans* has been reported from cells grown on ferrous iron, washed twice and resuspended in the same medium minus the iron before mixing with Protect-100 beads (Pro-lab Diagnostics Inc., Toronto, Canada). Whilst these beads are no longer manufactured, the new MicrobankTM system is based on a similar technology and may be a viable alternative. After mixing vials at room temperature for 45 min, they are frozen at -70 °C. Recovery is by dispensing into 10 mL of the same ferrous iron medium (LaCombe Barron and Lueking, 1990). Lyophilization of *Acidithiobacillus* spp. is not usually very successful (Gupta and Agate, 1986).

Enrichment and isolation: For solid samples, 1-2 g soil, corroded concrete, coal or minerals are added directly to 50 mL of the appropriate basal salts, supplemented with the required electron donor in a sterile, wide-mouth Erlenmeyer flask. For water samples such as acid mine drainage, acid lake water *etc*, our practice is to pass 250-1,000 mL through a 45 mm 0.2 μm pore size glass fibre filter to concentrate the biomass – this is then added to the medium. NB: if using water from a lake *etc* that has been exposed to

sunlight, pre-filtration (0.44 μm pore size) can be helpful to remove acidophilic *Eukarya*. If elementary sulfur, pyrite, coals and so on are used as the electron donor, they are used at 0.5-1.0 % (*w/v*). Because they frequently contain acidiphilic sulfur- or mineral-oxidizing *Bacteria*, they must be sterilized before use, but if they are not, they can act as both the electron donor *and* inoculum. Flasks are stoppered *loosely* with sterile cotton wool and incubated with rapid shaking at 20-50 °C and once turbidity and/or pH change, iron oxidation *etc* are evident (increase in cell number/optical density or evidence of substrate oxidation), enrichments are sub-cultured (usually every 7-14 days) into fresh medium (10 % *v/v*). After 5 or so serial subcultures, streak plates or serial dilution spread-plates are prepared and colonies purified *etc*.

Taxonomic comments

Where three-letter abbreviations are required for clarity, we recommend "Atb." and not the two-letter abbreviation "At.". Note Chapter 4 Advisory Notes of the Bacteriological Code states that a single letter only should be used for generic abbreviations, excepting when several taxa are mentioned in the publication with the same initial letter, in which case the whole names should be used (Parker et al., 2019). Since this system would be ungainly, Trüper and Madigan (1999) recommended three-letter abbreviations are used in such circumstances: this genus is not an exception to this and two-letter abbreviations should be avoided, and in studies of Acidithiobacillus spp. only, the single-letter abbreviation is correct.

The type species *A. thiooxidans* as well as *A. caldus*, *A. albertensis* and *A. ferrooxidans* were originally described as members of the genus *Thiobacillus* (gbm00969). It is worth noting that *A. ferrooxidans* was also referred to by the synonym "*Ferrobacillus ferrooxidans*" in many early publications (*e.g.* Silverman and Lundgren, 1959), but this name was not included in the Approved Lists of 1980. These species were reclassified by Kelly and Wood (2000) when the genus *Acidithiobacillus* was created. *Thiobacillus concretivorus* falls within the genus *Acidithiobacillus* on the basis of 16S rRNA gene phylogeny, but Kelly and Wood (2000) considered it to be a heterotypic synonym of *A. thiooxidans*. During the work of Kelly and Wood (2000), it was found that *Acidithiobacillus* formed a distinct clade from *Thermithiobacillus* (gbm01080) on the basis of the 16S rRNA gene, which is still the case (a phylogenetic tree on this basis is given in the chapter on *Thermithiobacillus* (gbm01080)). We now know that many of the iron-oxidizing *Acidithiobacillus* spp. share very high 16S rRNA (*rrs*) gene identities (Table I) such that they could be

considered strains of the same species if judged by this criterion alone. They are, in fact, bona fide species. As such, we must now reappraise the position of *T. concretivorus*, which is potentially also a bona fide species. To remove uncertainty, with *T. concretivorus* still lingering under a generic epithet that relates to an entirely different class, we herein circumscribe it into Acidithiobacillus as Acidithiobacillus concretivorus comb. nov. and give a protologue at the end of this section. A. albertensis is similarly closely related to A. thiooxidans on this basis but as we have the genome sequence available, whereas we do not for A. concretivorus comb. nov. A concatamer tree of the 53 ribosomal proteins (Figure 1) shows clearly that A. albertensis is essentially identical to other A. thiooxidans strains, so would either be a subspecies of A. thiooxidans or just a heterotypic synonym – this cannot be ascertained without further work.

It is also very evident from both 16S rRNA gene studies and the ribosomal protein analysis (Figure 1) that

Acidithiobacillus caldus is probably not a bona fide species of Acidithiobacillus, nor does it affiliate with Thermithiobacillus (gbm01080), thus it probably represents a novel genus within this order. This conclusion is also supported by other comparisons to bona fide Acidithiobacillus spp.: it is thermophilic, in common with most Thermithiobacillus strains, whereas Acidithiobacillus are usually mesophiles or psychrophiles; it has a higher G+C fraction of its genomic DNA, and a smaller genome sequence – both are closer to those of Thermithiobacillus spp., however, it clusters within the Acidithiobacillaceae (fbm00213) rather than the Thermithiobacillaceae (fbm00214), and thus cannot be considered a close relative of Thermithiobacillus (gbm01080).

Description of Acidithiobacillus concretivorus comb. nov. (Parker 1945a, Thiobacillus concretivorus)

con.cre.ti'vo.rus. N.L. neut. n. *concretum* (from L. masc. adj. *concretus*, hardened, condensed), firm or solid matter, concrete; L. part. adj. *vorans*, devouring, swallowing up, destroying; N.L. part. adj. *concretivorus*, concrete-devouring, concrete-destroying.

Motile straight rods 0.5×1.5 - $2.0 \,\mu m$ with square ends. Deeply stained volutin granules (polyphosphate). Motile by single polar flagella 4-6 $\,\mu m$ long. Tiny clear colonies on thiosulfate agar, turning white-yellow with age. Strict aerobe. Oxidizes thiosulfate, hydrogen sulfide and elementary sulfur as electron donors. Thiosulfate is oxidized to tetrathionate and then sulfate. Strict aerobe.

Mesophile. Extreme acidophile. Uses carboxysomes. Type strain has growth optima at pH 2.0-4.0 and 28 °C, but growth observed at pH -0.6 to 6.0. Dominant fatty acids following growth on elementary sulfur at pH 4.4, 30 °C are 10-*trans*-cyclopropylnonadecylic acid (C_{19:0} *cyclo* ω8*c*), ω-cyclohexylmargaric acid (C_{17:0} *cyclo*), palmitic acid (C_{16:0}), lauric acid (C_{12:0}), 3-hydroxymyristic

Type strain isolated from decomposing concrete in the sewer outfall of Melbourne, Australia.

DNA G+C content (mol%): N.D.

acid ($C_{14:0}$ 3-OH) and palmitoleic acid ($C_{16:1}$).

Type strain: NCIMB 8345 = ATCC 19703

GenBank accession (16S rRNA gene): KX894722

List of species in the genus Acidithiobacillus

Acidithiobacillus albertensis (Bryant, McGroarty, Costerton, Laishley 1988), Kelly and Wood 2000,
 514^{VP} (Thiobacillus albertis Bryant, McGroarty, Costerton, Laishley 1988, 221)

al.ber.ten'sis. N.L. masc. adj. albertensis, pertaining to Alberta, Canadian province.

Motile straight rods 0.45×1.2 - $1.5 \, \mu m$ with a tuft of flagella at one pole. Small dark green colonies with yellow halos on thiosulfate agar (pH 4.0) containing bromophenol blue, or yellow colonies without indicator. Membrane-bound sulfur granules formed on thiosulfate media. Oxidizes thiosulfate to tetrathionate and then to sulfate. Uses thiosulfate, elementary sulfur and tetrathionate as electron donors. Can use ferric iron as terminal electron acceptor when growing on elementary sulfur as electron donor. Mesophile. Acidophile. Does not produce volutin or poly- β -hydroxybutyrate granules. Uses carboxysomes. Type strain has growth optima at pH 3.5-4.0 and 28-30 °C. Ubiquinol oxidases only. Form IAc (carboxysomal) and Form II (cytoplasmic) RuBisCO. Likely a heterotypic synonym of *A. thiooxidans*.

Type strain isolated from acid soil next to a sulfur stockpile at Fox Creek, Alberta, Canada.

DNA G+C content (mol%): 52.5 (sequence), 61.5 (UV absorption)

Type strain: DSM 14366 = ATCC 35403

GenBank accession (16S rRNA gene): AJ459804

· ._

2. Acidithiobacillus caldus (Hallberg and Lindström 1995) Kelly and Wood 2000, 514^{VP} (Thiobacillus caldus Hallberg and Lindström 1995, 619)

cal'dus. L. masc. adj. caldus, warm, hot.

Motile straight rods 0.7-0.8 × 1.2-1.8 μm. Motile by single polar flagella. Electron-dense material at poles of cells. Tiny clear colonies on thiosulfate agar, turning white-yellow with age. Strict aerobe. Oxidises thiosulfate, sulfide, elementary sulfur, tetrathionate and molecular hydrogen as electron donors. Does not use ferrous iron or iron sulfides. Heterotrophic growth is not observed. Mixotrophic growth (tetrathionate/glucose) has been reported in one study, but this needs further work to confirm. Strict aerobe. Not diazotrophic. Moderate thermophile. Extreme acidophile. Uses carboxysomes. Type strain has growth optima at pH 2.0-2.5 and 45 °C, but growth observed at pH 1.0-3.5 and 32-52 °C. Ubiquinol oxidases only. Form IAc (carboxysomal) and Form II (cytoplasmic) RuBisCO. In addition to ubiquinone-8 (common to all *Acidithiobacillia* as the dominant respiratory quinone), a menaquinone is also present.

Type strain isolated from coal spoil heap at the former Kingsbury Colliery, Warwickshire, UK.

DNA G+C content (mol%): 66.60 (B.d.), 66.4 (sequence), 63.9 (T_m)

Type strain: KU = ATCC 51756 = DSM 8584

GenBank accession (16S rRNA gene): Z29975

IMG accession (genome sequence): 2811995294

 Acidithiobacillus concretivorus (Parker 1945a) comb. nov. (Thiobacillus concretivorus Parker 1945, 81^{AL})

con.cre.ti'vo.rus. N.L. neut. n. *concretum* (from L. masc. adj. *concretus*, hardened, condensed), firm or solid matter, concrete; L. part. adj. *vorans*, devouring, swallowing up, destroying; N.L. part. adj. *concretivorus*, concrete-devouring, concrete-destroying.

See protologue for this comb. nov., given above, for properties.

Type strain isolated from decomposing concrete in the sewer outfall of Melbourne, Australia.

DNA G+C content (mol%): N.D. 644 Type strain: NCIMB 8345 = ATCC 19703 645 GenBank accession (16S rRNA gene): KX894722 646 647 648

649

650

651

652

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665 666

667

668

669

670

4. Acidithiobacillus ferridurans Hedrich and Johnson 2013a, 4024^{VP}

fer.ri.du'rans. L. neut. n. ferrum, iron; L. part. adj. durans, hardening, enduring; N.L. part. adj. ferridurans, iron-enduring, referring to growth at high Fe(II) and Fe(III) concentrations.

Motile straight rods 1-2 µm long. Motility is strain variable. Small iron-stained colonies on acidic ferrous iron media and large dark-brown colonies grown on molecular hydrogen. Oxidises ferrous iron, molecular hydrogen, elementary sulfur or tetrathionate as electron donors. Can use ferric iron as terminal electron acceptor when growing on elementary sulfur as electron donor. Diazotrophic. Mesophile. Extreme acidophile. Uses carboxysomes. Type strain has growth optima at pH 2.1 and 29 °C. Uses rusticyanin A (RusA). Dominant fatty acids following growth on molecular hydrogen at pH 2.0, 30 °C are 10-trans-cyclopropylnonadecylic acid ($C_{19:0}$ cyclo $\omega 8c$), cis-vaccenic acid ($C_{18:1}$ $\omega 7c$), palmitic acid ($C_{16:0}$), palmitoleic acid ($C_{16:1}$), ω -cyclohexylmargaric acid ($C_{17:0}$ cyclo) and lauric acid $(C_{12:0})$, and polar lipids are phosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylethanolamine and aminolipids. Type strain tolerates up to 0.8 M Zn^{2+} , 1 M Mg^{2+} , 0.4 M Fe^{2+} , 0.2M Fe^{3+} and 1 mM UO_2^{2+} , but only 40 mm μ M MoO₄²-.

Type strain isolated from drainage water at a uranium mine, Ningyo-Tohge, Tottori, Japan.

DNA G+C content (mol%): 56.0-60.0 ($T_{\rm m}$) *Type strain*: JCM 18981 = ATCC 33020 GenBank accession (16S rRNA gene): AJ278719

5. Acidithiobacillus ferriphilus Falagán and Johnson 2016, 210^{VP}

fer.ri.phi'lus. L. neut. n. ferrum, iron; N.L., masc. adj. philus (from Gr. masc. adj. philos, that which is dearly loved, that which is beloved), loving; N.L. masc. adj. ferriphilus, iron-loving, referring to growth at high Fe(II) concentrations.

Motile straight rods 1-2 μ m long. Small ferric-iron-stained colonies on ferrous iron media. Uses ferrous iron, elementary sulfur and tetrathionate as electron donors. Can use ferric iron as terminal electron acceptor when growing on elementary sulfur as electron donors. Mesophile. Extreme acidophile. Some psychrotolerant strains. Type strain has growth optima at pH 2.0 and 30 °C. Some strains grow at >1 M Fe²⁺, 0.5 M Fe³⁺, 0.8 M Co²⁺, and 1.2 M Mg²⁺, but all are sensitive to MoO₄²⁻ at 100 μ M. When grown on ferrous iron at pH 1.6, 30 °C, the dominant fatty acids are *cis*-vaccenic acid (C_{18:1} ω 7*c*), palmitoleic acid (C_{16:1}), 2-hydroxyvaccenic acid (C_{18:1} 2-OH), 3-hydroxymyristic acid (C_{14:0} 3-OH), palmitic acid (C_{16:0}) and lauric acid (C_{12:0}). The polar lipids are aminolipids, phospholipids and phosphatidylglycerol.

Type strain isolated from Galway's soufrière, an acidic pool in a geothermal region of Montserrat (British Overseas Territory, Caribbean).

DNA G+C content (mol%): 57.4 (*B.d.*), 66.84 (sequence).

Type strain: M20 = DSM 100412 = JCM 30830

GenBank accession (16S rRNA gene): KR905751

6. *Acidithiobacillus ferrivorans* Hallberg, González-Toril and Johnson 2010*b* 469^{VP} (Effective publication: Hallberg, González-Toril and Johnson 2010*a* 18)

fer.ri.vor'ans. L. neut. n. *ferrum*, iron; L. part. adj. *vorans*, devouring, swallowing up; N.L. part. adj. *ferrivorans*, iron-devouring.

Motile straight rods 0.5×1.6 -2.4 µm long. Motile. Small 'fried-egg' colonies, orange with off-white margins, on acidic iron/tetrathionate agar, turning opaque white/yellow with age. Uses elementary sulfur, thiosulfate, tetrathionate, sulfide, ferrous iron and pyrite as electron donors, with use of molecular hydrogen varying by strain. Can use ferric iron as terminal electron acceptor when growing on elementary sulfur as electron donor. Mesophile. Extreme acidophile. Some psychrotolerant strains. Type strain has growth optima at pH 2.5 and 25-32 °C but grows pH 1.9-3.4 and 4-37 °C. Uses rusticyanin B (RusB). Has aa_3 -type cytochrome c-oxidase and bo_3 -type ubiquinol oxidase but not the bd-I-type ubiquinol oxidase common to other Acidithiobacillus spp. Form IAc

(carboxysomal) and Form II (cytoplasmic) RuBisCO. Type strain grows at 0.2 M Fe²⁺, <0.1 M 698 Fe^{3+} , <0.05 M Cu^{2+} , and 0.2 M Zn^{2+} , but is sensitive to MoO₄²⁻ at 100 µM. 699 Type strain isolated from drainage water of a spoil heap at disused copper mine in northern Norway. 700 DNA G+C content (mol%): 55.5 (T_m) 701 Type strain: NO-37 = DSM 22755 = JCM 15606702 GenBank accession (16S rRNA gene): AF376020 703

7. Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans (Temple and Colmer 1951) Kelly and Wood 2000, 513^{VP} (Thiobacillus ferrooxidans Temple and Colmer 1951, 605)

704

705

706

707

708

709

710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

722

723

724

725

fer.ro.ox'i.dans. L. neut. n. ferrum, iron; Gr. masc. adj. oxús (L. transliteration oxys), sharp, acidic; N.L. v. oxydo, to make acid, to oxidize; N.L. part. adj. ferrooxidans, iron-oxidizing.

Motile straight rods 0.5×1.0 µm. Probably atrichous or at least non-motile. Volutin (polyphosphate) and poly- β -hydroxybutyrate granules. Colonies on thiosulfate agar are thin and small and become white with age. On ferrous iron agar, colonies are amber and become coated with ferric hydroxide with time. Uses elementary sulfur, thiosulfate, tetrathionate, ferrous iron, pyrite and molecular hydrogen as electron donors. Can use ferric iron as terminal electron acceptor when growing on elementary sulfur as electron donor. Diazotrophic, Mesophile, Acidophile, Type strain has growth optima at pH 2.5-5.8 and 30-35 °C and grows pH 2.0-6.0 and 10-37 °C. Some strains grow at 0.4 M Fe²⁺, 0.2 M Fe³⁺, 0.05 M Cu²⁺, and 0.3 M Zn²⁺, but are sensitive to MoO₄²⁻ at 100 µM. When grown on ferrous iron under air at pH 2.1, 30 °C, the dominant fatty acids are *cis*-vaccenic acid ($C_{18:1} \omega 7c$), palmitoleic acid ($C_{16:1}$), palmitic acid ($C_{16:0}$), 10-trans-cyclopropylnonadecylic acid ($C_{19:0}$ cyclo $\omega 8c$), myristic acid (C_{14:0}) and lauric acid (C_{12:0}). Uses rusticyanin A (RusA). Form IAc (carboxysomal) and Form II (cytoplasmic) RuBisCO. Has aa₃-type cytochrome c-oxidase and bo₃type and bd-I-type ubiquinol oxidases.

Type strain isolated from acid mine drainage at the Pittsburgh coal seam, PA, USA.

DNA G+C content (mol%): 58.77 (sequence) *Type strain*: ATCC 23270 = CIP 104768 = DSM 14882 GenBank accession (16S rRNA gene): AF465604

8. Acidithiobacillus thiooxidans (Waksman and Joffe 1922) Kelly and Wood 2000, 513^{VP}

hydroxybutyrate granules. Colonies on thiosulfate agar are small and transparent. Uses elementary

726

728

72

731

732

735

737

744

746

749 750

9	(Thiobacillus thiooxidans Waksman and Joffe 1922, 239)
0	thi.o.ox'i.dans. Gr. neut. n. theîon, sulfur, brimstone (L. transliteration, thium); Gr. masc. adj. oxús

73

733 734

736

738

739 740

741

742 743

745

747

748

751

(L. transliteration oxys), sharp, acidic; N.L. v. oxydo, to make acid, to oxidize; N.L. part. adj. thiooxidans, sulfur-oxidizing.

Motile straight rods 0.5×1.0 -2.0 µm. Monotrichous. Volutin (polyphosphate) and poly- β -

sulfur, thiosulfate, and sulfide as electron donors. Obligate aerobe. Diazotrophy not observed. Mesophile. Extreme acidophile. Type strain has growth optima at pH 2.0-3.5 and 28-30 °C and

grows pH 0.5-6.0 and 18-37 °C. When grown on elementary sulfur under air at pH 4.4, 30 °C, the dominant fatty acids are ω -cyclohexylnonadecylic acid (C_{19:0} cyclo), ω -cyclohexylmargaric acid

 $(C_{17:0} \ cvclo)$, palmitoleic acid $(C_{16:1})$, vaccenic acid $(C_{18:1})$ and palmitic acid $(C_{16:0})$. Has Form IAc

(carboxysomal) and Form II (cytoplasmic) RuBisCO and bo₃-type and bd-I-type ubiquinol oxidases.

DNA G+C content (mol%): 53.16 (sequence) Type strain: ATCC 19377 = CIP 104597 = DSM 14887 = JCM 3867 = NCIMB 8343

GenBank accession (16S rRNA gene): Y11596

Type strain isolated from compost of soil, phosphorite and elementary sulfur, NJ, USA.

IMG accession (genome sequence): 2510461056

References

Boden R & Hutt LP (2018a). Determination of kinetic parameters and metabolic modes using the chemostat. In: Steffan R (ed) Consequences of microbial interactions with hydrocarbons, oils, and lipids: biodegradation and bioremediation. Handbook of hydrocarbon and lipid microbiology. Springer Nature: Cham, Switzerland. pp. 1-42.

752	Boden R, Hutt LP & Rae AW (2017a) Reclassification of <i>Thiobacillus aquaesulis</i> (Wood &
753	Kelly, 1995) as Annwoodia aquaesulis gen. nov., comb. nov., transfer of Thiobacillus
754	(Beijerinck, 1904) from the Hydrogenophilales to the Nitrosomonadales, proposal of
755	Hydrogenophilalia class. nov. within the 'Proteobacteria', and four new families within the
756	orders Nitrosomonadales and Rhodocyclales. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 67: 1191-1205.
757	Boden R, Scott KM, Williams J, Russel S, Antonen K, Rae AW & Hutt LP (2017b) An evaluation of
758	Thiomicrospira, Hydrogenovibrio and Thioalkalimicrobium: reclassification of four species
759	of Thiomicrospira to each Thiomicrorhabdus gen. nov. and Hydrogenovibrio, and
760	reclassification of all four species of Thioalkalimicrobium to Thiomicrospira. Int J Syst Evol
761	Microbiol 67: 1140-1151.
762	Booth GH & Sefton GV (1970) Vapour phase inhibition of <i>Thiobacilli</i> and <i>Ferrobacilli</i> : a potential
763	poreservative for pyritic museum specimens. Nature 226: 185-186.
764	Brock TD (1975) Effect of water potential on growth and iron oxidation by Thiobacillus
765	ferrooxidans. Appl Microbiol 29 : 495-501.
766	Bryant RD, McGroarty KM, Costerton JW & Laishley EJ (1983) Isolation and characterization of a
767	new acidophilic Thiobacillus species (T. albertis). Can J Microbiol 29: 1159-1170.
768	Da Costa MS, Albuquerque L, Nobre MF, Wait R (2011) The identification of fatty acids in bacteria.
769	In: Rainey F, Oren A (eds) Taxonomy of prokaryotes, Methods in Microbiology, vol. 38.
770	London, Elsevier. pp. 183-196.
771	Debye P, Hückel E (1923) Zur Theorie der Elektrolyte I. Gefrierpunktserniedrigung und verwandte
772	Erschelnungen. <i>Phys Z</i> 24 : 185-206.
773	Edgar RC (2004) MUSCLE: multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high throughput.
774	Nucleic Acids Res. 32 : 1792-1797.
775	Falagán C, Johnson DB (2016) Acidithiobacillus ferriphilus sp. nov., a facultatively anaerobic iron-
776	and sulfur-metabolizing extreme acidophile. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 66: 206-211.
777	Garcia Jr O, da Silva LL (1991) Differences in growth and iron oxidation among Thiobacillus
778	ferrooxidans cultures in the presence of toxic metals. Biotechnol Lett 13: 567-570.

779	Gupta SG, Agate AD (1986) Preservation of Thiobacillus ferrooxidans and Thiobacillus
780	thiooxidans with activity check. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 52: 121-127.
781	Haines TH, Dencher NA (2002) Cardiolipin: a proton trap for oxidative phosphorylation. FEBS Lett
782	528 : 35-39.
783	Hallberg KB, Lindström EB (1994) Characterization of <i>Thiobacillus caldus</i> sp. nov., a moderately
784	thermophilic acidophile. <i>Microbiology (UK)</i> , 140 : 3451-3456.
785	Hallberg KB, González-Toril E, Johnson DB (2010a) Acidithiobacillus ferrivorans sp. nov.:
786	facultatively anaerobic, psychrotolerant iron- and sulfur-oxidizing acidophiles isolated from
787	metal mine-impacted environments. Extremophiles 14: 9-19.
788	Hallberg KB, González-Toril E, Johnson DB (2010b) In Validation List No. 132. Int J Syst Evol
789	Microbiol 60 : 469-472.
790	He H, Xia J-L, Huang G-H, Jiang H-C, Tao X-X, Zhao Y-D, He W (2011) Analysis of the elemental
791	sulfur biooxidation by $A cidithiobacillus ferrooxidans$ with sulfur K-edge XANES. $World J$
792	Microbiol Biotechnol 27: 1927-1931.
793	Hedrich S, Johnson DB (2013a) Acidithiobacillus ferridurans sp. nov., an acidophilic iron-, sulfur-
794	and hydrogen-metabolizing chemolithoautotrophic gammaproteobacterium. Int J Syst Evol
795	Microbiol 63 : 4018-4025.
796	Hedrich S, Johnson DB (2013b) Aerobic and anaerobic oxidation of hydrogen by acidophilic
797	bacteria. FEMS Microbiol Lett 349: 40-45.
798	Hedrich S, Schlömann M, Johnson DB (2011) The iron-oxidizing proteobacteria. <i>Microbiology (UK)</i>
799	157 : 1551-1564.
800	Hoffman LE, Hendrix JL (1976) Inhibition of <i>Thiobacillus ferrooxidans</i> by soluble silver. <i>Biotechnol</i>
801	Bioeng 18: 1161-1165.
802	Imai K, Sugio T, Tsuchida T, Tano T (1975) Effect of heavy metal ions on the growth and iron-
803	oxidizing activity of Thiobacillus ferrooxidans. Agr Biol Chem 39: 1349-1354.
804	Ingledew WJ (1982) Thiobacillus ferrooxidans: the bioenergetics of an acidophilic chemolithotroph.
805	Biochim Biophys Acta 683: 89-117.

806	Jack TR, Sullivan EA, Zajic JE (1980) Growth inhibition of Thiobacillus thiooxidans by metals
807	and reductive detoxification of vanadium (V). Eur J Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 9: 21-30.
808	Johnson DB (1995) Selective solid media for isolating and enumerating acidophilic bacteria. J
809	Microbiol Methods 23: 205-218.
810	Jones GE, Benson AA (1965) Phosphatidyl glycerol in Thiobacillus thiooxidans. J Bacteriol 89:
811	260-261.
812	Katayama-Fujimura Y, Tsuzaki N, Kuraishi H (1982) Ubiquinone, fatty acid and DNA base
813	composition determination as a guide to the taxonomy of the genus Thiobacillus. J Gen
814	Microbiol 128 : 1599-1611.
815	Kelly DP (1990) Energetics of chemolithotrophs. In: Krulwich T (ed) Bacterial energetics.
816	Academic Press: San Diego. pp. 479-503.
817	Kelly DP, Chambers LA, Trudinger PA (1969) Cyanolysis and spectrophotometric estimation of
818	trithionate in mixture with thiosulfate and tetrathionate. Anal Chem 41: 898-901.
819	Kelly DP, Wood AP (2000) Reclassification of some species of <i>Thiobacillus</i> to the newly designated
820	genera Acidithiobacillus gen. nov., Halothiobacillus gen. nov. and Thermithiobacillus gen.
821	nov. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 50: 511-516.
822	Kelly DP, Mason J, Wood AP (1987) Energy metabolism in chemolithotrophs. <u>In</u> : van Verseveld
823	H.W., Duine J.A. (eds) Microbial Growth on C1 Compounds, Proceedings of the 5th
824	International Symposium. Martinus Nijhoff: Dordrecht. 186-194.
825	Kingsbury JM, Barghoorn ES (1954) Silica gel as a microbiological medium: potentialities and a
826	new method of preparation. Appl Microbiol 2: 5-8.
827	Kumar S, Stecher G, Li M, Knyaz C, Tamura K (2018) MEGA X: molecular evolutionary genetics
828	analysis across computing platforms. Mol Biol Evol 35: 1547-1549.
829	LaCombe Barron J, Lueking DR (1990) Growth and maintenance of <i>Thiobacillus ferrooxidans</i> cells.
830	Appl Environ Microbiol 56 : 2801-2806.
831	Le SQ, Gascuel O (2008) An improved general amino acid replacement matrix. Mol Biol Evol 25:
832	1307-1320.

333	Leste-Lasserre P (2001) Sulfur allotrope chemistry. Ph.D Thesis, McGill University, Montreal,
334	Canada.
335	Lusty JR, Hughes MN, Kelly DP (2006) Inhibitory effects of sulfamic acid on three thiosulfate-
336	oxidizing chemolithotrophs. FEMS Microbiol Lett 264: 70-73.
337	Mahapatra SSR., Mishra AK (1984) Inhibition of iron oxidation by <i>Thiobacillus ferrooxidans</i> by
338	toxic metals and its alleviation by EDTA. Curr Microbiol 11: 1-6.
339	Mangold S, Rao Jonna V, Dopson M (2013) Response of Acidithiobacillus caldus toward suboptima
340	pH conditions. Extremophiles 17: 689-696.
341	Nancucheo I, Rowe OF, Hedrich S, Johnson DB (2016) Solid and liquid media for isolating and
342	cultivatig acidophilic and acid-tolerant sulfate-reducing bacteria. FEMS Microbiol Lett 363:
343	fnw083.
344	Negishi A, Muraoka T, Maeda T, Takeuchi F, Kanao T, Kamimura K, Sugio T (2005) Growth
345	inhibition by tungsten in the sulfur-oxidizing bacterium Acidithiobacillus thiooxidans. Biosci
346	Biotechnol Biochem 69: 2073-2080.
347	Onysko SJ, Kleinmann RLP, Erickson PM (1984) Ferrous iron oxidation by <i>Thiobacillus</i>
348	ferrooxidans: inhibition with benzoic acid, sorbic acid, and sodium lauryl sulfate. Appl
349	Environ Microbiol 48: 229-231.
350	Parker CD (1945) The corrosion of concrete. 1. The isolation of a species of bacterium associated
351	with the corrosion of concrete exposed to atmospheres containing hydrogen sulphide. Aust J
352	Exp Biol Med Sci 23: 81-90.
353	Parker CD, Temple KL (1957) Genus V. Thiobacillus Beijerinck, 1904. In: Breed RS, Murray EGD,
354	Smith NR (eds) Bergey's Manual of Determinative Bacteriology. Baltimore: Williams &
355	Wilkins Co. pp. 83-88.
356	Parker CT, Tindall BJ, Garrity GM (2019) International code of nomenclature of prokaryotes. <i>Int J</i>
357	Syst Evol Microbiol 69: S1-S111.
358	Pirt SJ (1975) <i>Principles of microbe and cell cultivation</i> . London: Blackwell Scientific Publications.

859	Schaeffer WI, Umbreit WW (1963) Phosphatidylinositol as a wetting agent in sulfur oxidation by
860	Thiobacillus thiooxidans. J Bacteriol 85 : 492-493.
861	Silver M, Lundgren DG (1968) The thiosulfate-oxidizing enzyme of Ferrobacillus ferrooxidans
862	(Thiobacillus ferrooxidans). Can J Biochem 46: 1215-1220.
863	Silverman MP & Lundgren DG (1959) Studies on the chemoautotrophic iron bacterium
864	Ferrobacillus ferrooxidans. I. An improved medium and a harvesting procedure for securing
865	high cell yields. J Bacteriol 77: 642-647.
866	Sisti F, Allegretti P, Donati E (1996) Reduction of dichromate by <i>Thiobacillus ferrooxidans</i> .
867	Biotechnol Lett 18: 1477-1480.
868	Starkey RL, Jones GE, Frederick LR (1956) Effects of medium agitation and wetting agents on
869	oxidation of sulphur by Thiobacillus thiooxidans. J Gen Microbiol 15: 329-334.
870	Steudel R, Eckert B (2003) Solid sulfur allotropes. Top Curr Chem 230: 1-79.
871	Temple KL, Colmer AR (1951) The autotrophic oxidation of iron by a new bacterium, <i>Thiobacillus</i>
872	ferrooxidans. J Bacteriol 62: 605-611.
873	Trüper HG, Madigan MT (1999) International committee on systematic bacteriology – subcommittee
874	on the taxonomy of phototrophic bacteria. Minutes of the meetings, 10 September 1997,
875	Vienna, Austria. Int J Syst Bacteriol 49: 925-926.
876	Tu Z, Guo C, Zhang T, Lu G, Wan J, Liao C, Dang Z (2017) Investigation of intermediate sulfur
877	species during pyrite oxidation in the presence and absence of Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans.
878	Hydrometallurgy 167: 58-65.
879	Tuovinen OH, Kelly DP (1973) Studies on the growth of Thiobacillus ferrooxidans: I. Use of
880	membrane filters and ferrous iron agar to determine viable numbers, and comparison with
881	¹⁴ CO ₂ -fixation and iron oxidation as measures of growth. <i>Arch Mikrobiol</i> 88 : 285-298.
882	Tuovinen OH, Niemelä SI, Gyllenberg HG (1971) Tolerance of <i>Thiobacillus ferrooxidans</i> to some
883	metals. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 37: 489-496.

	3
884	Tuovinen OH, Puhakka J, Hiltunen P, Dolan KM (1985) Silver toxicity to ferrous iron and pyrite
885	oxidation and its alleviation by yeast extract in cultures of Thiobacillus ferrooxidans.
886	Biotechnol Lett 7: 389-394.
887	Tuttle JH, Dugan PR (1976) Inhibition of growth, iron, and sulfur oxidation in <i>Thiobacillus</i>
888	ferrooxidans by simple organic compounds. Can J Microbiol 22: 719-730.
889	Umbreit WW, Vogel HR, Vogler KG (1942) The significance of fat in sulfur oxidation by
890	Thiobacillus thiooxidans. J Bacteriol 43: 141-148.
891	Valdés J, Pedroso I, Quatrini R, Dodson RJ, Tettelin H, Blake II R, Eisen JA, Holmes DS (2008)
892	Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans metabolism: from genome sequence to industrial applications
893	BMC Genomics 9: 597.
894	Vignais PM, Billoud B, Meyer J (2001) Classification and phylogeny of hydrogenases. FEMS
895	Microbiol Rev 25 : 455-501.
896	Waksman SA, Joffe JS (1922) Microorganisms concerned in the oxidation of sulfur in the soil. II.
897	The $Thiobacillus\ thiooxidans\ a$ new sulfur oxidizing organism isolated from the soil. J
898	Bacteriol 7: 239-256.
899	Wang R, Lin J-Q, Liu X-M, Pang X, Zhang C-J, Yang C-L, Gao X-Y, Lin C-M, Li Y-Q, Li Y, Lin J
900	Q, Chen L-X (2019) Sulfur oxidation in the acidophilic autotrophic Acidithiobacillus spp.
901	Front Microbiol 9: 3290.
902	Wood AP, Kelly DP. (1986) Chemolithotrophic metabolism of the newly-isolated moderately
903	thermophilic, obligately autotrophic <i>Thiobacillus tepidarius</i> . Arch. Microbiol. 144 : 71-77.
904	

Character	A. albertensis	A. caldus	A. concretivorus comb. nov.	A. ferridurans	A. ferriphilus	A. ferrivorans	A. ferrooxidans	A. thiooxidans
Origin of type strain	Soil near sulfur stockpile, Fox Creek, Alberta, Canada.	Coal spoil heap, Kingsbury Colliery, UK.	Decomposing sewer concrete, Melbourne, Australia.	Drainage water in uranium mine, Ningyo-Tohge, Tottori, Japan.	Acidic pool, Montserrat	Spoil heap drainage at disused copper mine, Norway.	Acid mine drainage from coal seam, Pittsburgh, PA, USA.	Compost of soil, phosphorite and sulfur, NJ, USA
16S rRNA gene identity to <i>A. thiooxidans</i> ATCC 19377 ^T	99.9	95.1	99.8	98.2	97.8	97.6	98.1	100
Cell size (µm)	$0.45 \times 1.2 \text{-} 1.5$	$0.7 \text{-} 0.8 \times 1.2 \text{-} 1.8$	0.5×1.0 -2.0	$N.D. \times 1.0-2.0$	<i>N.D.</i> × 1.0-2.0	$0.5 \times 1.6 - 2.4$	0.5 × 1.0	$0.5 \times 1.0 - 2.0$
Flagellation	Lophotrichous	Monotrichous	Monotrichous	v	Monotrichous	Monotrichous	Atrichous?*	Monotrichous
Carboxysomes	+	+	N.D.	N.D.	+	+	+	+
Intracellular inclusions:								
Sulfur	+	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	-
Volutin	-	N.D.	+	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	+	+
Poly-β-hydroxybutyrate	-	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	+	-
Electron donors:	•						•	
Elementary sulfur (S ₈)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Thiosulfate (S ₂ O ₃ ²⁻)	+	+	+	N.D.	N.D.	+	+	+
Tetrathionate (S ₄ O ₆ ²⁻)	+	+	N.D.	+	+	+	+	N.D.
Sulfide (S ²⁻)		+	+	N.D.	N.D.	+	N.D.	-
Ferrous iron (Fe ²⁺)	_	-	N.D.	+	+	+	+	_
Pyrite (FeS ₂)	_	_	N.D.	+	N.D.	+	+	_
Molecular hydrogen (H ₂)		+	N.D.	+	N.D.	v	+	N.D.
Ferric iron (Fe ³⁺) as terminal	-		- IV.D.	+	+	+	+	
electron acceptor	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-
Diazotrophy		_	N.D.	+	N.D.	+	+	
	[28-30]	32-52	10-37	[29]	[30]	4-37	10-37	18-37
Temperature range and [optimum] (°C)	[28-30]	[45]	[28]	[29]	[30]	[25-32]	[30-35]	[28-30]
pH range and [optimum]	2.0-4.5	1.0-3.5	-0.6-6.0	[2.1]	[2.0]	1.9-3.4	2.5-6.0	0.5-6.0
pri range and [optimum]	[3.5-4.0]	[2.0-2.5]	[2.0-4.0]			[2.5]	[2.5-5.8]	[2.0-3.5]
Dominant fatty acids	N.D.	N.D.	[S ₈ , pH c.4.4, 30°C]† C _{19:0} cyclo, C _{17:0} cyclo	[H ₂ , pH 2.0, 30°C] C _{19:0} cyclo ω8c,	[Fe ²⁺ , pH c.1.6, 30°C] C _{18:1} \omega7c, C _{16:1}	N.D.	[Fe ²⁺ , pH 2.1, 30°C] C _{18:1} ω7c	[S ₈ , pH c.4.4, 30°C] C _{19:0} cyclo
			$C_{16:0}, C_{12:0} $ $C_{14:0}$ 3-OH, $C_{16:1}$	$\begin{array}{c} C_{18:1}\omega 7c,C_{16:0},C_{16:1},\\ C_{17:0}cyclo,C_{12:0} \end{array}$	C _{18:1} 2-OH C _{14:0} 3-OH C _{16:0} , C _{12:0}		$C_{16:1}, C_{16:0} \ C_{19:0} \ cyclo \ \omega 8c \ C_{14:0}, C_{12:0}$	C _{17:0} cyclo C _{16:1} , C _{18:1} , C _{16:0} C _{14:0} 3-OH
Dominant polar lipids	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	PG, PE, ALs (3×)	AL, PL, PG	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
Genomic properties:				, , - (- 7)	, , -			***
G+C fraction (mol%)	52.5g	$61.4^g, 63.9^t$	N.D.	56.0-60.0 ^t	57.8-58.2 ^t	55.5 ^t	$58.8^g, 59.2^t$	53.2 ^g
Genome size (Mbp)	3.47	2.99	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	2.98-3.42§	2.98	3.02
Protein coding genes	3,671	2,980	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	3,125-3,606§	3,147	3,080
D-ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate	Form IAc	Form IAc (cbbLS)	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	Form IAc	Form IAc	Form IAc
carboxylase genes	(cbbLS)	Form II	11.2.	11.12.	11.12.	(cbbLS)‡	(cbbLS)	(cbbLS)
5.1,1400 801100	Form II	(cbbM)				Form II	Form II	Form II
	(cbbM)	(55011)				(cbbM)	(cbbM)	(cbbM)
Rusticyanin genes	-	_	N.D.	rusA‡	N.D.	rusB‡	rusA	-
Terminal oxidases:	1	1	1,12,		1,,,,,,,,,		, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	
Cytochrome <i>c</i> -oxidases	_	_	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	aa ₃ §	aa ₃	_
Ubiquinol oxidases	bo3, bd-I	bo3, bd-I	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	bo ₃ §	bo ₃ , bd-I	bo3, bd-I
Colquilloi Oxidases	003, 00-1	003, 00-1	1 v. D.	IV.D.	η.υ.	0038	003, 0u-1	003, 0u-1

- **Table I**. Curated properties of *Acidithiobacillus* spp. Data are curated from the original protologues and from the curation of Parker and Temple (1957). For cellular fatty acids, growth conditions are given in brackets, which also apply to polar lipids, if reported. Those reported for *A. concretivorans* comb. nov. and *A. thiooxidans* are from Katayama-Fujimura *et al.* (1982).
- Polar lipids: PG phosphatidylglycerol; PE phosphatidylethanolamine; AL aminolipid; PL phospholipid.
- * Some authors report *A. ferrooxidans* ATCC 23270^T as motile but the genome lacks flagellar genes and this particular strain has been shown as non-motile by some workers.
- † Data for A. concretivorus comb. nov. ATCC 15494 rather than type strain.

- ‡ Data from PCR based work (A. ferridurans, Hedrich and Johnson, 2013; A. ferrivorans, Hallberg et al. 2010)
- § Data based on A. ferrivorans YL15 and A. ferrivorans CF27 genomes.
- Superscripts on G+C fractions are: g from genome sequence; t thermal denaturation ($T_{\rm m}$).

Figure 1. Maximum likelihood tree of the *Acidithiobacillales* on the basis of 53 concatenated ribosomal protein gene sequences translated *in silico* into amino acyl sequences, pertaining to *rpsA-rpsU*, *rplA-rplF*, *rplL-rplX*, and *rpmA-rpmJ*. Gene concatamer sequences were downloaded *en bloc* from the ribosomal multilocus sequence typing (rMLST) database (http://pubmlst.org/rmlst) and were translated *in silico* and aligned using the MUSCLE algorithm (Edgar, 2004) in MEGA X (Kumar *et al.* 2018), per Boden *et al.* (2017*a,b*). The aligned data were model-tested in MEGA X on the basis of the lowest corrected Aikake information criterion (AICc, Hurvich and Tsai, 1989; Aikake, 1973). The outgroup (not shown) is the equivalent concatamer from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* DSM 50071^T (152515). Type strains of species are emboldened. Numbers in parentheses this legend and in the figure refer to genome accession numbers of each strain in the rMLST database. The tree was constructed in MEGA X with partial deletion of gaps (95 % cut-off), and the final analysis involved 5,766 aa. The model of Le and Gascuel (2008) was used with a discrete gamma distribution (5 categories, gamma parameter = 0.8351) with 18.88 % of sites evolutionarily invariant. Tree shown had the highest log likelihood (-47458.98). Branch lengths are proportional to the number of substitutions, the bar representing 0.05 substitutions per site. Bootstrap values at nodes are on the basis of 5,000 replications (values < 70 % are omitted for clarity).

[atb rMLST pretty.tif]