

Einfluss von Kohlenstoffdioxid auf mikrobielle Zellmembranen
beim *Modified Atmosphere Packaging* und Charakterisierung
capnotoleranter Mikroorganismen

Dissertation

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Ei kysyvä tieltä eksy

Wer nach dem Weg fragt, geht nicht verloren

– Finnisches Sprichwort

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PUBLIKATIONEN

VERÖFFENTLICHUNGEN, DIE BESTANDTEIL DIESER DISSERTATION SIND

Heidler von Heilborn, D., Reinmüller, J., Hözl, G., Meier-Kolthoff, J.P., Woehle, C., Marek, M., Hüttel, B., Lipski, A. (2021) ***Sphingomonas aliaeris* sp. nov., a new species isolated from pork steak packed under modified atmosphere.** International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 71. DOI: 10.1099/ijsem.0.004973.

Heidler von Heilborn, D., Nover, L.-L., Weber, M., Hözl, G., Gisch, N., Waldhans, C., Mittler, M., Kreyenschmidt, J., Woehle, C., Hüttel, B., Lipski, A. (2022) **Polar lipid characterization and description of *Chryseobacterium capnotolerans* sp. nov., isolated from high CO₂-containing atmosphere and emended descriptions of the genus *Chryseobacterium*, and the species *C. balustinum*, *C. daecheongense*, *C. formosense*, *C. gleum*, *C. indologenes*, *C. joostei*, *C. scophthalmum* and *C. ureilyticum*.** International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 72. DOI: 10.1099/ijsem.0.005372.

Heidler von Heilborn, D., Reinmüller, J., Yurkov, A., Stehle, P., Moeller, R., Lipski, A. (2023) **Fungi under Modified Atmosphere—The Effects of CO₂ Stress on Cell Membranes and Description of New Yeast *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* gen. nov., sp. nov.** Journal of Fungi; 9(10): 1031. DOI: 10.3390/jof9101031

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Flegler, A., Runzheimer, K., Kombeitz, V., Mänz, A.T., Heidler von Heilborn, D., Etzbach, L., Schieber, A., Hözl, G., Hüttel, B., Woehle, C., Lipski, A. (2020) ***Arthrobacter bussei* sp. nov., a pink-coloured organism isolated from cheese made of cow's milk.** International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 70, 3027–3036. DOI: 10.1099/ijsem.0.004125.

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ABKÜRZUNGSVERZEICHNIS

2-DC	Zweidimensionale Dünnschichtchromatographie
ANI	<i>Average Nucleotide Identity</i>
dddH	digitale DNA-DNA-Hybridisierung
DGTS	1,2-Diacylglycerol-3-O-4'-(N,N,N-trimethyl)-Homoserin
DMPE	Dimethylphosphatidylethanolamin
DPG	Diphosphatidylglycerol
EVOH	Ethylenvinylalkohol
GC-FID	Gaschromatographie mit Flammenionisationsdetektor
GC-MS	Gaschromatographie mit Massenspektrometrie
HPLC	<i>High Performance Liquid Chromatography</i>
ITS	<i>Internal Transcribed Spacer</i>
MAP	<i>Modified Atmosphere Packaging</i>
Mbp	Megabasenpaare
MHD	Monohexosyldiacylglycerol
MMPE	Monomethylphosphatidylethanolamin
OL	Ornithinlipid
OL-OH	Hydroxyliertes Ornithinlipid
OL-(OH) ₂	Zweifach hydroxyliertes Ornithinlipid
PC	Phosphatidylcholin
PE	Phosphatidylethanolamin
PET	Polyethylenterephthalat
PG	Phosphatidylglycerol
PI	Phosphatidylinositol
QTOF-MS	<i>Quadrupole Time-of-Flight Mass Spectrometry</i>
TSA	<i>Tryptic Soy Agar</i>
WAMT	<i>Weighted Average Melting Temperature</i>

KAPITEL 1 – EINLEITUNG

1.1 RELEVANTE ORGANISMEN IN DER LEBENSMITTELMIKROBIOLOGIE

Die Lebensmittelmikrobiologie ist ein Teilgebiet der Mikrobiologie, das sich mit der Untersuchung von Mikroorganismen in Lebensmitteln, wie Bakterien, Hefen, filamentösen Pilzen und Viren, und deren Auswirkungen auf die Lebensmittelqualität, -sicherheit und -konservierung beschäftigt und ist von großer Bedeutung für die öffentliche Gesundheit.

Zu den Interaktionen von Mikroorganismen mit Lebensmitteln zählen unter anderem die Herstellung dieser oder ihre Veredelung. So werden für die Herstellung von Produkten, wie etwa Joghurt oder Kefir, Milchsäurebakterien und Hefen genutzt oder für die Veredelung von Käse und Salami diverse Stämme filamentöser Pilze eingesetzt (Kok und Hutzins 2018; Ropars und Giraud 2022). Mikroorganismen können zur Fermentation von Lebensmitteln genutzt werden, wozu auch die Produktion von Alkohol mit Hilfe von *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, weiteren Hefen und Milchsäurebakterien gehört (Chilton *et al.* 2015). Mikroorganismen können darüber hinaus selbst als Lebensmittel dienen, wie beispielsweise Mikroalgen als Supplement oder Hefeextrakte als Brotaufstrich (Barkia *et al.* 2019; Mikkelsen *et al.* 2018), und ihr Konsum wird mit positivem Einfluss auf die menschliche Gesundheit assoziiert (Mikkelsen *et al.* 2018).

Eine große Relevanz kommt in der Lebensmittelmikrobiologie den Verderbniserregern zu, welche die sensorischen Eigenschaften von Produkten während der Lagerung negativ beeinflussen können. Dazu gehört zum Beispiel das Weichwerden von Gemüse durch Pektinasen der Bakterien *Pectobacterium carotovorum* und *Pseudomonas fluorescens* (Hao und Brackett 1994) sowie das Ranzigwerden von Butter und weiteren Milchprodukten, unter anderem durch Lipase-Aktivität von *Pseudomonas fragi* und *Pseudomonas fluorescens* (Azzara und Campbell 1992). Auch bereits fermentierte Produkte können durch Wachstum von Verderbniserregern an Qualität verlieren, wie etwa unerwünschte schweflige oder buttrige Fehlaromen in Bier, verursacht durch *Pectinatus* spp. und *Lacticaseibacillus casei* (Sakamoto und Konings 2003).

Aus gesundheitlicher Sicht sind toxinbildende Mikroorganismen für den Menschen von Bedeutung, deren produzierte Sekundärmetaboliten zu Vergiftungen führen können. Dazu gehören die Mykotoxine filamentöser Pilze, wie sie unter anderem von *Penicillium*- und *Aspergillus*-Spezies in Lebensmitteln produziert werden (Kure und Skaar 2019). Diese können schwerwiegende gesundheitliche Folgen, wie Karzinogenität oder Neuro-, Hepato- und Nephrotoxizität, für Menschen und Tiere haben (Pleaidin

et al. 2019). Weiterhin können bakterielle Toxine ein hohes gesundheitliches Risiko darstellen. So führen von *Staphylococcus aureus* gebildete Enterotoxine zu Übelkeit, Durchfall und Erbrechen (Argudín *et al.* 2010). Die Toxine anaerober Clostridien, wie das Enterotoxin von *Clostridium perfringens* und das Botulinumtoxin von *Clostridium botulinum*, können in Lebensmitteln gebildet werden und bei Menschen und Tieren Vergiftungen auslösen, die den Tod zur Folge haben können (Popoff und Bouvet 2009).

Besonders wichtig sind Pathogene, die in Form von Infektionen zu teilweise folgenschweren Erkrankungen führen. Zu den bekanntesten Lebensmittelpathogenen gehören *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella* spp., *Listeria monocytogenes* sowie *Campylobacter jejuni*, deren Infektionen verschiedene Krankheitsbilder auslösen und sogar zum Tode führen können (Begley und Hill 2015). Auch humanpathogene Hepatitis A- und E-Viren sowie Noroviren können über Lebensmittel, wie Meeresfrüchte oder Obst, übertragen werden (Stals *et al.* 2012).

Vor diesem Hintergrund ist die Gewährleistung der Lebensmittelsicherheit von höchster Priorität, um die Gesundheit von Verbrauchern und Tieren zu schützen. Der Gesetzgeber verlangt strenge Kontrollen und die quantitative sowie qualitative Überwachung von Mikroorganismen in Lebensmitteln. Die Einhaltung dieser Vorschriften ist für die Gewährleistung der Lebensmittelsicherheit und -qualität unerlässlich. Verschiedene Methoden der Konservierung, wie etwa Trocknen, Kühlen, Einfrieren, Pökeln, Zuckern und Räuchern (Jans *et al.* 2016), können dabei helfen, die mikrobielle Belastung von Lebensmitteln zu verringern und das Risiko für den Lebensmittelverderb oder für Erkrankungen zu minimieren. Vor allem Hitzesterilisation und Pasteurisation finden häufig Verwendung, aber auch UV-Strahlung, die insbesondere die Nukleinsäuren von Mikroorganismen schädigt, wird genutzt (Lado und Yousef 2002). Verfahren wie die Hochdruckbehandlung (*high pressure processing*) oder gepulste elektrische Felder (*pulsed electric field technology*) führen wiederum zu Schäden an Zellmembranstrukturen und deren Funktionalität (Lado und Yousef 2002). Zur Reduzierung der Keimzahlen im Lebensmittel werden auch Stoffe verwendet, die konservierende Eigenschaften besitzen, wie beispielsweise Polyphenole, Pigmente und ätherische Öle sowie Bacteriocine, einschließlich Nisin (Bensid *et al.* 2022; Nilsson *et al.* 2000). Ein weiterer essenzieller Faktor für die Konservierung von Lebensmitteln ist die Verpackung, die in der Regel chemischen, biologischen und physischen Schutz bietet (Duda-Chodak *et al.* 2023). Dazu gehört der Schutz vor sekundärer Kontamination, Umwelteinflüssen, mechanischem Schaden durch Lagerung und Transport, Licht, Sauerstoff, UV-Strahlung oder Feuchtigkeit (Duda-Chodak *et al.* 2023).

1.2 SCHUTZGASATMOSPHÄREN IM LEBENSMITTELBEREICH

Die Verpackung von Lebensmitteln hat einen großen Einfluss auf ihre Qualität und Sicherheit. Dabei können Lebensmittel vakuumiert und somit ohne Anwesenheit von Sauerstoff verpackt und dadurch insbesondere das Wachstum aerober Mikroorganismen limitiert werden (Doulgeraki *et al.* 2012). Allerdings ermöglicht diese Methode im Gegenzug Anaerobiern das Wachstum, wie dem Verderbniserreger *Clostridium estertheticum*, welcher zu hohen wirtschaftlichen Schäden, insbesondere in der Fleischindustrie, führt (Wambui und Stephan 2019). Eine alternative Methode zur Verpackung von Lebensmitteln, die eine flexiblere Handhabung in Hinblick auf das Wachstum sowohl aerober als auch anaerober Mikroorganismen ermöglicht, ist die Verpackung unter Schutzgasatmosphäre.

Die Verpackung unter Schutzgas – oder auch modifizierter Atmosphäre (*Modified Atmosphere Packaging, MAP*) – ist eine Lebensmittelverpackungstechnik, bei der die Zusammensetzung der Gase in der Verpackung, die ein Lebensmittelprodukt umgibt, verändert wird, um dessen Haltbarkeit zu verlängern und die Produktqualität zu erhalten. Daraus kann eine erhöhte „Regalleben“ (*shelf life*) der Produkte resultieren und somit die Abfallmenge von Lebensmitteln verringert sowie die Lebensmittelsicherheit für den Verbraucher erhöht werden (Devlieghere *et al.* 1998). Die wichtigsten Gase, die beim MAP verwendet werden, sind Sauerstoff (O_2), Kohlenstoffdioxid (CO_2) und Stickstoff (N_2). Darüber hinaus werden Argon (Ar) und weitere Edelgase genutzt (Herbert *et al.* 2013; Opara *et al.* 2019). In der Forschung werden andere Gase wie Distickstoffmonoxid (N_2O , Lachgas) oder Schwefeldioxid (SO_2) getestet (Church 1994; Rocculi *et al.* 2005; Mullan und McDowell 2011). Die Gase werden anteilig so eingestellt, dass eine Umgebung entsteht, die das Wachstum von Mikroorganismen hemmt und die Oxidation der Lebensmittel verhindert. Die unterschiedlichen Gase übernehmen hierbei verschiedene Funktionen.

Während N_2 überwiegend als inertes Füllgas eingesetzt wird, das nur geringe Diffusionsfähigkeit gegenüber Kunststoffen besitzt und die Verpackungen vor dem Kollabieren bewahrt, wird O_2 zur Kontrolle des anaeroben und aeroben mikrobiellen Wachstums und der Aufrechterhaltung der Farbe in rotem Fleisch verwendet (Cooksey 2014; Farber 1991). Stickstoff wird beim MAP darüber hinaus genutzt, um Sauerstoff zu verdrängen und die Produktveränderungen durch oxidative Prozesse, wie z. B. Ranzigwerden, zu inhibieren (Farber 1991). Das O_2 wiederum reagiert mit Myoglobin sowie Hämoglobin in rotem Fleisch und bildet erwünschtes Oxymyoglobin und Oxyhämoglobin – beim Vakuumverpacken gibt vor allem das Deoxymyoglobin die purpurne Farbe vor, die beim Konsumenten weniger beliebt ist (Cornforth und Hunt 2008). In den USA und ehemals auch in Norwegen wurde Kohlenstoff-

monoxid (CO) als eine Alternative zu O₂ verwendet, welches mit Myoglobin zum kirschartigen Carboxymyoglobin reagiert (Cornforth und Hunt 2008; Farber 1991). Nachteile des Kohlenstoffmonoxids (aber auch von O₂) beim MAP sind, dass Produkte auch trotz hoher mikrobieller Keimbela stung noch frisch und farblich ansprechend aussehen können. Zudem besteht eine negative Assoziation seitens des Konsumenten gegenüber CO, da es sich um ein giftiges Gas handelt, welches im MAP-Bereich jedoch nur in sehr geringen Konzentrationen verwendet wird (Cornforth und Hunt 2008). Aus mikrobiologischer Sicht ist insbesondere das CO₂ ein bedeutendes Gas beim MAP. Es ist für den antimikrobiellen Effekt CO₂-haltiger Schutzgasatmosphären verantwortlich, wo es sich sowohl in der wässrigen, als auch der fettigen Phase der Produkte löst (Devlieghere *et al.* 1998; Cooksey 2014). Dabei steigt der Effekt, den das CO₂ auf die Mikroorganismen hat, mit sinkender Temperatur, was insbesondere auf die verbesserte Löslichkeit des Kohlenstoffdioxids bei niedrigen Temperaturen zurückzuführen ist (Daniels *et al.* 1985; Gill und Tan 1979). Neben der Temperatur haben auch der pH-Wert, die Wasseraktivität, das verwendete Wachstumsmedium sowie die jeweiligen Mikroorganismen und ihre Wachstumsphase einen Einfluss auf den inhibitorischen Effekt von CO₂ (Farber 1991). Es wurde eine höhere Effektivität von MAP mit CO₂ im Vergleich zum Vakuumverpacken hinsichtlich der Reduktion der Gesamtkeimzahl und weiterer spezifischer Bakteriengruppen, wie Milchsäurebakterien, *Brochothrix thermosphacta* und Salmonellen, festgestellt (Nissen *et al.* 1996; Doulgeraki *et al.* 2012; Djordjević *et al.* 2018). Bei den Organismen wurde ein starker Wiederanstieg des Wachstums beobachtet, nachdem die Produkte aus der CO₂-haltigen Atmosphäre an die Luft überführt wurden, was unter anderem relevant für den Verkauf von zuvor verpacktem Fleisch in Auslagen ist (Nissen *et al.* 1996). In Kombination mit dem O₂-Gehalt in modifizierten Atmosphären ermöglicht die Verwendung von CO₂ somit die gezielte Einschränkung des Wachstums verschiedener Mikroorganismengruppen, darunter Aerobier und Anaerobier, in Lebensmittelmatrices.

Es gibt keine gesetzlich festgelegten Gaszusammensetzungen, die für die Verpackung der Lebensmittel verpflichtend sind – die gewählten Gaszusammensetzungen variieren je nach Produkt und Hersteller. Für das Verpacken von rotem Fleisch ist die Kombination von 80 % O₂ und 20 % CO₂ eine häufig genutzte Atmosphärenzusammensetzung (Belcher 2006; Church 1994), während für Geflügel beispielsweise Gaskombinationen von 5 % O₂, 10 % CO₂ und 85 % N₂ verwendet werden (Byrd *et al.* 2011). Besonders fetthaltige Lebensmittel werden wegen der oxidativen Eigenschaften des Sauerstoffs auch ohne diesen verpackt, wie etwa Speck mit 35 % CO₂ und 65 % N₂ (Church 1994) oder fetriger Fisch mit 40 % CO₂ und 60 % N₂ (Farber 1991). Insbesondere bei fetthaltigen Lebensmitteln, in denen sich CO₂ leicht in der Fettphase lösen kann, können keine noch höheren CO₂-Konzentrationen verwendet werden, da es zum Kollabieren der Verpackung kommen kann (Devlieghere *et al.* 1998). Im Falle von Obst

und Gemüse werden zur Konservierung häufig die O₂-Konzentrationen verringert und die von CO₂ angehoben, um deren Atmung zu limitieren (Mullan und McDowell 2011).

Für die Wirkung des MAP sind auch die Verpackungsmaterialien von hoher Relevanz. Diese werden in der Regel aus verschiedenen Kunststoffen hergestellt, je nach Anwendungsgebiet Polyethylen, Polyamid, Polypropylen, Polyvinylchlorid, Polyvinylidenchlorid, Polyethylenterephthalat (PET) und Ethylenvinylalkohol (EVOH). Dabei werden die Materialien als Verbundschicht auch kombiniert genutzt und besitzen jeweils unterschiedliche Vor- und Nachteile, wie Kosten, Gaspermeabilität, Wasserpermeabilität, Flexibilität und Dicke (McMillin 2008). Die Verpackungsfolien können darüber hinaus auch mit antimikrobiellen Stoffen beschichtet werden, um zusätzlich das Wachstum von Mikroorganismen zu hemmen (La Storia *et al.* 2008). Von den synthetischen Polymeren wird im Bereich der Verpackungen am häufigsten Polyethylen verwendet, bei denen es wegen seines niedrigen Schmelzpunktes als Folie zum Versiegeln von Schalen unter Hitzeeinwirkung genutzt wird (Mullan und McDowell 2011). Als hydrophobes Material besitzt es eine hohe Dichtigkeit gegenüber Feuchtigkeit, hat jedoch eine erhöhte Gas-Transmissionsrate (McMillin 2008). Polypropylen ist vielfältig einsetzbar und kann sowohl in flexibler, fester oder halbfester Struktur angewendet werden, beim MAP in der Regel in Form von festen Basisschalen (Mullan und McDowell 2011). Es ist ebenfalls wasserdicht, besitzt allerdings keine hohe Dichtigkeit gegenüber Gas, was jedoch mit der Materialdicke oder durch das Kombinieren mit gasdichten Komponenten, wie Polyamid, EVOH und PET, kompensiert werden kann (Mullan und McDowell 2011; McMillin 2008). Auch an biologisch abbaubaren oder nicht-synthetischen Verpackungstoffen, wie Biopolymeren aus Pilz-Exopolysacchariden und Polylactiden, wird zunehmend geforscht (Cutter 2006).

Bei dem MAP mit CO₂ handelt es sich um eine effektive Methode zum Verpacken von Lebensmitteln, mit der die Produkte nicht nur vor physischen Schäden bewahrt, sondern auch länger haltbar gemacht werden können – mit der Folge, dass das Regalleben des Lebensmittels erhöht wird. Darüber hinaus können die Gaszusammensetzungen insbesondere mit Hilfe des Kohlenstoffdioxids für jedes Produkt individuell auf jeweilige potentielle Verderbniserreger und Pathogene abgestimmt werden. Es werden jedoch nicht alle Mikroorganismen gleichermaßen gut in ihrem Wachstum gehemmt. Manche Organismen benötigen für ihr Wachstum sogar CO₂ oder tolerieren hohe Konzentrationen dessen. Zu solchen Organismen zählen die Capnophilen und Capnotoleranten.

1.3 CAPNOPHILE UND CAPNOTOLERANTE MIKROORGANISMEN

Capnophile und capnotolerante Mikroorganismen sind sogenannte Extremophile, also an extreme Bedingungen angepasste Organismen, die in der Lage sind, phänotypisch betrachtet in Umgebungen mit

erhöhtem CO₂-Gehalt zu wachsen und im Falle der Capnophilen diese sogar benötigen. Der Begriff leitet sich aus dem griechischen Wort *kapnos* für Rauch ab und wird in der Biologie auch für Kohlenstoffdioxid verwendet. Es gibt keine Definition für den Grenzwert, ab dem ein Organismus als capnotolerant oder capnophil betrachtet wird. Ein erhöhter Wert kann hierbei jedoch bereits ein Atmosphärenanteil von 1 % sein. Dieser war beispielsweise bei dem aus Ameisendärmen (*Cephalotes rohweri* und *Cephalotes varians*) isolierten Bakterium *Cephaloticoccus capnophilus* als Wachstumsbedingung nötig, was der 25-fachen CO₂-Konzentration der normalen Atmosphäre entspricht (Lin *et al.* 2016; Itadani *et al.* 2016). Diese setzt sich aus 21 % O₂, 78 % N₂, 0,9 % Ar und 0,1 % aus anderen Gasen (Catling und Zahnle 2020) – davon 0,04 % CO₂ mit steigender Tendenz (Itadani *et al.* 2016) – zusammen.

Bei Capnophilen und Capnotoleranten handelt es sich nicht um eine einzelne taxonomische Gruppe von Mikroorganismen, sie sind nicht oder nur in einzelnen Fällen miteinander verwandt. Sie können in den unterschiedlichsten Lebensräumen gefunden werden. Dazu gehören anthropogene Lebensräume, wie Lebensmittel, die unter stark CO₂-haltiger Atmosphäre verpackt sind oder auch Räumlichkeiten, die aufgrund der Limitierung technischer Sauerstoffsysteme CO₂ in höheren Konzentrationen anreichern, wie beispielsweise die *International Space Station* (ISS) und die Raumstation Apollo 13 (Law *et al.* 2014). Auch natürliche Lebensräume mit hohem CO₂-Gehalt existieren an verschiedenen Orten auf der Welt, wie etwa Mofetten und Geysire, aus denen bereits diverse Bakterien und Hefen, einschließlich neuer Spezies, isoliert worden sind (Šibanc *et al.* 2018; Santillan *et al.* 2015). Bei Mofetten handelt es sich um vulkanische Formationen, aus denen überwiegend CO₂ aus dem Erdinneren austritt. Auch räumlich kleine Habitate („*microenvironments*“), wie der menschliche Rachenraum, in dem das Parodontitis-auslösende Bakterium *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans* vorkommt (Nørskov-Lauritsen und Kilian 2006), gehören dazu. Arten der Gattung *Aggregatibacter* benötigen 5-10 % CO₂ um zu wachsen und sind somit capnophil (Nørskov-Lauritsen und Kilian 2006). Es wurde nachgewiesen, dass Vertreter der Gattung *Capnocytophaga*, die ebenfalls überwiegend aus der menschlichen Mundhöhle isoliert wurden, mit ihrem strikt fermentativen Metabolismus abhängig von CO₂-Präsenz sind (Leadbetter *et al.* 1979). Neben den eingangs erwähnten Ameisendärmen (Lin *et al.* 2016), gehören auch die Hautporen von Amphibien zu solchen „*microenvironments*“. Diese geben metabolisches CO₂ ab und weisen somit erhöhte Konzentrationen auf. Aus solchen Poren wurde das capnophile Bakterium *Janthinobacterium lividum* isoliert (Valdes *et al.* 2015). Aus dem Reich der Pilze sind insbesondere xylorophe Basidiomyceten als capnotolerant oder capnophil beschrieben. Diese leben in Gehölzen, sind dort teilweise CO₂-Konzentrationen von bis zu 18-19 % ausgesetzt sind und zeigen auch bei *in vitro*-Bedingungen von 100 % CO₂-Atmosphäre noch Wachstum (Mukhin und Diyarova 2022).

Im Lebensmittelsektor spielen insbesondere die zu den *Epsilonproteobacteria* gehörenden Arten *Campylobacter jejuni* und *Helicobacter pylori* als capnophile Pathogene eine wichtige Rolle (St Maurice *et al.* 2007). Diese Organismen können beim Menschen im Falle von *H. pylori* Magenerkrankungen, wie Magengeschwüre und Gastritis, und im Falle von *C. jejuni* eine bakterielle Enteritis auslösen (St Maurice *et al.* 2007). Einer der bekanntesten capnotoleranten Verderbniserreger von Lebensmitteln ist *Brochothrix thermosphacta* (Pin *et al.* 2002). Dieser sorgt für starke sensorische Veränderungen in Lebensmitteln, insbesondere in Fleischprodukten (Greer und Dilts 2002), und wächst auch noch bei Temperaturen von 2 °C unter CO₂-angereicherter modifizierter Atmosphäre (La Hoz *et al.* 2000). Darüber hinaus wurden capnophile sowie capnotolerante *Lactobacillus*-Stämme beschrieben (Santillan *et al.* 2015; Bringel *et al.* 2008). Insbesondere heterofermentative Milchsäurebakterien sind aufgrund ihres Metabolismus erhöhten Konzentrationen von CO₂ ausgesetzt und häufige Besiedler von Lebensmitteln, die unter CO₂-haltiger modifizierter Atmosphäre verpackt wurden (Stiles 1996; Zaunmüller *et al.* 2006). Basierend auf ihrer Fähigkeit der alkoholischen Gärung und der daraus resultierenden Produktion von CO₂, sind auch viele, insbesondere lebensmittelassoziierte, Hefespezies in der Lage, bei erhöhter CO₂-Präsenz zu wachsen (Hazelwood *et al.* 2008).

Die Datenlage zu Capnophilen und Capnotoleranten ist generell gering, wobei es an Aufklärung der phäno- sowie genotypischen Anpassungsmechanismen fehlt. Bei einer Studie mit *Streptococcus pneumoniae*-Stämmen wurden 8 % der Isolate als capnophil charakterisiert und diese unterschieden sich von den Nicht-Capnophilen durch eine Mutation im Gen *murF*. Dieses kodiert für die MurF UDP-MurNAc-Pentapeptid-Synthetase, welche wiederum ein essenzielles Enzym der Zellwandbiogenese ist (Burghout *et al.* 2013). Die Expression dieses veränderten Gens resultiert in einer Aminosäuresubstitution im Protein. Eine Expression des mutierten Gens in nicht-capnophilen Stämmen führt dazu, dass diese einen capnophilen Phänotyp aufweisen (Burghout *et al.* 2013). Diese Veränderung wurde von den Autoren als Adaptation an potentielle Wirtswechsel des Bakteriums gedeutet. Bei dem bereits erwähnten *Janthinobacterium lividum* konnte bei einem capnophilen Stamm ein erhöhtes Vorkommen von Enzymen festgestellt werden, die CO₂-Fixierung ermöglichen (Valdes *et al.* 2015). Diese kommen normalerweise in methanogenen Mikroorganismen vor und können dort CO₂ zu Methan reduzieren, wodurch die Enzyme bei erhöhten CO₂-Konzentrationen den Nutzen eines zusätzlich vorkommenden Elektronenakzeptors hätten (Valdes *et al.* 2015). In *C. jejuni* und *H. pylori* wurde nachgewiesen, dass die Flavodoxin-Chinon-Reduktase, die hochkonserviert bei Vertretern der *Epsilonproteobacteria* vor kommt, an Redoxaktivitäten beteiligt ist und die Pyruvat-abhängige Produktion von NADPH katalysiert (St Maurice *et al.* 2007). Durch die starke Präsenz von CO₂ im Gastrointestinaltrakt wird angenommen, dass *C. jejuni* und *H. pylori* die Fähigkeit entwickelt haben, dieses zu nutzen. Die Autoren vermuten,

dass insbesondere bei *H. pylori* und anderen capnophilen Vertretern der *Epsilonproteobacteria* Pyruvat durch CO₂-Fixierung gebildet wird. Dabei soll es sich um die Hauptroute der Kohlenstoffassimilation bei dieser Gruppe von Mikroorganismen handeln und die Flavodoxin-Chinon-Reduktase im Kreislauf von essenzieller Bedeutung sein (St Maurice *et al.* 2007). Aufgrund des breiten genannten Anpassungs-spektrums und der unterschiedlichen Hypothesen ist es realistisch, dass diverse Bakterientaxa sich auch durch unterschiedliche Strategien an erhöhte CO₂-Präsenz anpassen. Problematisch sind capno-tolerante Mikroorganismen im Bereich der Lebensmittelmikrobiologie, wenn sie zusätzlich in der Lage sind, bei niedrigen Temperaturen zu wachsen, welche bei der Lagerung vieler Lebensmitteln notwen-dig sind. Diese Fähigkeit wird als Psychrotoleranz bezeichnet und unterschiedlich definiert (Morita 1975). Grundsätzlich sollten jedoch jene Mikroorganismen noch als psychrotolerant betrachtet wer-den, die bei 10 °C (und darunter) wachsen können (Selbmann *et al.* 2010).

Einige artspezifische Anpassungen wurden bereits erwähnt. Ein weiterer und Spezies-übergreifender, wichtiger Faktor für das Verständnis der Interaktion von CO₂ mit Mikroorganismen, ist die Zellmem-bran, die auch bei der Anpassung an niedrige Temperaturen und andere Stressoren von Relevanz ist.

1.4 PLASTIZITÄT MIKROBIELLER ZELLMEMBRANEN

Zellmembranen sind essenziell für den Schutz sowie die Regulierung des Materialflusses in und aus der Zelle und sind wichtig für die Interaktion mit anderen Zellen. Grundsätzlich bestehen die Membranen aus einer Phospholipid-Doppelschicht, die überwiegend aus polaren Lipiden mit jeweils zwei Fettsäu-ren besteht, welche die Viskosität der Membran bestimmen (Zhang und Rock 2008). Darüber hinaus sind in den Membranen Proteine enthalten, die eine Vielzahl von Funktionen erfüllen, darunter den Transport von Molekülen durch die Membran, enzymatische Reaktionen und strukturelle Unterstüt-zung (Strahl und Errington 2017). Die Struktur von Zellmembranen wird häufig mit Hilfe des Flüssig-Mosaik-Modells beschrieben. Dieses Modell geht davon aus, dass die Membran nicht statisch ist, son-dern vielmehr aus einer dynamischen, flüssigkeitsähnlichen Doppelschicht besteht, in der sich Lipide und Proteine seitlich bewegen können (Singer und Nicolson 1972).

Die spezifische Struktur der mikrobiellen Zellmembranen variiert je nach Mikroorganismus. So sind in den Membranen vieler Gram-positiver Bakterien Lipoteichonsäuren über Glykolipide verankert, wäh-rend bei Gram-negativen Bakterien Lipopolysaccharide vorkommen. Pilze besitzen meist Ergosterol, aber auch andere Sterole, wie Lanosterol oder Campesterol, in ihren Membranen, die unter anderem der Stabilität und Fluidität der Membran dienen und für Interaktionen mit anderen Organismen von Relevanz sind (Siebers *et al.* 2016). Einige Bakterien können Hopanoide enthalten, die strukturell ähn-

lich zu Sterolen sind, sich aber funktionell von eukaryotischen Sterolen unterscheiden. Elektronen-transportketten und Atmungsenzyme befinden sich in der bakteriellen Zellmembran, während sie bei Pilzzellen in den Mitochondrien vorliegen. Polare Lipide, die häufig in Pilzen vorkommen sind Phosphatidylcholin (PC), Phosphatidylethanolamin (PE), Phosphatidylglycerol (PG), Diphosphatidylglycerol (DPG, auch Cardiolipin) und Phosphatidylserin, aber auch Sphingolipide sind präsent (Siebers *et al.* 2016). Bei Bakterien sind PE, PG und DPG die hauptsächlich vorkommenden Lipide, auch Glykolipide sind insbesondere bei Gram-positiven Bakterien häufig vorhanden (Siebers *et al.* 2016). Als Hauptfettsäuren kommen bei Pilzen Palmitin- ($C_{16:0}$), Stearin- ($C_{18:0}$) und deren ungesättigte Derivate Palmitolein- ($C_{16:1}$ cis 9), Öl- ($C_{18:1}$ cis 9), Linol- ($C_{18:2}$ cis 9, 12) und Linolensäure ($C_{18:3}$ cis 9, 12, 15) vor (Suutari 1995). Bei Bakterien hingegen sind mehrfach ungesättigte Fettsäuren selten, stattdessen finden neben den geradkettigen Fettsäuren, wie $C_{16:0}$, $C_{18:0}$, $C_{16:1}$ cis 9 und $C_{18:1}$ cis 9 auch *iso*- und *anteiso*-verzweigte sowie zyklisierte Fettsäuren weite Verbreitung (Kaneda 1991). Darüber hinaus sind hydroxylierte Fettsäuren bei einigen Familien präsent (Vandamme *et al.* 1994a; Busse *et al.* 1999).

Hier entstand die Hypothese, dass auch die Anpassung an CO_2 -Stress über die Membran erfolgen kann. In der Hinsicht ist noch nicht vollständig geklärt, womit die antimikrobielle Wirkung des Kohlenstoffdioxids zusammenhängt, es wird allerdings beschrieben, dass es sich womöglich um ein komplexes Zusammenspiel mehrerer Reaktionen handelt. Die Zellmembran ist Bestandteil vieler Hypothesen zum Wirkmechanismus von CO_2 (Garcia-Gonzalez *et al.* 2007). Dazu gehören eine durch CO_2 -Moleküle verursachte strukturelle Störung der Phospholipide in der Zellmembran, die durch die Fähigkeit des Kohlenstoffdioxids, sich in Wasser und Fett zu lösen, begünstigt wird (Farber 1991; Simon und Gutknecht 1980), sowie die strukturelle und funktionelle Änderung oder Schädigung der Membranordnung (Garcia-Gonzalez *et al.* 2007). Das Lösen von CO_2 in den Lipidbestandteilen der Membran wird auch als Anästhesie-Effekt (*anaesthesia effect*) bezeichnet – ein Verlust der Membranordnung durch Einbau oder Diffusion fremder Moleküle (Jones und Greenfield 1982; Isenschmid *et al.* 1995). In einer Forschungsarbeit wurde die Löslichkeit von CO_2 in unterschiedlichen Lipidmolekülen beispielsweise mit 0,3 bis 0,5g/g Lipid angegeben (Sousa *et al.* 2006). Dabei löst es sich besser in Lipiden als Krypton, jedoch schlechter als Xenon, wobei die Löslichkeit mit sinkender Temperatur zunimmt (Yeh und Peterson 1963). Dieser Umstand der Lipidlöslichkeit begründet die grundsätzliche Relevanz mikrobieller Zellmembranen in Hinblick auf CO_2 -Effekte. Darüber hinaus bewirkt CO_2 ein Absinken des intra- und extrazellulären pH-Werts (Garcia-Gonzalez *et al.* 2007). Dies führt zu einer Hemmung des mikrobiellen Wachstums, unter anderem aufgrund der pH-Optima einiger essenzieller Enzyme beim Metabolismus, und einem erhöhten Energieverbrauch zur Aufrechterhaltung der pH-Homöostase (Garcia-Gonzalez *et al.* 2007; Hutkins und Nannen 1993).

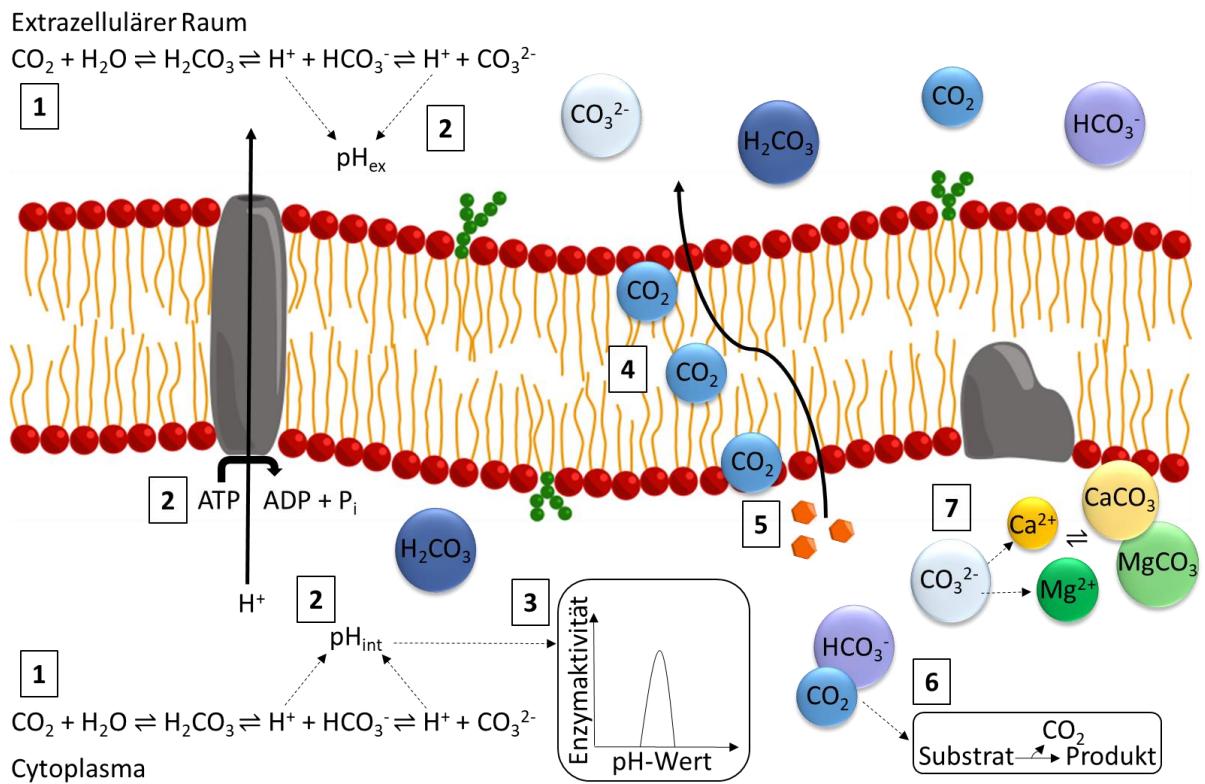


Abbildung 1: Darstellung der möglichen Wirkkette von CO_2 innerhalb der Zellmembran. Dargestellt sind Membranlipide mit Fettsäuren, H^+ -ATPase, ein integrales Membranprotein sowie verschiedene Moleküle. Die Abbildung ist angelehnt an die Veröffentlichung von Garcia-Gonzalez et al. (2007). Die einzelnen Schritte sind im Fließtext erläutert.

Abbildung 1 orientiert sich an der Veröffentlichung von Garcia-Gonzalez et al. (2007) und stellt die möglichen Schritte des bakteriziden Mechanismus durch CO_2 zusammenfassend dar. Die Schritte verfolgen keine chronologische Ordnung, sondern könnten in Teilen sowohl parallel als auch konsekutiv in den Zellen ablaufen. Beginnend mit Schritt 1 wird die Lösung des Kohlenstoffdioxids im flüssigen Medium und die Dissoziation in Carbonsäure (H_2CO_3), Bicarbonat (HCO_3^-) und Carbonat (CO_3^{2-}) dargestellt. Schritt 2 demonstriert, wie der pH-Wert im intra- und extrazellulären Raum durch die freien H^+ -Protonen absinkt. Dem wirkt die dargestellte H^+ -ATPase zur Aufrechterhaltung der Homöostase unter Aufwendung von Energie entgegen (Hutkins und Nannen 1993). Es wurde jedoch festgestellt, dass die H^+ -ATPase trotz der Inhibition der Zellenzahlen durch überkritisches – also bei erhöhtem Druck und erhöhter Temperatur flüssig vorliegendes – CO_2 weiterhin effektiv arbeiten kann (Hong und Pyung 2001). Viele der Forschungsarbeiten auf dem Gebiet beziehen sich auf überkritisches CO_2 und lassen sich daher nur bedingt auf CO_2 im MAP übertragen. Schritt 3 demonstriert die Inaktivierung von Schlüsselenzymen aufgrund der Verschiebung des intrazellulären pH-Wertes. Schritt 4 stellt die Diffusion von CO_2 in und durch die Membran sowie die mögliche Akkumulation dar (Isenschmid et al. 1995), die zu einer Störung der Membranordnung, einschließlich der Fettsäuren und polaren Lipide führen kann. In

Schritt 5 ist das mögliche CO₂-katalysierte Herauslösen von wichtigen Molekülen, wie z. B. Phospholipiden aus der Zelle dargestellt. Auch der Verlust von Mg²⁺- und K⁺-Ionen durch Leckage wurde festgestellt (Hong und Pyung 2001). Schritt 6 stellt die mögliche Inhibition oder Stimulation metabolischer Reaktionen durch CO₂ dar, da es in diesen als Substrat fungieren kann (Garcia-Gonzalez *et al.* 2007). Es konnte gezeigt werden, dass auch HCO₃⁻ verschiedene Enzyme stimuliert oder inhibiert (Jones und Greenfield 1982). Schritt 7 stellt abschließend die Bildung von CaCO₃ und MgCO₃ aus CO₃²⁻ und den divalenten Kationen Ca²⁺ und Mg²⁺ dar. Diese Elektrolyte wirken membranstabilisierend wirken, regulieren osmotische Reaktionen und sind damit wichtige Bestandteile der Membran (Garcia-Gonzalez *et al.* 2007).

Die Komposition der Membran ist nicht zwangsläufig innerhalb gleicher Spezies identisch, bei einzelnen Stämmen innerhalb einer Art kann es zu Differenzen kommen, was beispielsweise für die polaren Lipidmuster und die Fettsäureprofile gilt (Rilfors *et al.* 1978). Auch abweichende Umwelt- und Anzuchtparameter sind dafür von Relevanz, wie an der verstärkten Bildung von – teilweise sogar neuartigen – Glykolipiden bei Phosphatmangel gezeigt werden konnte (Benning *et al.* 1995; Geiger *et al.* 1999). Der pH-Wert scheint ebenfalls einen Einfluss auf die Bildung polarer Lipide, und somit auch die Fluidität der bakteriellen Zellmembran, zu haben. Bei dem Bakterium *Rhizobium tropici* wurde ein Operon, auf dem die Gene *lpiA* und *atvA* liegen, transkriptionell induziert, nachdem der Organismus mit Säure gestresst wurde (Vinuesa *et al.* 2003). Das Operon kodiert für die LpiA-LPG-Synthase, die verantwortlich für die Bildung von einem aminoacylierten PG, dem Lysyl-Phosphatidylglycerol, ist (Sohlenkamp *et al.* 2007). Bei *Staphylococcus aureus* und *Staphylococcus xylosus* wurde eine gesteigerte Virulenz durch eine erhöhte Lysisierung des PG nachgewiesen (Peschel *et al.* 2001), was zeigt, dass polare Lipide über die Regulierung der Plastizität der Membran hinaus weitere wichtige Funktionen in Bakterien erfüllen. Das Fehlen verschiedener polarer Lipide, wie beispielsweise hydroxylierter Ornithinlipide bei *Rhizobium tropici*, kann zu Anfälligkeit gegenüber Säure- und Temperaturstress führen (Vences-Guzmán *et al.* 2011). Auch bei Pilzen ist der polare Lipid-Haushalt von erheblicher Bedeutung bei der Stressadaptation (Beccaccioli *et al.* 2019), wie etwa bei Anaerobiose bei Hefen, die in veränderten Lipidmustern und einem verringerten Ergosterol-Gehalt resultiert (Tesnière 2019). Ethanol- und Nährstoffstress führen ebenfalls zu einer Reaktion durch veränderte Membranzusammensetzungen bei Pilzen (Tesnière 2019). Diese Veränderungen schließen bei Hefen im Falle von Nährstoffstress die Verhältnisse von C_{16:0} und ungesättigten Fettsäuren gegenüber dem Fettsäure-Gesamtgehalt mit ein und sind teilweise Stamm-spezifisch (Mannazzu *et al.* 2008). Anpassungen im Fettsäureprofil werden von Bakterien und Pilzen als Adaptation an unterschiedliche Umweltfaktoren genutzt. Verschiedene Fettsäuren haben hierbei jeweils verringrunden oder erhöhenden Einfluss auf die Membranfluidität, wie

beispielsweise die Fettsäuren C_{16:0} (verringernd) und C_{18:1} cis 11 (erhöhend), was auf ihre Struktur und somit letztlich auch ihren Schmelzpunkt zurückzuführen ist (Zhang und Rock 2008; Knothe und Dunn 2009). Bei Bakterien dienen Anpassungen der Fettsäurezusammensetzung bei Temperaturveränderungen der Gewährleistung der Membranfluidität und sind auch effektiver als Veränderungen in der polaren Kopfgruppe (Russell 1984). Eine der häufigsten Veränderungen ist hierbei die Zunahme von einfach ungesättigten Fettsäuren gegenüber gesättigten Fettsäuren sowie eine Verringerung der durchschnittlichen Kettenlänge nach Temperaturverringerung (Russell 1984). Auch die Zunahme an verzweigten Fettsäuren und eine Abnahme zyklischer Fettsäuren gehören zu beobachteten Mechanismen (Russell 1984). Diese Aufrechterhaltung der Membranfluidität wird auch als „*homeoviscous adaptation*“ bezeichnet (Sinensky 1974). Bei filamentösen Pilzen variieren die Fettsäureprofile in Abhängigkeit von Nährstoffen, Sauerstoff und Temperatur (Suutari 1995). Dabei werden bei niedrigen Temperaturen, wie auch bei Bakterien, vermehrt ungesättigte Fettsäuren gebildet (Pedneault *et al.* 2007), die die Membran aufgrund ihrer Struktur und in ihrer Gesamtheit letztlich fluidisieren (Zhang und Rock 2008). Es konnte gezeigt werden, dass auch Chinone in bakteriellen Zellmembranen bei der Regulierung der Membranfluidität bei niedrigen Wachstumstemperaturen von Bedeutung sind und insbesondere bei Stämmen, die wenig Anpassung über die Fettsäuremodulation zeigten, die Konzentrationen an Isoprenoid-Chinonen zunahm (Seel *et al.* 2018). Die Plastizität der Zellmembran ist für die Mikroorganismen somit wichtig für das Überleben und Überdauern unter verschiedenen, teilweise herausfordernden, äußeren Bedingungen.

1.5 TAXONOMIE VON MIKROORGANISMEN

Viele Merkmale, wie z. B. die von der Umgebung abhängige Fettsäurezusammensetzung oder das Gram-Verhalten, können nicht aus Genomsequenzen abgelesen werden, weswegen die Betrachtung des Phänotyps weiterhin essenziell bleibt. Die Zusammensetzung des Peptidoglykans in der bakteriellen Zellwand, insbesondere dessen Vernetzung durch unterschiedliche Aminosäuren, kann beispielsweise als ein charakteristisches Merkmal bestimmter Bakterien gelten (Schleifer und Kandler 1972). Das Vorkommen verschiedener Membranbestandteile, wie der polaren Lipide, Chinone und Fettsäuren kann für die Klassifizierung von Mikroorganismen von großer Bedeutung sein und bei ihrer Identifizierung helfen (Collins *et al.* 1980). Die Präsenz von Sphingolipiden ist beispielsweise charakteristisch für die Ordnung der *Sphingomonadales* (Busse *et al.* 1999). Phosphatidylinositol (PI) ist ein polares Lipid, das überwiegend in Eukaryoten vorkommt, aber auch bei einigen Vertretern der *Actinobacteria* und dort insbesondere bei den Gattungen *Arthrobacter* und *Micrococcus* nachgewiesen werden kann (Busse 2016; Wieser *et al.* 2002). In *Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology* wird das

Vorkommen und die Häufigkeit diverser polarer Lipide als Charakterisierungsmerkmal von Spezies und Gattungen herangezogen. Fettsäuren können ebenfalls typisch für einzelne Taxa sein, etwa intern verzweigte Fettsäuren, wie die C_{16:0} 12-methyl, C_{17:0} iso 10-methyl oder C_{18:0} 14-methyl bei den Ordnungen der *Gaiellales* und *Rubrobacterales* (Albuquerque *et al.* 2011). Für einige Vertreter der Gattungen *Sulfobacillus* und *Alicyclobacillus* sind beispielsweise Cyclohexan- und Cycloheptan-Fettsäuren charakteristisch (Goto *et al.* 2003). Die sogenannte Chemotaxonomie ist somit von großer Wichtigkeit bei der Neubeschreibung von Mikroorganismen, insbesondere von Prokaryoten (Tindall *et al.* 2010), aber auch von Pilzen (Pedneault *et al.* 2007). Über die Analyse der einzelnen Membrankomponenten können Spezies voneinander abgegrenzt und in verschiedene Taxa eingruppiert werden. Nicht in allen Fällen kann über die Chemotaxonomie eine Zuordnung in die Systematik erfolgen, wie das Beispiel des Bakteriums *Corynebacterium otitidis* zeigt. Dieses wurde aufgrund des Vorkommens der ungesättigten Menachinone MK-10 und MK-11, anstelle der für *Corynebacterium* typischen dehydrogenierten Menachinone MK-8 (H₂) und MK-9 (H₂), sowie Fehlens von charakteristischen Mykolsäuren ursprünglich als *Turicella otitidis* beschrieben (Funke *et al.* 1994). Auf Basis von phylogenetischen Analysen wurde jedoch eine Zugehörigkeit zur Gattung *Corynebacterium* vorgeschlagen und das Bakterium konsequent in diese eingeordnet (Baek *et al.* 2018).

Das Gebiet der Taxonomie hat sich entsprechend der Fortschritte in der Molekularbiologie und Genetik in den vergangenen Jahren erheblich weiterentwickelt. Traditionell wurden Bakterien auf der Grundlage morphologischer, physiologischer und biochemischer Merkmale klassifiziert – die moderne Bakterientaxonomie stützt sich darüber hinaus auf molekulare Techniken, wie die DNA-Sequenzierung (Tindall *et al.* 2010). In dem Zusammenhang nimmt die Sequenzierung des 16S rRNA-Gens eine wichtige Rolle bei der Bestimmung von Arten ein (Rosselló-Móra und Amann 2015), aber auch Genomeigenschaften wie die digitale DNA-DNA-Hybridisierung (dDDH) zwischen zwei Arten und die *average nucleotide identity* (ANI) werden als Kriterien herangezogen (Richter und Rosselló-Móra 2009; Goris *et al.* 2007). Bei filamentösen Pilzen und Hefen werden überwiegend die *Internal Transcribed Spacer* (ITS)- sowie die D1/D2-Region des 28S rRNA-Genabschnitts für phylogenetische Analysen verwendet (White *et al.* 1990; Kwiatkowski *et al.* 2012). Gesamtgenomsequenzen können wiederum dazu dienen, Anpassungsmechanismen, wie beispielsweise an CO₂-Stress, sowie Zusammenhänge im Metabolismus der Organismen aufzuklären.

Neben der Aufklärung metabolischer Zusammenhänge mit Hilfe der Genetik ist auch die Neubeschreibung von Arten und insbesondere von Mikroorganismen heute noch von großer Bedeutung. Die Tat-

sache, dass die Gesamtzahl prokaryotischer Spezies auf einen niedrigstelligen Millionenbereich geschätzt wird und somit erst ein Bruchteil aller Arten beschrieben worden ist (Amann und Rosselló-Móra 2016; Nichols *et al.* 2010), zeigt, wie viel Potential es aus ökologischer, aber auch aus medizinischer, lebensmittelwissenschaftlicher oder biotechnologischer Sicht noch gibt. So konnte mit Hilfe des *iChip*, einer durchlöcherten Metallplatte, mit vielen kleinen durch Polycarbonatmembranen voneinander getrennten Kammern, das bis dahin unbekannte Bakterium *Eleftheria terrae* kultiviert werden (Nichols *et al.* 2010). Aus diesem wurde ein antibiotischer Sekundärmetabolit, das Teixobactin, isoliert, welches bei grampositiven Bakterien zu keiner Resistenzentwicklung zu führen scheint und als ein Kandidat für eine ganz neue Stoffklasse von Antibiotika gilt (Ling *et al.* 2015). Auch bei der Produktion von Enzymen, Zuckern, Pigmenten, Sekundärmetaboliten oder Biotreibstoffen finden solche, teilweise extremophilen, Organismen Anwendungsgebiete (Coker 2016; Buzzini *et al.* 2018). Wegen ihrer Anpassung an erhöhte CO₂-Konzentrationen könnten auch die extremophilen Capnotoleranten oder Capnophilen von Interesse sein, da sie beispielsweise über Enzyme mit weitreichenden pH-Optima verfügen könnten.

1.6 ZIEL UND ZUSAMMENFASSUNG DIESER ARBEIT

Das Ziel dieser Arbeit war die Analyse des Einflusses von CO₂ – insbesondere beim *Modified Atmosphere Packaging* (MAP) – auf die Zellmembran von Mikroorganismen, die aus stark CO₂-haltigen Habitaten isoliert wurden. Im Vordergrund standen hierbei überwiegend lebensmittelassoziierte und capnotolerante Bakterien, Hefen und filamentöse Pilze. Diese wurden mit einigen weiteren Isolaten aus der Umwelt ergänzt. Im Rahmen der Charakterisierung dieser Stämme wurde Aufmerksamkeit auf Capnotoleranz und Psychrotoleranz gerichtet, da diese Eigenschaften entscheidende Charakteristika für potentielle Verderbniserreger und Pathogene im Lebensmittel darstellen. Darüber hinaus wurden die Organismen taxonomisch eingeordnet.

Bei einigen Organismen stellte sich auf Basis einzelner Gen- und teilweise Genomsequenzierungen heraus, dass es sich um bis dahin unbeschriebene, neue Spezies handelte. Im Kontext der Chemotaxonomie wurden die jeweiligen Membranen und deren Aufbau genauer analysiert, die Stämme auf weitere biochemische Eigenschaften untersucht und teilweise mit nächstverwandten Arten verglichen. In Folge dessen wurde die Hefegattung *Stenotrophomyces* mitsamt ihrer Typspezies *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* neu beschrieben. Wie der Name andeutet handelte es sich dabei um eine Hefe, die Wachstum unter erhöhter CO₂-Konzentration von über 20 % und auch noch bei 2 °C zeigt. Die Hefe wurde aus einem vegetarischen Wrap isoliert, welcher mit CO₂-haltiger Atmosphäre verpackt wurde. Aus weiteren auf diese Art verpackten Produkten, genauer Schweinenackensteak und

Schweinebratwurst, wurden auch die beiden Bakterienspezies *Sphingomonas aliaeris* und *Chryseobacterium capnotolerans* isoliert, ihr Gesamtgenom sequenziert und diese als neue Arten beschrieben. Bei letzterem Organismus wurden die polaren Lipide detailliert charakterisiert und darüber hinaus bei mehreren weiteren Vertretern der Gattung analysiert. Daraus ergab sich eine erweiterte Neubeschreibung der Gattung *Chryseobacterium* sowie der Arten *C. balustinum*, *C. daecheongense*, *C. formosense*, *C. gleum*, *C. indologenes*, *C. joostei*, *C. scophthalmum* und *C. ureilyticum*. Auch die Gesamtgenome der beiden lebensmittelwissenschaftlich relevanten Stämme *Brochothrix thermosphacta* DH-B18 und *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4 wurden sequenziert und analysiert.

Die weiteren isolierten Organismen dieser Arbeit wurden nach ihrer taxonomischen Einordnung ebenfalls in Hinblick auf ihre Membranen und deren Anpassung näher untersucht und dafür im Rahmen verschiedener Lagerversuche unter modifizierter Schutzgasatmosphäre verpackt und bei 10 °C inkubiert. Die Isolate wurden nach ihrem Wachstum unter CO₂-Stress beurteilt sowie die Fettsäuren, polaren Lipide und die Membranfluidität bestimmt und mit Kontrollen verglichen. Darüber hinaus wurden zusätzliche Ansätze bei den filamentösen Pilzen und Hefen bei 25 °C inkubiert und analysiert um die CO₂-induzierten Membrananpassungen mit denen von temperaturabhängigen Anpassungen vergleichen zu können. Mit der Annahme, dass CO₂ mit den Zellmembranen von Mikroorganismen interagiert, indem es in und durch diese diffundiert und diese dadurch fluidisiert, war die Arbeitshypothese, dass die Organismen diesem Stress mit dem Einbau von Fettsäuren mit erhöhtem Schmelzpunkt entgegenwirken. Dies würde überwiegend in einer Stabilisierung der Membran resultieren, eine Anpassung, die insbesondere von Bakterien bei Stress durch erhöhte Temperaturen genutzt wird, um einer Fluidisierung entgegenzuwirken.

Diese Annahme konnte im Falle einiger untersuchter Bakterienstämme bestätigt werden, die eine erhöhte durchschnittliche Schmelztemperatur der Membran nach Inkubation bei hohen CO₂-Konzentrationen aufwiesen. Dabei reagierten Organismen verschiedenster Taxa auf die veränderten Bedingungen mit teilweise ähnlichen Anpassungen, wie etwa Zunahme von *iso*- zugunsten von *anteiso*-Fettsäuren sowie Verlängerung der Kohlenstoffketten. Fluorometrisch konnte eine erhöhte Fluidisierung der Membran bei einigen Vertretern festgestellt werden. Nur wenige Bakterienstämme reagierten nicht mit einer Veränderung ihres Fettsäureprofils oder ihrer Membranfluidität bei CO₂-Stress. Bei Pilzen war die genannte Hypothese nicht zutreffend. Hier wurde eine starke Erhöhung des Grades der Unsättigung ihrer Membran evident, welcher gegenteilig in einer verminderten durchschnittlichen Schmelztemperatur der Membran resultierte. Dies ließ auf eine Fluidisierung der Membran durch CO₂ schließen. Vor allem eine auffallend hohe Präsenz von Linolensäure (C_{18:3} cis 9,

12, 15) in CO₂-gestressten filamentösen Pilzen und Hefen ließ sich bei einem Großteil der Stämme finden, während Anteile von Palmitin- (C_{16:0}), Palmitolein- (C_{16:1} cis 9), Stearin- (C_{18:0}) und Ölsäure (C_{18:1} cis 9) verringert waren. In nahezu allen untersuchten Stämmen wurde ein verringertes Wachstum sowie Unterschiede bei der Pigment- und Exudatbildung unter 20 % CO₂ und 80 % O₂ festgestellt.

Diese Arbeit liefert wichtige Hinweise auf CO₂-induzierte Veränderungen der Zellmembran bei unterschiedlichen Mikroorganismen. In vorhergehenden Forschungsarbeiten konnte bislang nicht eindeutig geklärt werden, worauf die wachstumsinhibierende Wirkung von CO₂ beruht. Die Daten in dieser Arbeit zeigen, dass CO₂ bei der überwiegenden Mehrheit der untersuchten Organismen zu einer Membrananpassung führt, die bei manchen Organismen auch eine (Mit-)Ursache für die Hemmung des Wachstums darstellen kann. Die Anpassung einzelner Membrankomponenten kann bei Mikroorganismen auch einem Entgegenwirken der fluidisierenden Wirkung von CO₂ dienen. Darüber hinaus gibt die Arbeit Einblicke in eine Gruppe vielfach unbeachteter, jedoch relevanter Organismen, den Capnotoleranten, die zu den unterschiedlichsten Taxa gehören – sowohl bei Bakterien, als auch bei Pilzen. Aufgrund ihrer Fähigkeit in stark CO₂-haltiger Umgebung wachsen zu können, stellen viele von ihnen, insbesondere die darüber hinaus Psychrotoleranten, ein Risiko als potentielle Verderbniserreger in Lebensmitteln dar.

KAPITEL 2

2.1 PUBLIKATION: FUNGI UNDER MODIFIED ATMOSPHERE – THE EFFECTS OF CO₂ STRESS ON CELL MEMBRANES AND DESCRIPTION OF NEW YEAST *STENOTROPHOMYCES FUMITOLERANS* GEN. NOV., SP. NOV.

Die in diesem Kapitel dargestellten Ergebnisse entstammen der folgenden Originalpublikation:

Heidler von Heilborn, D., Reinmüller, J., Yurkov, A., Stehle, P., Moeller, R., Lipski, A. (2023) Fungi under Modified Atmosphere—The Effects of CO₂ Stress on Cell Membranes and Description of New Yeast *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* gen. nov., sp. nov. Journal of Fungi; 9(10): 1031. DOI: 10.3390/jof9101031

Persönlicher Beitrag zur Publikation: Der persönliche Beitrag zu dieser Publikation umfasst neben dem Konzept und der Versuchsplanung auch die Durchführung aller im Artikel erwähnten Laborexperimente von mir oder Studenten unter meiner Anleitung, mit Ausnahme der Versuche zur Physiologie von *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans*. Darüber hinaus wurden die Ergebnisse von mir und der Studentin Jessica Reinmüller analysiert sowie interpretiert und anschließend das Manuskript vorbereitet und eingereicht.

2.2 ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Ziel dieses Projektes war die Untersuchung verschiedener filamentöser Pilze und Hefen in Hinblick auf das Anpassungsverhalten ihrer Membranen an CO₂-Stress. Die 20 verwendeten Stämme wurden zu einem überwiegenden Teil aus stark CO₂-haltiger Umgebung isoliert und auf ihr Wachstum bei MAP mit erhöhten CO₂-Konzentrationen untersucht. Darüber hinaus führte die Charakterisierung der unterschiedlichen Isolate zur Entdeckung einer neuen Hefeart, die der ebenfalls neu beschriebenen Gattung *Stenotrophomyces* zugeordnet und als *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* neu beschrieben wurde.

Pilzen kommt eine wesentliche Rolle bei lebensmittelbezogenen Prozessen zu, darunter die Freisetzung von Sekundärmetaboliten sowie Fermentation und Veredelung von Produkten (Ropars und Giraud 2022). Einige filamentöse Pilze und Hefen können jedoch auch als lebensmittelverderbende Organismen fungieren und zu Fehlgerüchen sowie Mykotoxin-Kontaminationen führen (Kure und Skaar 2019). Die in dieser Arbeit verwendeten Stämme wurden aus verpacktem Hackfleisch, Lachs, Kaffee und einem vegetarischen Wrap isoliert. Darüber hinaus wurden Pilze aus CO₂-

getriebenen vulkanischen Quellen, den eingangs erwähnten Mofetten, am Laacher See in Deutschland isoliert. Es wurde außerdem mit einem Stamm gearbeitet, der auf der *International Space Station* (ISS) isoliert wurde, auf der erhöhte CO₂-Konzentrationen vorherrschen (Law *et al.* 2014). Als Referenzstämme wurden Luftkeime, die aus der Raumluft rekultiviert wurden, sowie ein Typstamm von der Deutschen Stammsammlung für Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen (DSMZ) verwendet. Die Isolate wurden mittels Sequenzierung der ITS- sowie der 28S rRNA-Genregion taxonomisch zugeordnet. Die isolierten filamentösen Pilze waren den Gattungen *Penicillium*, *Didymella*, *Neurospora*, *Rhizopus*, *Cladosporium* und *Alternaria* zugehörig. Die isolierten Hefen gehörten überwiegend den Gattungen *Candida*, *Pichia*, *Apotrichum* und *Rhodotorula* an. Dabei wies das Isolat WT5 eine Übereinstimmung von lediglich 89,9 % für die ITS-Sequenz und 96,9 % für die 28S rRNA-Genregion zum nächstverwandten Organismus auf. WT5 und ein weiterer isolierter Stamm mit ähnlichen Sequenzen, WR1, wurden daher zusätzlich in Hinblick auf ihre 18S rRNA-, RPB2- und TEF1-Genabschnitte näher untersucht sowie eine phylogenetische Analyse anhand der multiplen Sequenzen erstellt. Aufgrund dieser wurden weitere Experimente zur Physiologie der Stämme, wie die Verstoffwechselung verschiedener Kohlenstoffquellen, durchgeführt und die neue Hefespezies *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* der vorgeschlagenen neuen Gattung *Stenotrophomyces* beschrieben. Als capnotoleranter Organismus, der in der Lage ist, noch bei 2 °C zu wachsen, ist er von wesentlicher Bedeutung als potentieller Verderbniserreger von Lebensmitteln. Als die einzigen beiden der in dieser Arbeit verwendeten Stämme, wiesen WT5 und WR1 keine mehrfach ungesättigten Fettsäuren, sondern lediglich die Ölsäure (C_{18:1} cis 9) auf.

Um die Reaktion der im Rahmen der Studie verwendeten Stämme auf Umgebungen mit hohem CO₂-Gehalt zu bewerten, wurden sie auf Agarplatten und in Flüssigkultur bei 10 °C unter MAP-Konditionen von 20 % CO₂ und 80 % O₂ kultiviert, die Bedingungen der Lebensmittellagerung nachbilden sollten. Neben den Kontrollen bei 10 °C ohne MAP-Konditionen wurden darüber hinaus Ansätze bei 25 °C ohne MAP-Konditionen kultiviert, um Vergleiche zur Membrananpassung an erhöhte Temperaturen ziehen zu können. Das Wachstum wurde durch Überwachung der optischen Dichte und der Glukosekonzentration im Medium bewertet. Es wurde eine Limitierung des Wachstums bei 18 von 20 der verwendeten Stämme beobachtet, wenn sie hohen CO₂-Konzentrationen ausgesetzt waren, sowie Veränderungen der Pigmentierung bei einigen Isolaten. Alle verwendeten Organismen waren jedoch capnotolerant und in der Lage, bei 20 % CO₂-Anwesenheit zu wachsen. Die Bildung von Exudaten war teilweise reduziert. Darüber hinaus sank der pH-Wert des Agars bei CO₂-haltigem MAP.

Die Kulturen wurden hinsichtlich ihrer gebildeten Fettsäuren mittels Gaschromatographie mit Massenspektrometrie (GC-MS) sowie mit Hilfe Gaschromatographie mit Flammenionisationsdetektor (GC-FID)

analysiert. Es wurden signifikante Veränderungen in den Fettsäureprofilen der Stämme festgestellt, welche einer erhöhten CO₂-Konzentration ausgesetzt wurden. Insbesondere kam es zu einem Anstieg von C_{18:3} cis 9, 12, 15 und bei den meisten Stämmen der C_{18:2} cis 9, 12, bei gleichzeitiger Verringerung von C_{18:1} cis 9, C_{16:0}, C_{16:1} cis 9 und C_{18:0}. Diese Veränderungen in der Fettsäurezusammensetzung führten zu einer Abnahme der durchschnittlichen Membranschmelztemperatur (WAMT, *weighted average melting temperature*), welche ein Indikator dafür sein kann, in welche Richtung und in welchem Ausmaß sich die Fluidität der Zellmembranen entwickelt, wenn sich deren Fettsäureprofil ändert (Seel *et al.* 2018). Die starke Abnahme der WAMT ließen auf eine CO₂-bedingte Fluidisierung der Membran schließen, der nicht mit einer Stabilisierung der Membran entgegengewirkt wurde. Dies entsprach nicht den ursprünglichen Erwartungen. Bei anderen fettlöslichen Stressoren, wie beispielsweise Ethanol, wurde ebenfalls ein Einfluss auf die Fettsäure- und polare Lipidzusammensetzung von Pilzen beobachtet und die Relevanz von ungesättigten Fettsäuren in diesem Zusammenhang herausgestellt (Tesnière 2019; You *et al.* 2003). Solche Fettsäuren waren auch bei dieser Arbeit für die starke Abnahme der WAMT-Werte verantwortlich. Es wurde festgestellt, dass die Reaktion von Pilzen auf CO₂-Stress unabhängig ihres Isolationsortes ist und diese einen ähnlichen Anpassungsmechanismus aufweisen. Die Beobachtung legt nahe, dass der Anstieg der ungesättigten Fettsäuren eine allgemeine Reaktion von Pilzen auf CO₂-induzierten Stress ist.

Veränderungen in der Fettsäurezusammensetzung wurden erwartungsgemäß auch festgestellt, wenn die Pilze bei erhöhten Temperaturen von 25 °C inkubiert wurden. Dies führte bei einem Großteil der untersuchten Stämme zum Einbau von Fettsäuren mit einer höheren Schmelztemperatur und damit zu erhöhten WAMT-Werten, wie dies auch für Temperaturerhöhungen bei Bakterien, wie *Escherichia coli*, beschrieben ist (Sinensky 1974). Bei Pilzen wurde ebenfalls ein erhöhter Grad an gesättigten Fettsäuren nach Inkubation bei höheren Temperaturen festgestellt (Pedneault *et al.* 2007), entsprechend den Ergebnissen dieser Arbeit.

Der Anstieg mehrfach ungesättigter Fettsäuren in Pilzen bei Verpackung unter CO₂-haltiger modifizierter Atmosphäre könnte auch zur Verbesserung des Nährwerts von Lebensmitteln genutzt werden, die verzehrgeeignete Pilze beinhalten. Was die Auswirkungen auf die menschliche Ernährung betrifft, haben mehrfach ungesättigte Fettsäuren positive Auswirkungen, einschließlich cholesterinsenkender Effekte, was zu einem geringeren Risiko von Herz-Kreislauf-Erkrankungen führt (Kris-Etherton *et al.* 2004).

Zusammenfassend unterstreicht die Arbeit die Komplexität der Reaktionen auf erhöhtes CO₂ und die unerwarteten Anpassungsmechanismen, wie die Erhöhung des ungesättigten Fettsäureanteils und die Verringerung der WAMT. Diese Ergebnisse sind sowohl für den Verderb von Lebensmitteln als auch für

biotechnologische Anwendungen (z. B. in Form von Enzymen oder Sekundärmetaboliten) von Bedeutung, da die beobachteten Anpassungsmechanismen ein tieferes Verständnis dafür vermitteln, wie Pilze mit verschiedenen Umweltbedingungen und Stressfaktoren umgehen.

2.3 ORIGINALPUBLIKATION

Es folgt die oben genannte Originalpublikation mit freundlicher Genehmigung des Verlags.

Article

Fungi under Modified Atmosphere—The Effects of CO₂ Stress on Cell Membranes and Description of New Yeast *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* gen. nov., sp. nov.

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Abstract: High levels of carbon dioxide are known to inhibit the growth of microorganisms. A total of twenty strains of filamentous fungi and yeasts were isolated from habitats with enriched carbon dioxide concentration. Most strains were derived from modified atmosphere packed (MAP) food products or mofettes and were cultivated under an atmosphere of 20% CO₂ and 80% O₂. The influence of CO₂ on fungal cell membrane fatty acid profiles was examined in this study. Major changes were the increase in linolenic acid (C_{18:3} cis 9, 12, 15) and, additionally in most strains, linoleic acid (C_{18:2} cis 9, 12) with a maximum of 24.8%, at the expense of oleic (C_{18:1} cis 9), palmitic (C_{16:0}), palmitoleic (C_{16:1} cis 9) and stearic acid (C_{18:0}). The degree of fatty acid unsaturation increased for all of the strains in the study, which consequently led to lower melting temperatures of the cell membranes after incubation with elevated levels of CO₂, indicating fluidization of the membrane and a potential membrane malfunction. Growth was reduced in 18 out of 20 strains in laboratory experiments and a change in pigmentation was observed in several strains. Two of the isolated strains, strain WT5 and strain WR1, were found to represent a hitherto undescribed yeast for which the new genus and species *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* (MB# 849906) is proposed.

Keywords: carbon dioxide; modified atmosphere packaging; fatty acids; membrane fluidity; filamentous fungi; novel yeast species; capnophiles



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1. Introduction

Fungi are indispensable in food science and are not only used as edible mushrooms and in the production process of fermented and baked goods, but for the refinement of important consumer goods, such as for the maturation of cheese and dry-cured meat [1]. In the maturation process of food products, they release secondary metabolites, which subsequently impart characteristic aromas or flavours [1]. On the other hand, several species of filamentous fungi and yeasts are relevant as food-spoilage organisms, which can cause off-odour and off-flavour of the product, and in some cases even result in contamination with mycotoxins [2]. Food products, especially those that are nutrient-rich and have high water content, such as meat, are prone to microbial spoilage due to microbial growth and metabolic activity [3]. Fungi commonly found on food include several yeast species and molds of the genera *Saccharomyces*, *Rhodotorula*, *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium*, *Mucor* and *Rhizopus* and are food spoilage organisms in most of the cases [4,5]. Fungi are

ubiquitously distributed and occur in large numbers of up to 10,000 spores in 1 m³ of air [6], which indicates the importance of their role not only in terms of food production, food waste and hygiene, but also in biotechnology, human medicine and plant pathology.

For conservation and for the prevention of microbial growth, food products are packed under modified atmospheres (MA), including high amounts of CO₂, depending on the product. For raw red meat, gas mixtures of 20–30% CO₂ and 70–80% O₂ are commonly used, whereas for white non-processed fish gas mixtures of 30% O₂, 40% CO₂ and 30% N₂ are used [7]. In general, the function of carbon dioxide is mainly the inhibition of microbial growth [7,8]. In the case of fungi, it has also been shown that the production of several mycotoxins, including aflatoxins, patulin and roquefortine C, is greatly decreased by high CO₂-containing MA [8,9]. Nevertheless, some food spoilage and plant or human pathogenic microorganisms are able to grow under these conditions, including the fungi *Mucor plumbeus*, *Fusarium oxysporum* and members of the genus *Byssochlamys* [8] and the bacteria *Brochothrix thermosphacta*, *Campylobacter jejuni* and members of the *Lactobacillales* [7,10].

Microorganisms, which can tolerate or even require high-CO₂ concentrations, are referred to as capnotolerant or capnophilic organisms, respectively. They can be found in anthropogenic CO₂-rich environments, such as MAP food products, as well in natural environments, such as mofettes or geysers [11]. The latter result from volcanic activities releasing CO₂ to the surface and thereby create natural unique environments with elevated CO₂ levels, where even new fungal species have been discovered [12]. Fungal adaptation mechanisms to such an increased presence of the carbon dioxide stressor are expected to be similar for strains from artificial (MAP) and natural habitats (mofettes), which can only be evaluated through comparison analysis. Not much is known about the cell effect of elevated CO₂ concentrations on microorganisms, but it has been suggested to be a complex interaction of several reactions leading to growth reduction of the organisms or even bactericidal and sporicidal effects [13]. Due to its unique property of being lipo- and hydrophilic, carbon dioxide can dissolve in the phospholipid bilayer of the membrane of cells and is supposed to cause the so-called ‘anesthesia effect’, a loss of order by the incorporation of foreign molecules [14].

The lipids of the phospholipid bilayers of fungi include fatty acids, phospholipids, sterols, oxylipins, sphingolipids and glycolipids [15]. In fungi, the most abundant fatty acids in membrane phospholipids, as well as storage triacylglycerols, are palmitic (C_{16:0}) and stearic (C_{18:0}) acids, as well as their unsaturated derivatives palmitoleic (C_{16:1} cis 9), oleic (C_{18:1} cis 9), linoleic (C_{18:2} cis 9, 12) and alpha- or gamma-linolenic (C_{18:3} cis 9, 12, 15 or C_{18:3} cis 6, 9, 12) acids [16–18]. Polar lipids are therefore an essential part of membranes and fungal polar lipids can account for up to 85% of the total lipid content [16]. The main fungal lipids are phospholipids such as phosphatidylcholine and phosphatidylethanolamine, but also phosphatidylserine, phosphatidylinositol, phosphatidylglycerol and diphosphatidylglycerol, as well as glycolipids [19]. Slightly elevated concentrations of about 560 ppm CO₂ (instead of the ambient atmospheric 360 ppm of that time) have been shown to stimulate fungal activity and increase the total biomass [20]. In other studies, slightly increased CO₂ levels have led to increased extracellular enzymatic activities and stimulated microbial respiration [21].

In this work, the effect of high CO₂-containing MA on several fungal isolates and their membranes was examined. The strains were mainly isolated from MAP food and mofettes and identified based on marker gene sequencing. The strains were furthermore analyzed regarding their fatty acid profile changes towards CO₂ and temperature stress. The study also resulted in the isolation of a novel yeast species, which was characterized and formally described in this study.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Isolation and Ecology

The majority of the organisms used in this study were isolated from food packed under CO₂-enriched atmospheres. Oxygen and carbon dioxide concentrations were mea-

sured using an Oxybaby M+ O₂/CO₂ gas analyzer (WITT-Gasetechnik, Witten, Germany). For the isolation of strains, 10 g of each product were taken and diluted with Ringer's solution (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) to a total weight of 100 g. The sample was then homogenized for 60 s and a ten-fold dilution series was prepared. The suspension (0.1 mL) of an appropriate dilution was plated on YMG agar with penicillin and streptomycin (5.0 g glucose, 2.0 g yeast extract, 5.0 g malt extract, 10 g bacteriological agar, 0.04 g penicillin G potassium salt, 0.03 g streptomycin sulfate, *ad* 500 mL distilled H₂O) and incubated at 25 °C. After 4 d, the isolates were picked from the plates.

All strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. Yeast strains WR1, WT2, WT5, WT6 and WT7 were recovered from a vegetarian wrap packed under MA, with remaining oxygen and carbon dioxide concentrations of 0.3% and 28.4%, respectively. Yeast strain HT4 and filamentous fungus strain HR2 were isolated from MAP minced meat, with a remaining atmosphere of 59.4% O₂ and 28.0% CO₂. Yeast strain LR1 and mold strain LT1 were recovered from MAP salmon, with a remaining atmosphere of 0% O₂ and 21.1% CO₂. The filamentous fungus strain KR3 was recovered from MAP coffee powder, with a remaining atmosphere of 0.8% O₂ and 81.2% CO₂.

Table 1. Isolation source and identification of the different fungal strains using ITS and/or 28S rRNA gene regions according to GenBank. Sequences of isolates were only compared to type strain sequences. Models and environmental samples were excluded. All strains were sequenced during this project, with the exception of the two strains IF2SW-F4 and DSM 1075.

Source	Strain	Species According to NCBI BLAST	Sequence Similarity with Closely-Related Type Strain	Sequence Accession No.
Vegetarian wrap	WR1	<i>Torulaspora globosa</i>	96.9% ‡ (KY109865.1)	OQ255941
	WT2	<i>Pichia fermentans</i>	99.8% ‡ (MK394169.1)	OQ255937
	WT5	<i>Vanderwaltozyma verrucispora</i> <i>Torulaspora globosa</i>	89.0% * (NR_137559.1) 96.9% ‡ (KY109865.1)	OQ255923 OQ255942
		Further accession numbers for SSU-ITS-LSU fragment, RPB2 and TEF1	-	OQ708375, OQ715316, OR661267
	WT6	<i>Apotrichum gracile</i>	99.8% ‡ (KY106124.1)	OQ255938
	WT7	<i>Candida oleophila</i>	99.6% ‡ (NG_060820.1)	OQ255939
Minced Meat	HR2	<i>Penicillium griseofulvum</i>	99.8% * (MH854925.1)	OQ255924
		<i>Penicillium dipodomys</i> †	100% ‡ (MH874450.1)	OQ255931
Salmon	HT4	<i>Candida sake</i>	100% ‡ (KY106745.1)	OQ255932
	LR1	<i>Candida zeylanoides</i>	100% ‡ (NG_060834.1)	OQ255933
	LT1	<i>Didymella corylicola</i> †	100% ‡ (MN954290.1)	OQ255934
Coffee Airborne	KR3	<i>Neurospora tetraspora</i>	98.9% ‡ (NG_068996.1)	OQ255940
	TS1	<i>Penicillium tardochrysogenum</i> †	100% * (MH865983.1)	OQ255929
		<i>Penicillium dipodomys</i> †	100% ‡ (MH874450.1)	OQ255935
Mofettes	TS2	<i>Penicillium griseofulvum</i>	99.8% * (MH854925.1)	OQ255930
		<i>Penicillium tardochrysogenum</i> †	100% ‡ (NG_070021.1)	OQ255936
	M1	<i>Rhizopus oryzae</i>	100% * (DQ641279.1)	OQ255925
International Space Station (ISS)	M2	<i>Cladosporium subuliforme</i> †	100% * (MH864124.1)	OQ255922
	M3	<i>Rhodotorula alborubescens</i>	99.6% * (NR_153197.1)	OQ255926
	M4	<i>Alternaria alstroemeriae</i> †	100% * (NR_163686.1)	OQ255927
	M6	<i>Penicillium glandicola</i>	100% * (MH860946.1)	OQ255928
	M12	<i>Rhodotorula babjevae</i>	99.4% * (NR_077096.1)	OQ504373
	IF2SW-F4	<i>Penicillium rubens</i>	100.0% (MT558923.1)	JACSPE000000000
Cantaloupe melon	DSM 1075	<i>Penicillium rubens</i>	100% * (NR_111815.1)	PKG00000000, as published before [22]

* ITS nucleotide sequence; ‡ LSU nucleotide sequence; † Additionally shares 100% sequence similarity with other strains.

In search of natural environments with elevated CO₂ levels, water samples were taken from mofettes, located at lake Laacher See, Germany (coordinates: 50°24'51.3" N,

7°17'08.9'' E). A ten-fold dilution series was prepared and YMG agar was inoculated with the suspension (0.1 mL) of an appropriate dilution and incubated at 10 °C and 25 °C to isolate mesophilic fungi that grow at colder and ambient temperatures. Colonies were picked after 4 d of incubation. Yeast strains M3 and M12, as well as filamentous fungi M1, M2, M4 and M6, were isolated from this source and analyzed in this study.

Strains *Penicillium rubens* IF2SW-F4 and *Penicillium rubens* DSM 1075 were taken from the culture collection of the Aerospace Microbiology Research Group, German Aerospace Center (DLR). Strain IF2SW-F4 was originally isolated from a surface inside the International Space Station (ISS) during the NASA JPL Microbial Tracking studies [23]. DSM 1075, the corresponding type strain, was used as a reference in this study. CO₂ levels on the ISS can be more than 20 times higher than in the earth's atmosphere (0.03% at the time of publication), ranging from 0.3 to 0.7% [24]. For humans, these conditions can already have a medical impact in terms of increasingly reported headaches [25].

Filamentous fungi strains TS1 and TS2 were airborne and isolated from TSA (tryptic soy agar; Merck, Germany) and were included as reference strains from environments with non-elevated CO₂ concentrations.

All strains listed above are yeasts and filamentous ascomycetes. Other taxa were not isolated from these samples.

2.2. Cultivation and Modified Atmosphere Packaging of Strains

Spore suspensions of all strains listed above were stored at –80 °C using Cryobank (Mast Group, Bootle, UK). For all subsequent experiments, the fungi were cultivated on YE agar (10.0 g glucose, 2.5 g yeast extract, 10 g bacteriological agar, 500 mL distilled H₂O) or broth. All strains tested positive for growth at temperatures of 10 and 25 °C.

Growth under MA was assessed by placing inoculated YE agar Petri dishes or 50 mL inoculated YE broth in tissue culture flasks (Sarstedt, Nümbrecht Germany) in a polypropylene tray (ES-Plastic, Huththurm, Germany), which was sealed with polyethylene foil (Südpack, Ochsenhausen, Germany) by a Multivac T200 traysealer (Multivac, Wolfertschwend, Germany). A common gas composition for meat products, consisting of 80% O₂ and 20% CO₂, was used for all strains. The trays were incubated at 10 °C, to simulate the conditions of food storage, for the time span of four weeks, after which the growth was visually evaluated, and by measuring the optical density or glucose concentration in the media. In case the growth of each strain was sufficient (utilization of the glucose or an optical density above 0.1), biological triplicates were incubated under MAP for all subsequent experiments on agar for 14 days (yeasts) and in broth (filamentous fungi) until the remaining glucose concentration was approximately 25 mg/L (filamentous fungi). Concerning the yeasts, controls exposed to normal atmosphere and MAP samples were incubated at 10 °C for 14 days and at 25 °C for 3 days in order to distinguish CO₂-induced effects on the membrane from temperature-related effects. In contrast, controls and MAP samples of the filamentous fungi were incubated at 10 °C, as well as samples at an elevated temperature of 25 °C and were harvested at growth phases as similar as possible by harvesting at 25 mg/L glucose. The gas compositions were immediately measured before harvesting. Trays with non-inoculated YE and trays without plates were also packed under MAP and incubated like the samples in order to determine how the gas composition differs due to CO₂ diffusing into the agar and other factors changing the gas composition. The pH values of non-inoculated agar stored under MAP and the controls were measured after incubation.

2.3. Phylogenetic Analyses

The genomic DNA of the strains was extracted with a Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and the supplementary protocol for yeasts using the enzyme lyticase or using a MasterPure Yeast DNA Purification kit (Lucigen, Biosearch Technologies, Hoddesdon, UK). The extraction was performed according to the instructions

in the protocols, with an incubation time of 90 min after adding proteinase K using the Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit.

For the amplification of the 28S rRNA gene region or ITS region, the primer sets used were NL-1F (5'-GCATATCAATAAGCGGAGGAAAAG-3') and NL-4R (5'-GGTCCGTGTTCAAGACGG-3') [26] for the sequencing of the D1/D2 region at the 5' end of the large subunit 28S rRNA gene and ITS-1 (5'-TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG-3') and ITS-4 (5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3') for sequencing of the ITS region [27]. The PCR conditions were as follows: initial denaturation at 94 °C for 2 min; 36 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 0.5 min, annealing at 52 °C for 1 min, elongation at 72 °C for 1 min; final extension at 72 °C for 10 min, followed by a cooling phase at 4 °C for the 28S rRNA gene sequence and initial denaturation at 95 °C for 2 min; 35 cycles of denaturation at 95 °C for 0.3 min, annealing at 52 °C for 0.5 min, elongation at 72 °C for 1.5 min; final extension at 72 °C for 10 min, followed by a cooling phase at 4 °C for the ITS gene sequence. The PCR products were Sanger sequenced by Seqlab (Göttingen, Germany). Sequences were manually checked and edited with Chromas software (Version 2.6.6, Technelysium, South Brisbane, Australia). Partial sequences of other genes, namely ribosomal 18S (SSU) rRNA, *TEF1* (translation EF-1KA nucleotide sequence) and *RPB2* (RNA polymerase II subunit nucleotide sequence), were used for phylogenetic analyses of strain WT5. Amplification and sequencing of the 18S rRNA, *RPB2* and *TEF1* genes were performed with the following primer pairs: NS1 and NS8, *RPB2*-7cR and *RPB2*-5F, YTEF-1G and YTEF-6G, respectively [28–31]. Nucleotide sequences were assembled with Sequencher software (Version 5.4.6, GeneCodes Inc., Ann Arbor, MI, USA).

The gene sequences were compared with publicly available sequences from GenBank using BLAST version 2.12.0 (Basic local alignment search tool, National Centre for Biotechnological Information, Bethesda, MD, USA; [32]) and the MycoID (www.mycobank.org, accessed on 26 September 2023) database. Models and environmental samples were excluded in the search. The results of the sequencing and BLAST search are shown in Table 1.

For strain WT5, nucleotide sequence alignments were aligned in the dataset previously used by Kachalkin et al. [33] in the description and placement of *Zygorulaspora dagestanica* using the online version of the MAFFT algorithm [34]. Phylogenetic relationships in the concatenated alignment of the five loci were inferred by the Maximum-Likelihood (ML) method with RAxML GUI 2.0 [35] with 100 thorough bootstrap replicates. A model test tool implemented in the software was used to determine the best substitution model for each partition, the general time reversible model GTR + G + I (SSU and LSU), the Kimura model K80 + G (5.8S rRNA gene) and transition models TIM2 (*RPB2*) and TIM3 (*TEF1*). Single-gene best ML trees were combined into a single file and analyzed with Splitstree 4.10 [36] using the ConsensusNetwork (threshold 0.1; edges weight sum of nodes) algorithm. The approach has been previously used to visualize and delimit closely related species in the *Papiliotrema flavescentis* species complex [37] and species in the family *Saccharomycetaceae* [38]. The dataset for the multigene phylogenetic tree consisted of 48 taxa and that for the phylogenetic network was reduced to 46 taxa for the phylogenetic tree analysis to include taxa for which all sequences of the five gene regions were available. The alignment included representatives of the family *Saccharomycetaceae*, the WGD clade (the clade characterized by the whole-genome duplication) in the whole-genome analysis of ascomycetous yeasts by Shen et al. [39], as well as outgroup taxa from the families *Debaryomycetaceae*, *Phaffomycetaceae* and *Pichiaceae*. The resulting alignment consisted of 3597 characters: 1654 in the nearly complete 18S rRNA gene (SSU), 584 in D1/D2 domains of the 26S/28S rRNA gene (LSU), 160 in 5.8S rRNA gene, 448 in *TEF1* and 751 in *RPB2*.

2.4. Fatty Acid Analysis

For the analysis of fungal fatty acids, the samples were prepared in the form of fatty acid methyl esters [40] from 40 mg of yeast cell material grown on agar plates or from 20 mg of lyophilized fungal cell material. The methyl esters were chromatographically separated via the GC-MSD system 8890 (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) with a 5%

phenyl methyl silicone capillary column (0.25 mm by 30 m) and identified as previously described [41]. Samples that contained both the oleic ($C_{18:1}$ cis 9) and linolenic acid ($C_{18:3}$ cis 9, 12, 15) were additionally analyzed using a GC 2010 plus system (Shimadzu, Duisburg, Germany) with a flame ionization detector [42] and a Phenomenex ZX-WaxPlus column (0.25 mm by 30 m) to discriminate these two compounds. After relatively quantifying the samples, the degree of unsaturation (DU) within the fatty acid profiles was calculated using Formula 1. The analyzed fatty acids include data sets from growth at 10 °C with MAP treatment (20% CO_2 , 80% O_2), controls with growth at 10 °C without MA and growth at 25 °C in regular atmosphere. All fatty acid profiles are listed in Table 2 (yeasts) and Table 3 (filamentous fungi), alongside the calculated average melting temperature (WAMT) of each organisms' fatty acid profile and the DU. WAMT values were calculated according to Seel (2018) [43].

Formula (1): Formula for calculating the degree of unsaturation (DU) within the extracted fatty acids extracted from the fungal strains.

$$DU = 1 \times \% \frac{\text{monoenes}}{100} + 2 \times \% \frac{\text{dienes}}{100} + 3 \times \% \frac{\text{triene}}{100} \quad (1)$$

2.5. Physiology and Chemotaxonomy of Strains WT5 and WR1

Growth tests for strains WT5 and WR1 were performed in liquid media according to the methods described by Kurtzman et al. [44]. A Microscope Nikon ECLIPSE Ni-E equipped with phase-contrast and digital interference optics and a digital camera DS-Ri2 were used for microscopy. Polar lipid patterns of membrane lipids were extracted and analyzed for the strains WT5 and WR1 using two-dimensional thin-layer chromatography, as described previously [45]. For polar lipid extraction, the yeasts were cultivated in YE broth until the solution reached an optical density of 1.0 ± 0.2 at 625 nm. Furthermore, the fatty acids of the two yeast strains were extracted and analyzed as described above. The results are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2. Fatty acid composition of the examined yeasts under elevated CO₂ levels (20% CO₂) at 10 °C, and under normal atmospheres at 10 °C and 25 °C. The values represent the average of three biological replicates (n = 3) and the standard deviation in % of the total area of all fatty acids in the sample. WAMT resembles the weighted average melting temperature of the membrane in °C. DU shows the degree of unsaturation. nd, fatty acids not detected in the replicates.

Organisms	Growth at	C14:0	C16:0	C16:1 cis 9	C18:0	C18:1 cis 9	C18:2 cis 9, 12	C18:3 cis 9, 12, 15	C18:1 cis 11	C18:0 3OH	WAMT (°C)	DU	
<i>Candida zeylanoides</i> LR1	10 °C, CO ₂		10.4 ± 0.5	8.9 ± 1.8		38.7 ± 3.1	24.8 ± 1.9	17.3 ± 2.6			7.7 ± 0.2	1.49	
	10 °C	<1	11.5 ± 1.5	8.4 ± 2.1		39.6 ± 3.1	25.8 ± 0.5	14.7 ± 4.0		nd	8.7 ± <0.1	1.44	
	25 °C		15.1 ± 0.6	4.5 ± 0.3	<1	41.3 ± 1.7	27.0 ± 0.3	12.0 ± 1.3			11.5 ± 0.1	1.36	
<i>Pichia fermentans</i> WT2	10 °C, CO ₂		11.4 ± 1.6	19.8 ± 1.7	0.5 ± 0.2	22.9 ± 2.1	22.9 ± 1.3	22.4 ± 0.4			6.4 ± 0.7	1.56	
	10 °C	<1	11.1 ± 0.9	23.1 ± 0.4	1.0 ± 0.1	24.9 ± 1.2	27.1 ± 1.0	12.8 ± 0.5		nd	7.6 ± 0.5	1.41	
	25 °C		14.8 ± 0.4	15.7 ± 1.6	2.2 ± 0.3	21.4 ± 1.3	35.6 ± 0.2	10.3 ± 0.3			9.9 ± 0.6	1.39	
<i>Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans</i> WT5	10 °C, CO ₂		5.6 ± 0.7	74.2 ± 2.6		16.4 ± 2.0			3.8 ± 0.7		7.0 ± 0.7	0.94	
	10 °C	<1	8.3 ± 0.3	74.5 ± 0.8	<1	13.5 ± 0.3	nd	nd	3.8 ± 0.7	nd	8.4 ± 0.2	0.92	
	25 °C		9.3 ± 1.5	65.5 ± 3.3		18.2 ± 1.9			7.0 ± 1.0		10.0 ± 1.0	0.91	
<i>Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans</i> WR1	10 °C, CO ₂		8.6 ± 0.5	75.6 ± 0.1		13.1 ± 0.2			2.7 ± 0.3		8.3 ± 0.3	0.91	
	10 °C	<1	9.0 ± 0.5	79.7 ± 4.6	<1	9.2 ± 3.5	nd	nd	2.9 ± 0.8	nd	8.2 ± 0.2	0.91	
	25 °C		10.5 ± 0.4	66.4 ± 1.2		17.2 ± 1.0			5.9 ± 0.4		10.4 ± 0.4	0.89	
<i>Apioptrichum gracile</i> WT6	10 °C, CO ₂		16.2 ± 1.0	1.4 ± 0.3	2.4 ± 2.8	19.6 ± 1.0	47.2 ± 4.2	14.0 ± 1.7			8.7 ± 2.3	1.57	
	10 °C	<1	19.1 ± 1.8	2.3 ± 0.4	2.3 ± 0.4	47.5 ± 3.0	22.9 ± 3.0	5.9 ± 1.4		nd	17.2 ± 2.0	1.13	
	25 °C		20.8 ± 1.1	0.8 ± 0.3	3.9 ± 1.2	24.0 ± 1.7	46.4 ± 2.8	4.2 ± 3.9			14.9 ± 0.6	1.30	
<i>Candida oleophila</i> WT7	10 °C, CO ₂		12.4 ± 0.5	12.4 ± 1.1	0.3 ± 0.1	35.6 ± 0.4	19.1 ± 0.9	20.1 ± 0.3			8.9 ± 0.3	1.37	
	10 °C	<1	14.3 ± 0.5	15.7 ± 1.0	0.8 ± 0.1	41.9 ± 3.8	16.8 ± 1.3	10.3 ± 2.7		nd	nd	12.6 ± 1.1	1.22
	25 °C		14.7 ± 0.4	1.8 ± 0.1	3.7 ± 0.3	47.8 ± 0.7	23.7 ± 0.4	8.2 ± 0.8				15.2 ± 0.6	1.22
<i>Candida sake</i> HT4	10 °C, CO ₂		11.1 ± 0.5	11.5 ± 2.7	0.7 ± 0.3	34.0 ± 8.8	28.7 ± 6.8	14.0 ± 4.5			8.2 ± 0.2	1.45	
	10 °C	<1	14.3 ± 1.2	14.7 ± 0.1	1.1 ± 0.1	50.5 ± 3.4	13.7 ± 3.1	5.8 ± 1.6		nd	nd	14.6 ± 1.6	1.10
	25 °C		12.3 ± 0.7	10.5 ± 0.2	1.5 ± 0.3	48.0 ± 4.6	23.0 ± 3.1	4.7 ± 1.3				12.8 ± 0.8	1.19
<i>Rhodotorula alborubescens</i> M3	10 °C, CO ₂		10.4 ± 0.5	0.9 ± 0.1	1.9 ± 0.1	28.5 ± 0.8	39.1 ± 1.1	19.2 ± 0.4			6.4 ± 0.4	1.65	
	10 °C	<1	20.4 ± 1.3	1.4 ± 0.2	2.4 ± 0.5	46.8 ± 2.3	20.9 ± 2.1	8.1 ± 1.4		nd	nd	17.9 ± 1.5	1.14
	25 °C		18.1 ± 0.5	0.4 ± 0.1	4.0 ± 0.2	54.3 ± 0.8	17.6 ± 0.6	5.6 ± 0.4				19.0 ± 0.3	1.06
<i>Rhodotorula babjevae</i> M12	10 °C, CO ₂	1.0 ± <0.1	13.7 ± 0.3	2.1 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.2	25.8 ± 0.9	25.6 ± 0.2	18.9 ± 0.3			11.5 ± 0.5	1.70	
	10 °C	1.0 ± 0.2	16.9 ± 0.9	3.2 ± 0.5	1.0 ± 0.4	36.5 ± 2.8	15.5 ± 0.8	9.6 ± 2.3		nd	16.1 ± 1.3	1.48	
	25 °C	1.1 ± 0.1	17.7 ± 1.2	1.2 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.2	39.0 ± 3.3	20.2 ± 2.9	10.3 ± 1.9			8.5 ± 0.5	22.1 ± 1.7	1.38

Table 3. Fatty acid composition of the examined filamentous fungi under elevated CO₂ levels (20% CO₂) at 10 °C, and under normal atmospheres at 10 °C and 25 °C. The values represent the average of three biological replicates (n = 3; except for M2 10 °C, where n = 2) and the standard deviation in % of the total area of all fatty acids in the sample. WAMT resembles the weighted average melting temperature of the membrane in °C. DU shows the degree of unsaturation. * R. oryzae M1 has C18:3 cis 6, 9, 12 instead of C18:3 cis 9, 12, 15.

Organisms	Growth at	C16:0	C16:1 cis 9	C18:0	C18:1 cis 9	C18:2 cis 9, 12	C18:3 cis 9, 12, 15	WAMT (°C)	DU
<i>Penicillium rubens</i> IF2SW-F4	10 °C, CO ₂	8.8 ± 0.5		6.5 ± 1.0	11.1 ± 1.7	43.7 ± 3.8	30.0 ± 4.8	4.7 ± 0.2	1.89
	10 °C	14.9 ± 0.6	<1	7.2 ± 1.4	10.2 ± 1.2	51.0 ± 2.7	16.7 ± 0.6	10.0 ± 1.7	1.64
	25 °C	16.1 ± 1.1		3.6 ± 0.9	8.7 ± 0.5	60.0 ± 2.7	11.6 ± 1.0	8.0 ± 1.3	1.63
<i>Penicillium rubens</i> DSM 1075	10 °C, CO ₂	8.9 ± 0.4		6.8 ± 2.9	4.2 ± 2.2	47.3 ± 4.6	32.8 ± 4.5	3.6 ± 1.4	1.97
	10 °C	10.6 ± 1.3	<1	10.1 ± 2.9	2.7 ± 0.9	44.5 ± 6.2	33.0 ± 5.6	6.8 ± 1.5	1.91
	25 °C	16.0 ± 1.6		4.0 ± 0.6	3.5 ± 0.5	61.5 ± 5.2	15.1 ± 3.2	7.0 ± 1.6	1.72
<i>Penicillium griseofulvum</i> HR2	10 °C, CO ₂	10.5 ± 1.2	1.6 ± 0.5	2.3 ± 1.1	6.9 ± 1.0	64.2 ± 3.3	14.5 ± 2.3	2.7 ± 1.8	1.80
	10 °C	13.0 ± 0.4	1.6 ± 0.3	4.2 ± 0.8	8.0 ± 0.9	55.7 ± 3.3	17.5 ± 2.2	6.0 ± 0.5	1.74
	25 °C	14.8 ± 0.9	0.8 ± 0.1	2.9 ± 0.3	8.0 ± 0.4	70.2 ± 2.2	3.4 ± 1.1	6.8 ± 0.8	1.59
<i>Didymella corylicola</i> LT1	10 °C, CO ₂	14.8 ± 2.3	3.9 ± 0.7	1.5 ± 0.2	12.9 ± 2.2	58.6 ± 2.3	8.4 ± 2.6	6.8 ± 2.2	1.59
	10 °C	18.8 ± 1.5	8.1 ± 2.2	3.0 ± 1.0	33.8 ± 3.9	33.8 ± 5.0	2.5 ± 0.5	15.5 ± 2.0	1.17
	25 °C	14.4 ± 1.8	1.0 ± 0.6	2.8 ± 0.1	20.7 ± 5.4	57.9 ± 6.5	3.2 ± 1.5	9.1 ± 2.4	1.47
<i>Neurospora tetraspora</i> KR3	10 °C, CO ₂	10.2 ± 1.8	1.5 ± 1.0	1.5 ± 0.4	5.8 ± 0.6	54.3 ± 2.4	26.8 ± 3.5	1.1 ± 1.7	1.96
	10 °C	12.1 ± 1.3	3.2 ± 0.8	4.7 ± 1.8	15.5 ± 3.2	53.2 ± 1.6	11.2 ± 1.3	7.7 ± 1.6	1.59
	25 °C	15.0 ± 1.2	1.5 ± 0.1	8.0 ± 2.8	25.7 ± 3.0	45.0 ± 3.1	4.8 ± 2.2	14.4 ± 2.1	1.32
<i>Penicillium tardochrysogenum</i> TS1	10 °C, CO ₂	11.0 ± 1.1		4.5 ± 0.4	13.4 ± 1.5	42.5 ± 4.2	28.5 ± 6.5	5.4 ± 1.1	1.84
	10 °C	13.8 ± 0.9	<1	5.8 ± 0.9	10.7 ± 1.3	44.0 ± 2.6	25.6 ± 3.3	7.9 ± 0.4	1.76
	25 °C	15.0 ± 0.4		2.5 ± 0.4	23.3 ± 3.0	50.4 ± 6.9	8.8 ± 3.3	9.4 ± 0.9	1.50
<i>Penicillium griseofulvum</i> TS2	10 °C, CO ₂	10.3 ± 0.8	1.7 ± 0.9	2.5 ± 1.1	6.2 ± 1.4	64.6 ± 4.8	14.7 ± 2.3	2.6 ± 1.5	1.81
	10 °C	12.9 ± 0.6	1.6 ± 0.4	2.6 ± 0.8	8.1 ± 0.8	60.8 ± 3.5	14.0 ± 4.2	4.9 ± 0.6	1.73
	25 °C	14.6 ± 1.0	0.8 ± 0.1	3.0 ± 0.6	8.6 ± 0.7	70.2 ± 3.0	2.7 ± 0.9	6.9 ± 1.2	1.58
<i>Rhizopus oryzae</i> M1 *	10 °C, CO ₂	25.5 ± 4.4	8.0 ± 2.9	2.1 ± 0.3	35.1 ± 4.1	11.6 ± 2.0	17.7 ± 4.8	19.2 ± 4.0	1.19
	10 °C	20.3 ± 0.4	5.0 ± 1.0	6.5 ± 2.5	50.4 ± 1.6	8.8 ± 2.4	9.0 ± 2.0	22.0 ± 2.3	1.00
	25 °C	22.0 ± 3.5	0.9 ± 0.4	6.1 ± 1.1	42.1 ± 1.5	19.4 ± 1.5	9.5 ± 1.4	20.9 ± 2.8	1.10
<i>Cladosporium subuliforme</i> M2	10 °C, CO ₂	20.6 ± 2.2		2.4 ± 0.4	16.2 ± 0.9	49.9 ± 2.1	10.9 ± 0.8	11.7 ± 1.5	1.49
	10 °C	22.8 ± 1.6	<1	5.4 ± 2.8	28.2 ± 0.2	37.3 ± 0.1	6.3 ± 0.8	18.1 ± 1.0	1.22
	25 °C	29.1 ± 2.4		8.4 ± 1.8	33.7 ± 0.8	27.9 ± 4.0	0.9 ± 0.2	26.1 ± 2.7	0.92
<i>Alternaria alstroemeriae</i> M4	10 °C, CO ₂	14.6 ± 1.5	0.9 ± <0.1	5.0 ± 1.0	8.3 ± 1.6	63.7 ± 1.3	7.5 ± 2.0	8.2 ± 1.7	1.59
	10 °C	24.1 ± 1.3	1.3 ± <0.1	6.2 ± 1.1	16.9 ± 0.6	47.6 ± 3.2	4.0 ± 0.2	17.5 ± 1.9	1.25
	25 °C	22.3 ± 2.2	1.5 ± 0.1	6.2 ± 0.6	33.9 ± 2.3	35.8 ± 0.6	0.3 ± <0.1	20.0 ± 1.6	1.08
<i>Penicillium glandicola</i> M6	CO ₂	12.0 ± 0.7	2.8 ± 0.3	2.4 ± 0.4	7.7 ± 1.3	61.3 ± 2.0	13.9 ± 2.7	4.1 ± 0.6	1.75
	10 °C	12.9 ± 0.6	1.2 ± 0.1	8.3 ± 0.2	17.0 ± 1.7	50.6 ± 0.9	10.0 ± 2.5	11.2 ± 0.8	1.49
	25 °C	16.4 ± 1.4	1.4 ± 0.1	6.9 ± 1.4	36.7 ± 2.1	37.3 ± 1.5	1.4 ± 0.5	16.9 ± 1.8	1.17

3. Results

3.1. Growth Assessment

The growth of all strains used in this study decreased under MAP, except for the two yeast strains *Candida sake* HT4 and *P. fermentans* WT2, which grew as well as in the control cultures under normal atmosphere. A general observation in light of consistency was that the yeast appearance on the CO₂-incubated plates was generally more mucous than that of the controls. The mycelial clumps in liquid culture were observed to be smaller and denser under MA in most of the cases. Furthermore, in terms of pigmentation, differences were noticed between cultures grown under elevated CO₂ concentrations and controls. Unusual orange to pink pigmentation was observed in the CO₂ samples of *C. sake* HT4, *P. fermentans* WT2, strains WT5 and WR1, as well as *Candida oleophila* WT7, while the controls were generally white to beige in color. In filamentous fungi, the most apparent pigmentation change was noted in *P. rubens* DSM 1075, which developed a pink color under CO₂ (from originally white), and *Penicillium griseofulvum* HR2, *P. rubens* IF2SW-F4, *Penicillium tardochrysogenum* TS1 and *Penicillium griseofulvum* TS2, which equally changed from a white and beige to a yellowish to orange color. The formation of exudates, which has been observed in *P. rubens* IF2SW-F4, *P. griseofulvum* HR2 and especially *P. glandicola* M6 under normal atmospheres on solid medium, was strongly reduced under elevated CO₂ conditions.

The pH value of the agar was lowered due to carbonic acid formation after MAP, leading to a decrease from 7.0 ± 0.1 under normal atmosphere at 10 °C to a pH of 6.1 ± 0.1 under increased CO₂ levels.

3.2. Phylogenetic Analyses

The multi-locus phylogenetic analysis located the yeast strain WT5 in a well-supported (bootstrap value of 100% for the ML tree) clade composed of genera *Kazachstania*, *Naumovozyma*, *Saccharomyces*, *Nakaseomyces*, *Yueomyces*, *Tetrapisispora*, *Torulaspora*, *Zygotorulaspora*, *Zygosaccharomyces* and *Vanderwaltozyma* (Figure 1). The sub-clade containing genera *Kazachstania*, *Yueomyces*, *Tetrapisispora* and the novel yeast received moderate (bootstrap value of 70% for the ML tree) support in the analysis. The phylogenetic analysis was consistent with previous analyses by Kachalkin et al. [33] and Shen et al. [39]. The potential new yeast species was placed in the phylogenetic tree close to the genera *Tetrapisispora* and *Yueomyces*, although the support for the placement was weak (Figure 1). The main clade of the genus *Tetrapisispora* received very good (ML: 100%) support and *Tetrapisispora blattae* clustered as the next species with good (ML: 83%) support. The phylogenomic analysis by Shen et al. [39] demonstrated the polyphyly of the genus *Tetrapisispora* and the placement of the species *Tetrapisispora blattae* close to *Yueomyces sinensis*. In the same analysis, *Vanderwaltozyma polyspora* was clustered with other *Tetrapisispora* species.

The network analyses revealed a complex structure of the clade and showed discrepancies between single-gene datasets (Figure 2). In agreement with previous results, the genus *Kazachstania* displayed high genetic heterogeneity and shared ancestry with *Naumovozyma* (see also [39]). Compared to other genera, *Tetrapisispora blattae* was rather distant from the type species of the genus *Tetrapisispora phaffii*, corroborating the results of the previous phylogenomic study [39]. The strain WT5 was placed in the network between *Yueomyces sinensis* and *Vanderwaltozyma polyspora*. Taking into consideration relative position and distances between taxa in the phylogenetic tree and network analyses and the phylogenomic analysis of Shen et al. [39], it is very unlikely that the novel yeast species will build a good phylogenetic cluster either with *Tetrapisispora phaffii*, *Tetrapisispora blattae*, *Yueomyces sinensis* or *Vanderwaltozyma polyspora*. The new yeast is as distant from the aforementioned taxa as the members of different genera comprising the WGD clade [39].

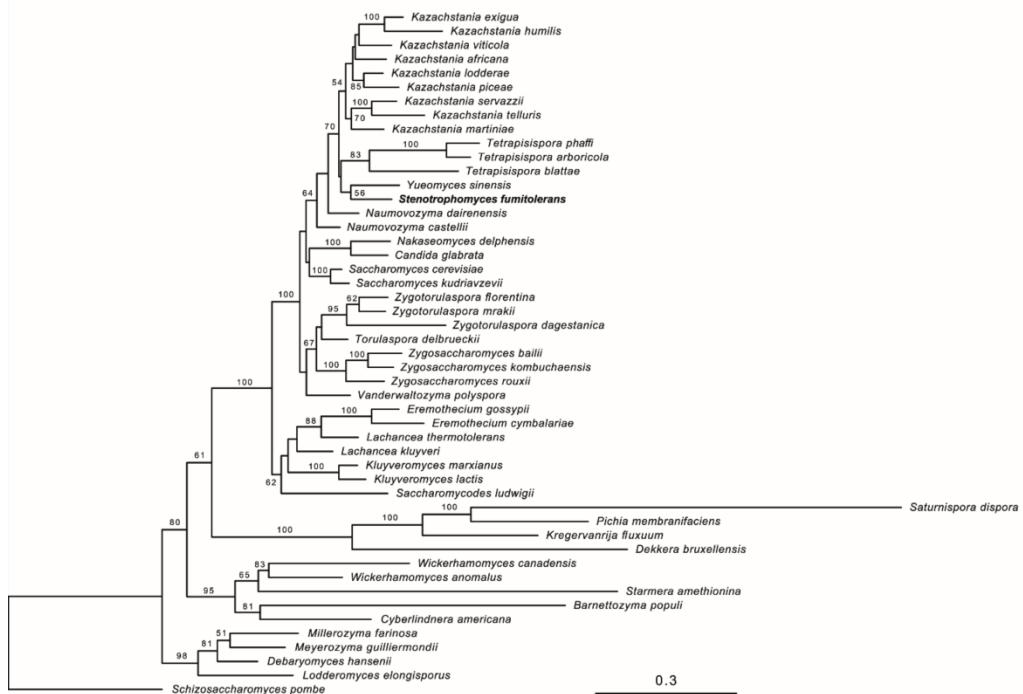


Figure 1. Maximum likelihood tree of *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* WT5 sp. nov. and related species of the family *Saccharomycetaceae* with outgroup taxa from families *Debaryomycetaceae*, *Phaffomycetaceae* and *Pichiaceae* obtained from the combined analysis of SSU, 5.8S rRNA, LSU, TEF1 and RPB2 genes. The tree is rooted with sequences of *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*. The numbers provided on branches are frequencies (>50%) with which a given branch appeared in 100 through bootstrap replications. The scale bars indicate the numbers of expected substitutions accumulated per site. Accession numbers of nucleotide sequences are provided in Supplementary Table S1.

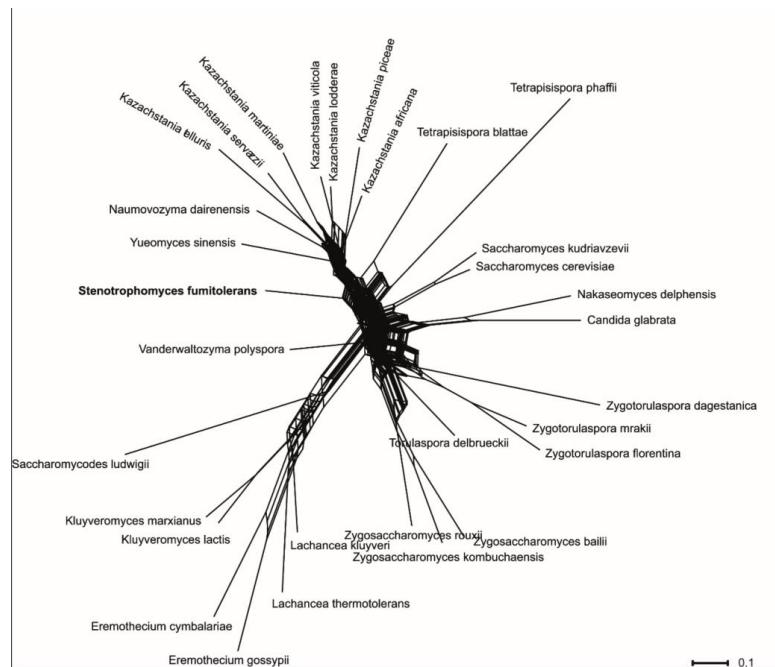


Figure 2. Consensus network obtained from the combined analyses of single-gene maximum likelihood trees of SSU, 5.8S rRNA, LSU, TEF1 and RPB2 alignments. The scale indicates mean distance obtained from the analysis of single-gene trees. Accession numbers of nucleotide sequences are provided in Supplementary Table S1.

3.3. Fatty Acid Compositions

The fatty acid composition of the fungi analyzed in this work mainly consisted of palmitic and stearic acids, as well as their unsaturated derivatives. *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* WT5 and WR1 both lacked polyunsaturated linoleic and linolenic acids. *R. oryzae* M1 was the only species with γ - instead of α -linolenic acid, which has been reported to be a characteristic of *Zygomycetes* [46]. Figure 3 displays the differences between the MAP-treated samples and the controls (at 10 °C, with natural atmospheric composition) as a heatmap. The WAMT values of the CO₂-treated samples were lower in comparison to the controls in every case—except for *S. fumitolerans* WR1—meaning that the organisms increasingly synthesize fatty acids with lower melting temperatures, which fluidizes the membranes. This is mainly due to the elevated DU, which was increased for all samples treated with increased CO₂ levels. The effect of carbon dioxide on the WAMT values and the DU was much higher than the effect from the temperature shift from 25 to 10 °C.

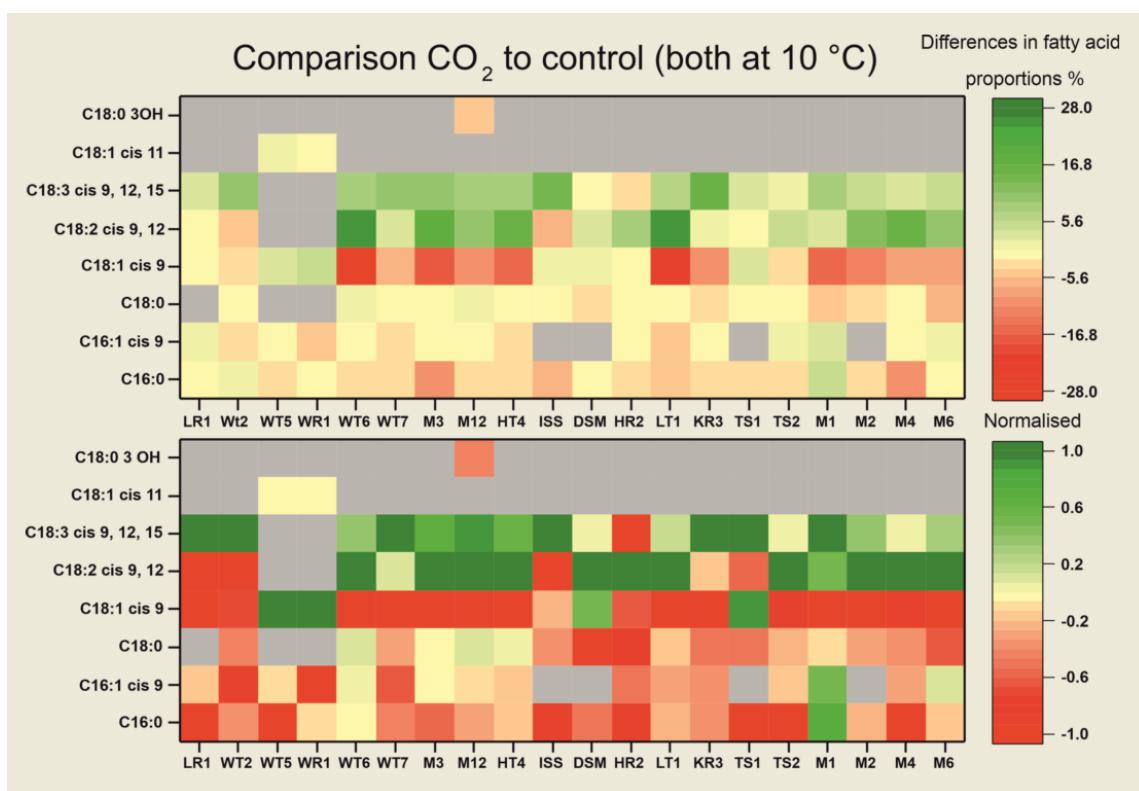


Figure 3. Comparison of averaged changes in total fatty acid compositions of MAP-treated samples at 10 °C to the controls at 10 °C. Increases in fatty acid contents of MAP-treated samples compared to the controls are highlighted in green, while decreases are highlighted in the red with the intensity of the color correlating to the extent of the difference. In the lower graph, differences in the fatty acid contents are normalized in order to individually display changes for each sample. When a fatty acid is not detected in a sample or the content is below <1%, it is not included, and is therefore displayed in grey. The organisms are mentioned by their strain designations. "DSM" resembles the strain DSM 1075, and "ISS" resembles the strain IF2SW-F4.

As can be seen in the upper graph of Figure 3, *Apotrichum gracile* WT6, *Didymella corylicola* LT1, *Rhodotorula alborubescens* M3 and *C. sake* HT4 show the strongest adaptation to CO₂-enriched atmosphere at 10 °C incubation temperature in terms of changed fatty acid incorporation. Changes in the WAMT values and proportions of fatty acid are displayed in Tables 2 and 3. The organisms *Candida zeylanoides* LR1, *P. rubens* DSM 1075 and *S. fumitolerans* WR1, on the other hand, do not show any significant changes ($p > 0.05$).

Moreover, *S. fumitolerans* WT5, *P. tardochrysogenum* TS1 and *P. griseofulvum* TS2 only have one significant change ($p < 0.05$), namely a slightly decreased proportion of C_{16:0} under increased CO₂ concentrations. In the lower graph, displaying the normalized values, it is noticeable that under CO₂ the proportion of C_{18:3} cis 9, 12, 15 (or C_{18:3} cis 6, 9, 12 in the case of *R. oryzae* M1) is increased in almost all species or remains the same, whereas it is only decreased in *P. griseofulvum* HR2. The same applies for C_{18:2} cis 9, 12, which is increased in most species, but decreased in *C. zeylanoides* LR1, *P. fermentans* WT2, *P. rubens* IF2SW-F4, *N. tetraspora* KR3 and *P. tardochrysogenum* TS1. Furthermore, most species have a decreased content of C_{18:1} cis 9 under elevated CO₂ levels, except for *S. fumitolerans* WT5 and WR1, where it increased as the only unsaturated fatty acid present, which was also observed for *P. rubens* DSM1075 and *P. tardochrysogenum* TS1. The contents of C_{16:0}, C_{16:1} cis 9 and C_{18:0} remained the same or were reduced under CO₂, except for *R. oryzae* M1, where C_{16:0} and C_{16:1} cis 9 increased under CO₂.

As for the changes in fatty acids after incubation at increased temperatures of 25 °C, the total DU is lower, compared to the strains cultivated at 10 °C with carbon dioxide treatment and to the controls. This consequently led to an elevated WAMT value for those samples (Tables 2 and 3). The most significant changes occur in *A. gracile* WT6, *P. rubens* DSM1075, *P. glandicola* M6, *Alternaria* sp. M4 and *D. prosopidis* LT1. The main differences between the fatty acids of fungi grown at 10 °C and at 25 °C are the decrease in linolenic acid and the increase in linoleic acid at 25 °C. Moreover, the content of the palmitoleic acid is decreased, particularly in yeasts. The contents of oleic and palmitic acid, on the other hand, are highest at the elevated temperature and lowest at CO₂ treatment.

3.4. Taxonomy of Novel Yeast Species

The sequence analyses of strains WT5 and WR1 revealed that these strains represent a new species. Physiologically, the new yeast species is characterized by a narrow spectrum of utilized carbon and nitrogen compounds and shares this similarity with members of the genus *Tetrasisporispora* and *Yueomyces*, with *Yueomyces sinensis* being the only known species of the genus. The new species ferments and assimilates glucose and galactose, and can additionally grow on trehalose (and also ferments it) and glycerol, which makes it a potential food spoilage microorganism. The new yeast shares these physiological properties with *Tetrasisporispora namnaonensis* and differs from this species in the ability to grow in the presence of 50% glucose (negative for *T. namnaonensis*) and 10% NaCl (negative for strains WT5 and WR1). The yeast is homothallic and produces unconjugated autogamic or pedogamic persistent ascii; it does not produce true hyphae. The neighboring genera *Tetrasisporispora*, *Yueomyces* and *Vanderwaltozyma* are characterized by a remarkable diversity of morphological features of sexual reproduction (the formation of ascii and ascospore numbers). Neither growth characteristics nor sexual reproduction can be used to convincingly support the placement of this yeast in either of these genera. Taking into account the position of the new yeast in multi-locus phylogenetic analyses, the physiological profile and culture characteristics, we decided to propose a new genus for these yeast strains rather than to place them in any of the already existing genera. We advocate that it is better to propose a new genus to accommodate this single-species lineage than to substantially increase phylogenetic heterogeneity of the neighboring genera, be that *Tetrasisporispora*, *Yueomyces* or *Vanderwaltozyma*.

The polar lipid pattern consisted of phosphatidylethanolamine, dimethyl-phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylcholine and phosphatidylinositol. The fatty acid profiles of strains WT5 and WR1 were similar under all conditions, including MAP treatment and different incubation temperatures. At 25 °C, the main fatty acids of these organisms consisted of C_{16:1} cis 9 (65.5 to 66.4%), C_{18:1} cis 9 (17.2 to 18.2%) and C_{16:0} (9.3 to 10.5%). At 10 °C the amount of C_{16:1} cis 9 was increased to 74.5 to 79.7%, whereas both C_{18:1} fatty acids were lowered. Exposition to elevated amounts of CO₂ did not have a strong effect on the fatty acid profile in contrast to the temperature change. Polyunsaturated fatty acids were missing, which was only described for a few other members of the family

Saccharomycetaceae, such as *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* [47], as well as for other yeast genera such as *Hanseniaspora* and *Schizosaccharomyces* [48].

The strains WT5 and WR1 were deposited at the DSMZ (Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen) under the strain numbers DSM 113852 and DSM 113853, respectively.

3.5. Description of *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* Gen. Nov., Sp. Nov.

Stenotrophomyces, D. Heidler von Heilborn, J. Reinmüller, A. Yurkov, P. Stehle, R. Möller, A. Lipski, gen. nov. MB# 849905

Ethymology: The genus name refers to the narrow assimilation spectrum of carbon sources.

Description: Cells are ellipsoid, ovoid or elongate and reproduce by multilateral budding. Ascii with one or two spherical ascospores. Narrow assimilation spectrum of carbon sources. Glucose and galactose are fermented. Growth in vitamin-free medium. No starch-like substance is produced. Urea hydrolysis and the Diazo blue B reaction are negative.

Type species: *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans*

Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans, D. Heidler von Heilborn, J. Reinmüller, A. Yurkov, P. Stehle, R. Möller, A. Lipski, sp. nov. MB# 849906

Ethymology: The species name refers to the ability of the species to tolerate CO₂-rich environments.

On Glucose Peptone Yeast Extract Agar (GPY) and 5% malt extract agar (MEA), after 7 days at 22 °C, the streak is cream-colored, butyrous and smooth, with an entire margin. The profile is flat. Cells are ovoid to ellipsoid, 2.5–6.0 × 2.0–4.0 µm, singly occur and in pairs (Figure 4). Pseudohyphae and true hyphae are not formed on GPY, MEA, potato dextrose agar or corn meal agar. Growth on minimal medium without amino acids. Vegetative reproduction is by multilateral budding.



Figure 4. *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* WT5 cells and ascospores on minimal medium after 7 days at 22 °C obtained with DIC optic.

Ascospores are produced by both strains on GPY, MEA and on minimal medium without amino acids after 7–14 days at 22 °C (Figure 4). Ascii are persistent, often uncon-

jugated or arise following conjugation between a cell and its bud. One or two spheroid (diameter of 2.5–3.0 μm) ascospores are formed per ascus.

Fermentation of d-glucose, d-galactose and trehalose is positive. Glucose, d-galactose, trehalose and glycerol are assimilated. No growth occurs on l-sorbose, d-glucosamine, d-ribose, d-xylose, l-arabinose, d-arabinose, sucrose, maltose, methyl α -d-glucoside, cellobiose, salicin, melibiose, lactose, raffinose, melezitose, inulin, soluble starch, erythritol, ribitol, l-arabinitol, d-glucitol, d-mannitol, galactitol, myo-inositol, 2-keto-d-gluconate, 5-keto-d-gluconate, d-gluconate, d-glucoronate, d-galacturonate, dl-lactic acid, succinic acid, citric acid, methanol or ethanol. Nitrogen compounds: ammonium sulfate is assimilated, but not potassium nitrate, sodium nitrite, ethylamine, l-lysine, cadaverine, creatine, creatinine, glucosamine, imidazole or d-tryptophan. Growth in the presence of 5% (w/v) NaCl and 50% (w/v) glucose is positive. Weak growth in the presence of 8% (w/v) NaCl, and no growth in the presence of 10% (w/v) NaCl and 60% (w/v) glucose. Growth in vitamin-free medium positive. No starch-like substance is produced. Urea hydrolysis and the Diazoion blue B reaction are negative. Maximum growth temperature is 28 °C. The minimum growth temperature is 2 °C.

The holotype, strain WT5, was isolated from a vegetarian wrap in June 2020 in Bonn (Germany). It is preserved in a metabolically inactive state in the German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures, Braunschweig, Germany, under the number DSM 113852. The isotype is preserved in a metabolically inactive state in the CBS culture collection of the Westerdijk Fungal Biodiversity Institute (Utrecht, the Netherlands) under the number CBS 18379 and in the HAMBI microbial culture collection, Helsinki, Finland, under the number HAMBI 3777.

Other strains studied: paratype WR1 (DSM 113853, HAMBI 3776) from the same source.

4. Discussion

Elevated concentrations of carbon dioxide cause a reduction in microbial and, in particular, fungal growth, which is technically used in MAP within the food industry [7,8]. The inhibition mechanism is not fully understood yet, but it is believed to be a complex interaction of several effects, including membrane-, ion- and pH-related effects [13]. These, for example, comprise a disorder of the phospholipids within the cell membrane caused by the CO₂ molecules [49], as well as a decrease in extra- and intracellular pH, leading to an inhibition of microbial growth and elevated energy consumption to maintain pH homeostasis [13,50]. Due to its ability to solve in water and fat [51], it is very likely that the inhibition mechanism of carbon dioxide includes the phospholipid bilayer of the membrane as a target. This can be assessed by analyzing the fatty acid composition. We assumed that CO₂ stress would lead to a fluidization of the membrane to which the organisms react by incorporation of fatty acids with a higher melting temperature, leading to a solidification of the membrane and an increase of the WAMT. Other fat-soluble stressors have already been found to have an impact on the polar lipid and fatty acid compositions of microorganisms by disturbing the lipid layer, such as the amphiphilic ethanol [52]. It was shown in *S. cerevisiae* that its ethanol tolerance is highly dependent on the oleic acid content [53].

We found that carbon dioxide stress resulted in a significant elevation of the DU of fatty acids in yeasts and filamentous fungi, mainly due to the increased incorporation of linolenic acid. The WAMT did slightly decrease, meaning that no solidification of the membrane was observed, but a fluidization of the membrane. On the contrary, increased temperatures of 25 °C led to an increase of the WAMT and a decrease in the DU, indicating a solidification of the membrane in order to adapt to the elevated temperature.

In this study, several strains from natural habitats (mofettes), carbon dioxide including MA-packed food, the ISS and airborne fungi as controls were used to study commonly used adaptation mechanisms to elevated CO₂ levels. In addition to the elevated carbon dioxide levels, temperature adjustments were tested as comparative parameters, where fatty acid modifications served as a reference to assess membrane fluidization effects. We found that an MA of 80% O₂ and 20% CO₂ led to reduced fungal biomass production, reduced

sporulation and reduced exudate formation on agar compared to the controls grown under normal atmosphere. The mycelial clumps often formed in liquid cultures were smaller and denser under MA. This could be due to the growth-inhibitory effects of CO₂. In a study by Fairclough et al., 20% CO₂ MA fungistically acted and negatively affected the growth of *Penicillium roqueforti* and the pigmentation of immature conidiospores; the effects were reversible and the pigmentation returned in the normal atmosphere [54]. The same effects of altered coloration have been observed in the present study. An MA consisting of 80% CO₂ and 20% O₂ has been reported to exert lethal effects after incubation for 60 days on *Xeromyces bisporus* and *Eurotium chevalieri* [55], but we did not observe any lethal effects in our experiments, which were performed with lower CO₂ concentrations.

We have demonstrated that artificial atmospheres with elevated CO₂ levels induce changes in the fungal fatty acid profiles. The most pronounced changes in the majority of fungi used were the higher proportions of linolenic and linoleic acids and the decreased levels of oleic acid. Consequently, these effects were displayed by the DU in the total fatty acid content, which was increased in all strains. Because of the rather low melting temperatures of the polyunsaturated fatty acids, the WAMT values were lower under elevated CO₂, indicating fluidization of the membrane. The strains did not respond to the presumed fluidizing effect of the CO₂ by solidification of their membrane through increasing the WAMT. We assume that the physiological reaction observed may be one reason, in these concentrations, for the non-lethal but growth-limiting effect of carbon dioxide. Literature on the effects of high concentrations of CO₂ on microbial fatty acids, especially on fungal fatty acids, is scarce. However, the high degree of unsaturation under CO₂, which was observed in this work, is consistent with the results for *S. cerevisiae* by Castelli et al. [56]. The group found that elevated CO₂ concentrations, as well as elevated HCO₃⁻ concentrations, lead to a higher degree of unsaturation in fatty acids and that with increasing CO₂ concentrations, regardless of the pH value, the total amount of fatty acids and lipids increases.

In contrast, meat-spoilage bacteria and green algae showed a decreased unsaturation degree due to the incorporation of mainly saturated fatty acids under 30% CO₂ and 70% O₂ in bacteria [57] and under 2% CO₂ in algae [58]. For the green algae, a total increase in fatty acids in high CO₂-treated cells was observed as well [58]. Available studies were mostly performed with very few isolates and did not cover a reasonable range of taxa. It has been furthermore suggested that the observed inhibitory effects of CO₂ may also depend on other factors, such as the incubation temperature, growth medium, water activity and pH value [59].

The exact functions of specific fatty acids in fungi have not been fully elucidated yet. Linoleic acid and its derivatives have been shown to increase conidial development in *Aspergillus* and asexual spore production, and might act as signaling molecules modulating fungal sporulation [60]. The chemical mechanism underlying the effect is the formation of oxylipins from linoleic acids or their derivatives, by the incorporation of molecular oxygen with the help of oxygenases. The enzyme activities of stearoyl-CoA Δ9 and oleoyl-CoA Δ12 desaturases have been studied in dependence of the growth stage and temperature in *Yarrowia lipolytica* [61]. At 10 °C, the maximum activity of stearoyl-CoA desaturase was half of that at 25 °C, while the oleoyl-CoA desaturase activity showed the opposite trend, which is consistent with the observed higher unsaturation at lower temperatures. In the proposed main pathway of oleic and linoleic acids in *Y. lipolytica*, linoleic acid is synthesized by the Δ12 desaturase from oleic acid on phosphatidylcholine as a carrier, while oleic acid has been formed from 18:0-CoA by the Δ9 desaturase and then by acyl exchange onto phosphatidylcholine [61].

Concerning effects on human nutrition, polyunsaturated fatty acids have been reported to have a positive impact, including cholesterol-lowering effects, leading to a reduced risk of cardiovascular diseases [62]. If the DU in yeasts and fungi is increased after incubation in a CO₂-containing MA or after CO₂ treatment in general, this modification

of the fungal lipid profile could be used in perspective when cultivating edible fungi to increase their nutritional value.

The temperature-dependent adaptation mechanisms through the change of fatty acid compositions have been found to vary between different fungal species [63] and are of interest for this study in terms of comparing membrane adaptations to temperature shifts with those to increased CO₂ concentrations. The adaptation strategy, referred to as homeoviscous adaptation, was initially reported for the bacterium *Escherichia coli*, which favored fatty acids with higher melting points when incubated at higher temperatures in order to maintain membrane fluidity [64]. This strategy was also observed in 14 out of the 20 organisms investigated in the present study, the WAMT values of which were lower when incubated at a temperature of 10 °C, mainly due to the increased amount of linolenic acid and decreased concentration of palmitic acid. Cold stress adaptation is reportedly achieved by an increased DU and a decrease in the average chain length of fatty acids [65] by the induction of fatty acid desaturases and dehydrases, which decrease the proportion of saturated fatty acids, and (less frequently) decrease the chain length [66]. Similar observations were made for the fungus *Pleurotus ostreatus*, where lowered temperatures of 12 °C resulted in an increase in fatty acid unsaturation in comparison to the controls at 27 °C, mainly by an increase in linoleic acid [16]. In the present work, the temperature change from 25 °C to 10 °C caused similar changes, namely the increased ratio of polyunsaturated to monounsaturated fatty acids. Therefore, organisms that are better adapted to cold environments have been shown to produce a higher proportion of unsaturated lipids that result in lower WAMT values—an effect that was furthermore described for the amphiphilic ethanol [53], and which we unexpectedly observed for carbon dioxide stress in this study as well. Initially, we assumed that fungi would respond to high levels of membrane-soluble CO₂, similar to their heat adaptation, by solidification of the membrane. Some organisms showed similar fatty acid profiles when grown under elevated CO₂ and under normal atmosphere at 25 °C, including *A. gracile* WT6 and *D. corylicola* LT1, both of which showed strong adaptation to elevated CO₂ and to the elevated temperature compared to the controls at 10 °C.

We found that the increase in temperature, which results in an increased WAMT for the majority of strains, does not have the same adaptation effect on fatty acid compositions as the effect of compounds that solve in water and in lipids, such as carbon dioxide, which we used in our study, or ethanol, as described in [53].

In addition, similar adaptation mechanisms were found irrespective of the origin of the strains, including moffettes, MAP food products, the ISS, with elevated CO₂ concentrations, or the airborne strains with regular atmospheric CO₂ exposition. This indicates that the increase in the unsaturation of fatty acids is a general response of yeasts and filamentous fungi to carbon-dioxide-induced stress and is different from the stress-response induced by increased temperatures.

The isolation of different strains from environments with elevated CO₂ concentrations furthermore resulted in the discovery of a new yeast genus and species proposed as *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* gen. nov., sp. nov. Investigating such extreme environments and the adapted organisms could be of great importance concerning new opportunities in biotechnology, such as pigments, enzymes or secondary metabolites [67]. In the case of MA-packed food, these organisms can also play an important role as potential food spoilage organisms, especially when they grow at low temperatures, such as *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* WT5, which demonstrates growth down to 2 °C. As mentioned above, the production of polyunsaturated fatty acids in fungi under carbon dioxide-rich conditions might be used to improve the nutritional value of food products.

Supplementary Materials: The following supporting information can be downloaded at: <https://www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/jof9101031/s1>, Table S1: List of the novel species *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* WT5, the representatives of the family *Saccharomycetaceae* and outgroup taxa from families *Debaryomycetaceae*, *Phaffomycetaceae*, and *Pichiaceae* used for multi-locus phylogenetic analysis. Type strains were used for the analysis.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, D.H.v.H. and A.L.; methodology, D.H.v.H., J.R. and A.Y.; software, D.H.v.H. and A.Y.; investigation, D.H.v.H. and J.R.; resources, D.H.v.H., J.R., A.Y., P.S. and R.M.; writing—original draft preparation, D.H.v.H.; writing—review and editing, D.H.v.H., J.R., A.Y., R.M., P.S. and A.L.; supervision, A.L.; project administration, A.L. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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Abbreviations

DLR: German Aerospace Center; DSMZ, Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen; DU, degree of unsaturation; ISS, International Space Station; MA, Modified Atmosphere; MAP, Modified Atmosphere Packaging/packed; ML, Maximum-Likelihood; ppm, parts per million; WAMT, weighted average melting temperature.

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KAPITEL 3

3.1 PUBLIKATION: *SPHINGOMONAS ALIAERIS* SP. NOV., A NEW SPECIES ISOLATED FROM PORK STEAK PACKED UNDER MODIFIED ATMOSPHERE

Die in diesem Kapitel dargestellten Ergebnisse entstammen der folgenden Originalpublikation:

Heidler von Heilborn, D., Reinmüller, J., Hölzl, G., Meier-Kolthoff, J.P., Woehle, C., Marek, M., Hüttel, B., Lipski, A. (2021) *Sphingomonas aliaeris* sp. nov., a new species isolated from pork steak packed under modified atmosphere. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 71. DOI: 10.1099/ijsem.0.004973.

Persönlicher Beitrag zur Publikation: Der persönliche Beitrag zu dieser Publikation umfasst neben dem Konzept und der Versuchsplanung auch die Durchführung aller im Artikel erwähnten Laborexperimente von mir oder Studenten unter meiner Anleitung. Darüber hinaus habe ich die Ergebnisse analysiert und interpretiert und anschließend das Manuskript vorbereitet und eingereicht.

3.2 ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

In dieser Publikation wurde der aus rohem Schweinenackensteak isolierte Bakterienstamm DH-S5^T charakterisiert und als Spezies *Sphingomonas aliaeris* neu beschrieben. Die Art wurde aus Lebensmittelproben rekultiviert, die für 40 Tage bei 4 °C inkubiert und unter modifizierter Atmosphäre mit 20 % CO₂ und 75 % O₂ als Startbedingungen verpackt wurden. Arten der Gattung *Sphingomonas* waren zuvor weder mit Lebensmittelmatrices noch mit CO₂-reichen Atmosphären assoziiert worden. Einige Spezies werden jedoch mit Trinkwasser in Verbindung gebracht (White *et al.* 1996). Die Gattung zeichnet sich darüber hinaus durch ihre Relevanz im Bereich der Bioremediation aus – viele Stämme sind in der Lage aromatische Komponenten und weitere, auch für Menschen stark toxische, Schadstoffe abzubauen, wie beispielsweise Bisphenol A oder Malachitgrün (Sasaki *et al.* 2005; Ayed *et al.* 2009). Des Weiteren ist die Gattung dafür bekannt, dass einige Stämme Sphingane, bakterielle Exopolysaccharide, produzieren, die in der Lebensmittelindustrie als essbare Membran oder als Beschichtung für Verpackungen genutzt werden können (Li *et al.* 2016; Ferreira *et al.* 2016).

Anhand der 16S rRNA-Gensequenz von DH-S5^T wurde festgestellt, dass der nächstverwandte Organismus mit 97,4 % Übereinstimmung *Sphingomonas alpina* DSM 22537^T ist, der aus Bodenproben der

Alpenregion isoliert wurde (Margesin *et al.* 2012) und im Rahmen dieser Studie – neben den Literaturreferenzen *Sphingomonas qilianensis* (97,4 % Übereinstimmung) und *Sphingomonas hylomeconis* (97,2 % Übereinstimmung) – als Vergleichsorganismus diente. Von beiden Organismen wurde anschließend das vollständige Genom mittels *Oxford Nanopore Technology* sequenziert. Die Genomlänge beträgt 4,26 Megabasenpaare (Mbp) bei DH-S5^T und 5,20 Mbp bei *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T. Die Genomanalyse ergab, dass Stamm DH-S5^T einen G+C-Gehalt von 64,4 % und *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T von 64,0 % aufweist. Die digitale DNA-DNA-Hybridisierung (dDDH) zwischen DH-S5^T und *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T ergab einen Wert von 21,0 % mit einem durchschnittlichen *average nucleotide identity*-Wert (ANI) von 77,03 %. Diese Werte liegen unter dem Schwellenwert von 70 % für dDDH und 95-96 % für ANI (Richter und Rosselló-Móra 2009), was darauf hindeutete, dass es sich bei DH-S5^T um eine neue Art der Gattung *Sphingomonas* handelte.

DH-S5^T wurde darüber hinaus mit dem Nächstverwandten *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T in Hinblick auf verschiedene Wachstumsparameter und die Physiologie verglichen. Dabei ergaben sich Unterschiede bei den optimalen Wachstumstemperaturen von 30 °C bei DH-S5^T und 25 °C bei *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T sowie bei der Oxidase-Reaktion, die nur bei DH-S5^T negativ ausfiel. Beide Organismen sind Katalase-positiv sowie Gram-negativ und wachsen aerob bei Temperaturen von 3 bis 33 °C auf R2A-Agar (*Reasoner's 2A Agar*). Die Stämme wachsen bei bis zu 0,25 % NaCl-Anwesenheit und einem pH-Wert von 6 bis 7, wobei DH-S5^T eine rote und *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T eine gelbe Koloniefarbe besitzt. Stamm DH-S5^T wächst darüber hinaus auf TSA (*Tryptic Soy Agar*), wo hingegen *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T auf Columbia-Blutagar Wachstum zeigt. DH-S5^T zeichnet sich darüber hinaus durch Wachstum unter MAP mit 80 % O₂ und insbesondere 20 % CO₂ aus. Eine Toleranz gegenüber erhöhten CO₂-Konzentrationen wurde bei der Gattung *Sphingomonas* zuvor nicht beschrieben. Mittels biochemischer Testverfahren, wie dem api-Test, wurden darüber hinaus Unterschiede in der Physiologie der beiden Stämme nachgewiesen.

Im Rahmen der Chemotaxonomie wurde auch das Fettsäureprofil, die polaren Lipide und die Chinone beider Organismen näher untersucht. Das Fettsäureprofil von DH-S5^T wurde mittels GC-FID bestimmt und enthält die für die Gattung *Sphingomonas* typischen Fettsäuren C_{18:1} cis 11 (39,3 %), C_{16:1} cis 9 (12,5 %), C_{16:0} (12,1 %) und C_{17:1} cis 11 (10,3 %) sowie die hydroxylierte Fettsäure C_{14:0} 2-OH (11,4 %) (Busse *et al.* 1999). Diese Fettsäuren sind auch bei *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T präsent, jedoch mit stärkeren Unterschieden bei den Fettsäuren C_{17:1} cis 11 (0,3 %) und C_{18:1} cis 11 (55,5 %). Als Chinon wurde bei beiden Stämmen mittels HPLC (*high performance liquid chromatography*), wie auch in der Literatur für die Gattung *Sphingomonas* beschrieben, Ubichinon 10 nachgewiesen (Yabuuchi *et al.* 1990). Darüber hinaus konnten mittels 2-DC (zweidimensionaler Dünnschichtchromatographie) und QTOF-MS

(*Quadrupole Time-of-Flight Mass Spectrometry*) die für die Gattung namensgebenden Sphingoglykoli-pide bei beiden Stämmen nachgewiesen werden (Yabuuchi *et al.* 1990). Darüber hinaus wurden PC, PE, PG, Monomethylphosphatidylethanolamin (MMPE) und Dimethylphosphatidylethanolamin (DMPE) detektiert. Der Referenzstamm *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T zeigt ein abweichendes polares Lipidprofil, bei dem zusätzlich zu den genannten Lipiden Monohexosyldiacylglycerol (MHD) und 1,2-Diacylglyceral-3-O-4'-(N,N,N-trimethyl)-Homoserin (DGTS) nachgewiesen wurde.

Vor dem Hintergrund aller aufgezeigten phänotypischen und genotypischen Unterschiede zwischen den beiden Stämmen wurde DH-S5^T als Spezies *Sphingomonas aliaeris* neu beschrieben. Aufgrund des Isolationsortes und ihrer Capno- und Psychrotoleranz ist sie als potentieller Lebensmittelverderbniserreger von Relevanz.

3.3 ORIGINALPUBLIKATION

Es folgt die oben genannte Originalpublikation mit freundlicher Genehmigung des Verlags.

Sphingomonas aliaeris sp. nov., a new species isolated from pork steak packed under modified atmosphere

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Abstract

Species belonging to the genus *Sphingomonas* have been isolated from environments such as soil, water and plant tissues. Many strains are known for their capability of degrading aromatic molecules and producing extracellular polymers. A Gram-stain-negative, strictly aerobic, motile, red-pigmented, oxidase-negative, catalase-positive, rod-shaped strain, designated DH-S5^T, has been isolated from pork steak packed under CO₂-enriched modified atmosphere. Cell diameters were 1.5×0.9 µm. Growth optima were at 30 °C and at pH 6.0. Phylogenetic analyses based on both complete 16S rRNA gene sequence and whole-genome sequence data revealed that strain DH-S5^T belongs to the genus *Sphingomonas*, being closely related to *Sphingomonas alpina* DSM 22537^T (97.4% gene sequence similarity), followed by *Sphingomonas qilianensis* X1^T (97.4%) and *Sphingomonas hylomeconis* GZJT-2^T (97.3%). The DNA G+C content was 64.4 mol%. The digital DNA–DNA hybridization value between the isolate strain and *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T was 21.0% with an average nucleotide identity value of 77.03%. Strain DH-S5^T contained Q-10 as the ubiquinone and major fatty acids were C_{18:1} cis 11 (39.3%) and C_{16:1} cis 9 (12.5%), as well as C_{16:0} (12.1%) and C_{14:0} 2-OH (11.4%). As for polar lipids, phosphatidylcholine, phosphatidylglycerol, diphosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylethanolamine, dimethylphosphatidylethanolamine and sphingoglycolipid could be detected, alongside traces of monomethyl-phosphatidylethanolamine. Based on its phenotypic, chemotaxonomic and phylogenetic characteristics, strain DH-S5^T (=DSM 110829^T=LMG 31606^T) is classified as a representative of the genus *Sphingomonas*, for which the name *Sphingomonas aliaeris* sp. nov. is proposed.

INTRODUCTION

Modified atmosphere packaging of food is used to both reduce microbial growth and extend the shelf life of food. Some bacterial taxa associated with food spoilage, such as members of the family *Pseudomonadaceae* and *Bacillaceae*, are inhibited by high CO₂ levels in packaging, whereas others, like members of the *Lactobacillaceae* or *Brochothrix thermosphacta*, can still grow under these conditions [1, 2].

In order to assess the impact of modified atmospheres with elevated CO₂ concentrations on the food-associated microbial community, the selective effect of this treatment must be analysed to exclude the enrichment of microbial populations with elevated risk potential. In the course of the characterization of microbial isolates from food packed under elevated CO₂ concentrations, one strain was preliminarily allocated to the genus *Sphingomonas*. However, until now, species of this

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Keywords: *Alphaproteobacteria*; food spoilage ; modified atmosphere packaging; novel species; *Sphingomonadaceae*; *Sphingomonas*.

Abbreviations: ANI, average nucleotide identity; dDDH, digital DNA–DNA hybridization; DGTS, 1,2-diacylglycerol-3-O-4'-(*N,N,N*-trimethyl)-homoserine; DMPE, dimethylphosphatidylethanolamine; DPG, diphosphatidylglycerol; GBDP, genome BLAST distance phylogeny; MHD, monohexosyldiacylglycerol; MMPE, monomethylphosphatidylethanolamine; NB, nutrient broth; ONT, Oxford Nanopore Technologies; PC, phosphatidylcholine; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PG, phosphatidylglycerol; SGL, sphingoglycolipid; TSA, tryptic soy agar; TYGS, Type (Strain) Genome Server. GenBank accessions for the 16S rRNA gene sequences are MT821129 (*Sphingomonas aliaeris* DH-S5^T) and MT821524 (*Sphingomonas alpina* DSM 22537^T). Genome sequences have been deposited at DDBJ/ENA/GenBank under the accessions CP061035–CP061037 (*Sphingomonas aliaeris* DH-S5^T) and CP061038 (*Sphingomonas alpina* DSM 22537^T). The versions described in this paper are versions CP061035.1, CP061036.1, CP061037.1 and CP061038.1.

One supplementary figure is available with the online version of this article.

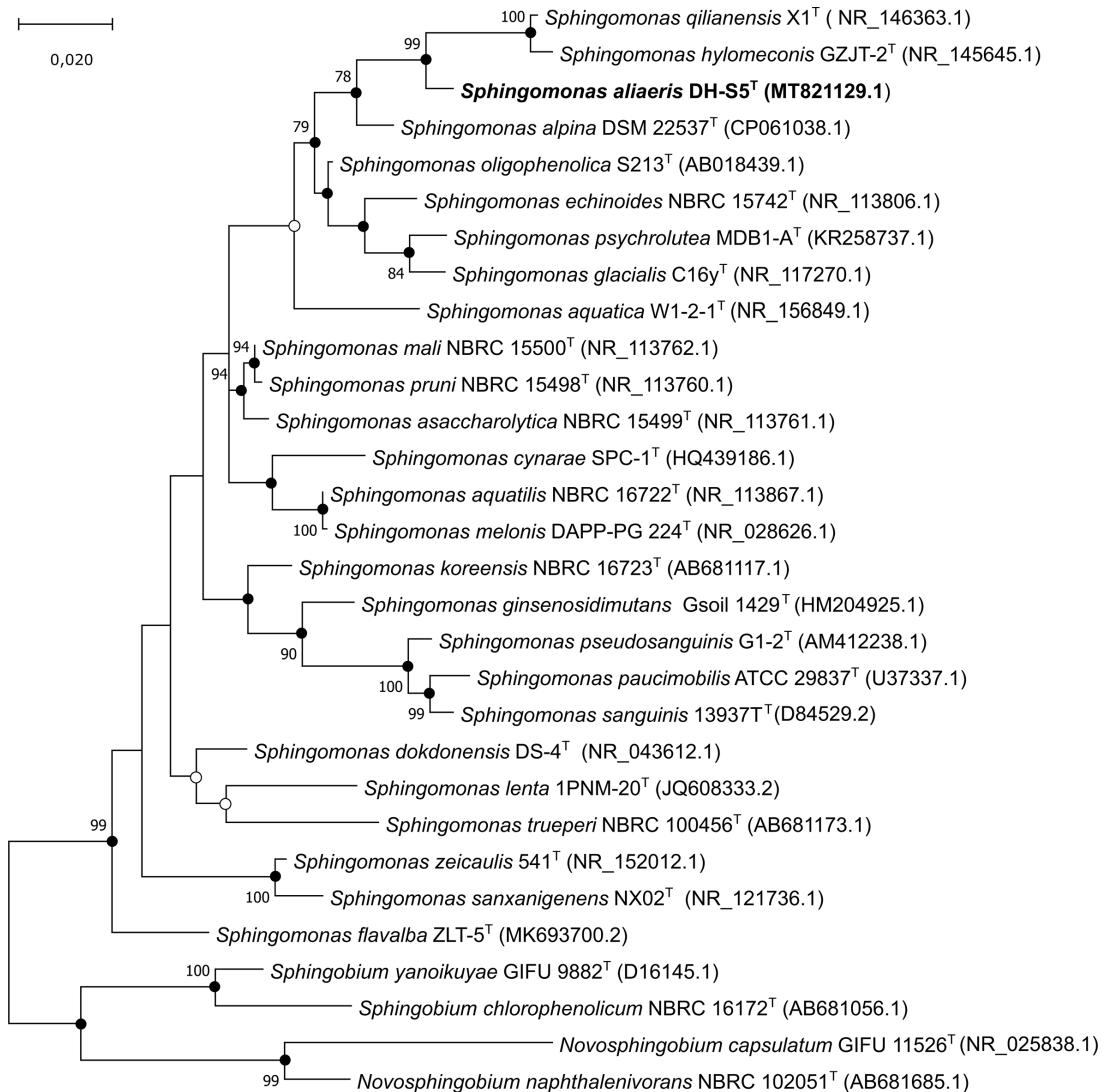


Fig. 1. The evolutionary history was inferred by using the maximum-likelihood method and Tamura's three-parameter model [21]. Bootstrap values >70% are shown next to the branches. A discrete Gamma distribution was used to model evolutionary rate differences among sites (five categories (+G, parameter=0.7019)). All positions with less than 90% site coverage were eliminated. There were a total of 1395 positions in the final dataset. Evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA X [19]. Filled circles indicate that the corresponding branches were recovered with maximum-likelihood, maximum-parsimony and neighbour-joining method. Non-filled circles indicate that the corresponding branch was recovered in at least one of the two named methods (next to maximum-likelihood). Rooted outgroups were *Novosphingobium capsulatum* GIFU 11526^T and *Novosphingobium naphthalenivorans* NBRC 102051^T. Bar represents 0.02 substitutions per site.

genus were not associated with food matrices nor environments with high CO₂ levels.

The genus *Sphingomonas*, which was defined by Yabuuchi *et al.* in 1990 and lastly emended by Feng *et al.* in 2017, belongs to the family of *Sphingomonadaceae*, being part of the *Alphaproteobacteria* [1, 2]. About 30 years after its initial description, the genus currently consists of 135 species with validly published names, which have been isolated from various surroundings, such as plant tissues, water, contaminated and uncontaminated soils, and subsurface sediments [3]. The aerobic and

Gram-stain-negative sphingomonads are characterized by the presence of ubiquinone Q-10 and the name-providing sphingoglycolipids [1]. 2-Hydroxy fatty acids, especially C_{14:0} 2-OH, are abundant in all species [4]. *Sphingomonas* species are generally known in the field of bioremediation for their ability to degrade aromatic compounds and other refractory pollutants [3]. *Sphingomonas paucimobilis*, the type species of the genus, was described to degrade malachite green, a triphenylmethane dye released in textile industry processes [5]. Furthermore, other compounds highly toxic to humans

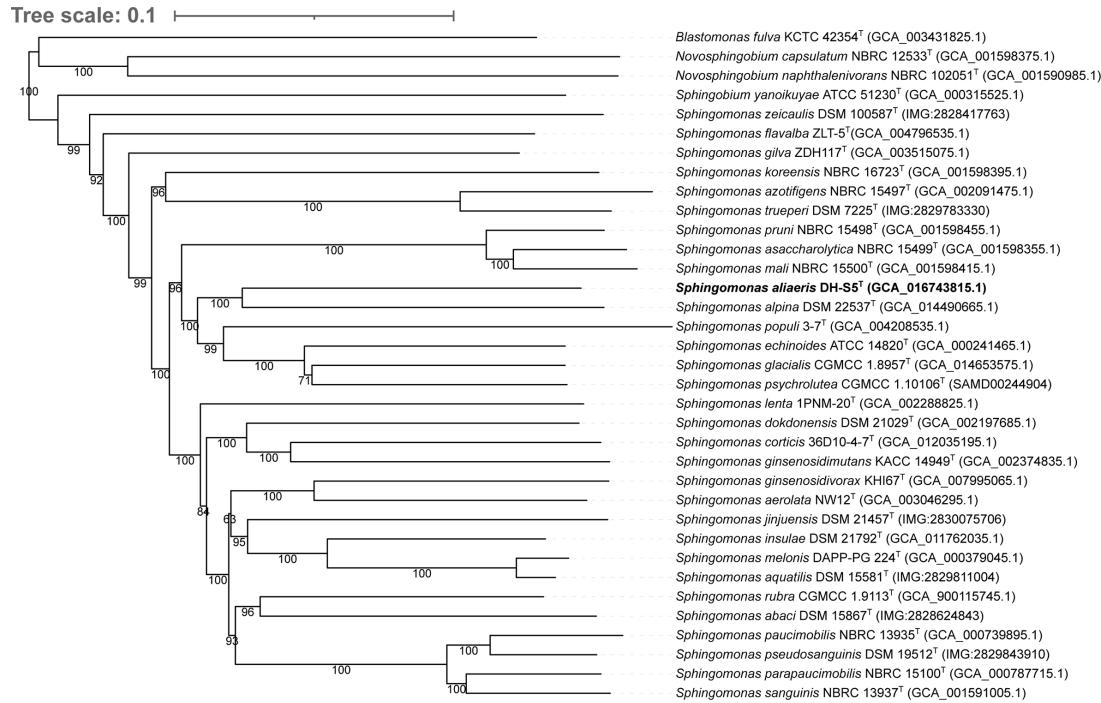


Fig. 2. Tree inferred with FastME 2.1.6.1 from whole-proteome-based GBDP distances. The branch lengths are scaled via GBDP distance formula d5. Branch values are GBDP pseudo-bootstrap support values >60% from 100 replications, with an average branch support of 90.4%. The tree was rooted at midpoint. Genome sequences obtained from the JGI/IMG database are provided by their IMG object id (indicated by the prefix 'IMG'), whereas sequences retrieved from GenBank are specified either by their assembly accessions (indicated by the prefix 'GCA') or biosample accession (indicated by the prefix 'SAM').

are reported to be degraded by different *Sphingomonas* strains [3, 6]. Furthermore, this ability is distributed among species of the closely related genera *Sphingobium* [7], *Novosphingobium* [8] and *Sphingopyxis* [9], which were separated from the genus *Sphingomonas* in 2001 due to the results of phylogenetic and chemotaxonomic analyses [10].

Another outstanding characteristic of this genus is the ability to produce so-called sphingans, bacterial exopolysaccharides. Among these polymers is gellan gum, which is used in the food industry as a stabilizing or thickening agent [11]. It is known as GelRite and, due to its higher melting point, it is used as an alternative to agar in microbial media for cultivating thermophilic micro-organisms [12]. Recently, other novel sphingans have been isolated and described [13] and are of great interest for industrial processes, such as for use as coatings or edible membranes for food packaging [14]. Additionally, only rare cases of infections caused by *Sphingomonas* strains, mainly *S. paucimobilis* [15], have been reported, making it less complicated to use them for biotechnological applications.

ISOLATION AND ECOLOGY

Strain DH-S5^T was obtained from pork steak samples packed under modified atmosphere. The packed sample was stored for 40 days at 4°C. The modified atmosphere at time of

packaging consisted of 75% O₂ and 20% CO₂, indicating that DH-S5^T is a psychrotolerant organism which endures concentrations of CO₂ 500 times higher than in Earth's atmosphere. Ten grams of the sample was cut and homogenized with 90 ml Ringer's solution (Merck). The suspension (100 µl) was plated on plate count agar (VWR International), from which the isolate was recovered. Reference strain *Sphingomonas alpina* DSM 22537^T was obtained from the Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen (DSMZ, Braunschweig, Germany). For further experiments the strains were cultivated on Reasoner's 2A (R2A) agar (Merck) and nutrient broth (NB; 5 g meat extract, 5 g peptone and 2.5 g NaCl ad 1000 ml H₂O), as reference strain *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T did not grow on tryptic soy agar (TSA; Merck). The strains were subsequently stored at -80°C using Cryobank (Mast Group).

SINGLE-GENE AND GENOME-SCALE PHYLOGENIES

Extraction of genomic DNA for 16S rRNA gene sequencing was performed with the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen) according to the instructions of the manufacturer. The 16S rRNA gene was amplified using the universal bacterial primers GM3 8F (5'-AGAGTTTGATCMTGGC-3') and GM4 1507R (5'-TACCTTGTACGACTT-3') [16]. The PCR products were purified using the QIAquick PCR Purification

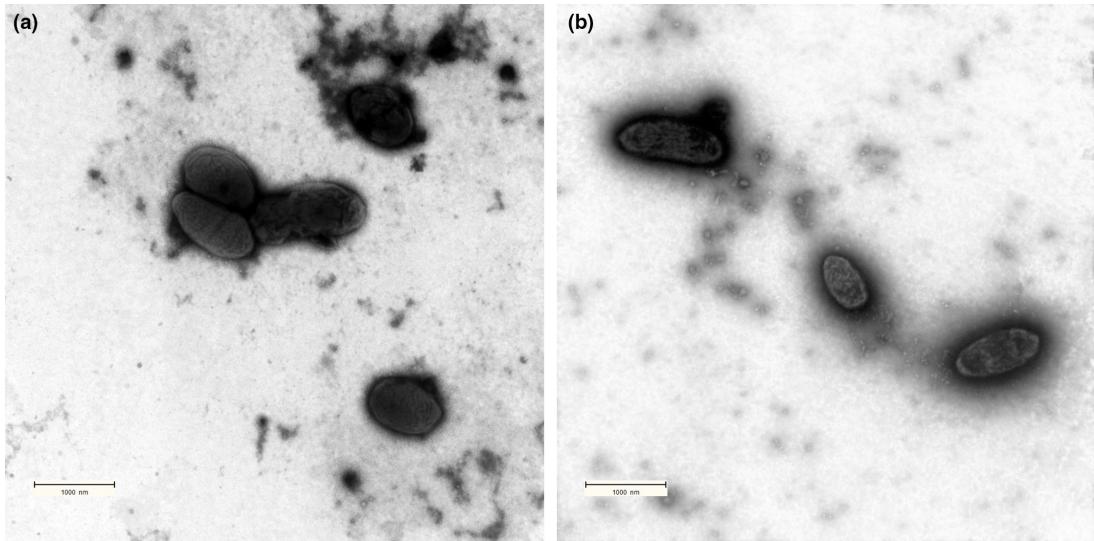


Fig. 3. Transmission electron microscope images of (a) strain DH-S5^T and (b) *Sphingomonas alpina* DSM 22537^T grown on R2A agar at 30 and 25 °C, respectively.

Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The DNA was quantified with an Epoch microplate spectrophotometer (BioTek) and Sanger sequenced by Seqlab (Göttingen, Germany). The sequencing primers used were GM1F (5'-CCAGCAGCCGCGTAAT-3') and GM8R (5'-GGACTTACCAAGGGTATCTAAT-3'). Sequences were manually checked and edited with Chromas software (version 2.6.6, Technelysium).

The nearly complete 16S rRNA gene sequence of 1404 bp was compared with type strains of validly published species in GenBank using BLAST version 2.11.0 (National Center for Biotechnological Information [17]). Highest similarity of 97.4% was shown to *S. alpina* S8-3^T (CP061038.1) and 97.4% to *Sphingomonas qilianensis* X1^T (NR_146363.1), followed by 97.2% to *Sphingomonas hylomeconis* GZJT-2^T (NR_145645.1), 96.5% to *Sphingomonas psychrolutea* MDB1-A^T (NR_137233.1) and 96.4% to *Sphingomonas glacialis* C16y^T (NR_117270.1). Meier-Kolthoff et al. [18] proposed 98.8% similarity in the 16S rRNA gene sequence as a threshold for distinction between two species, which means that isolate DH-S5^T is not a member of these species.

The phylogenetic tree of 16S rRNA gene sequences of strain DH-S5^T and type strains of the genera *Sphingomonas*, *Sphingobium* and *Novosphingobium* was reconstructed using MEGA X (version 10.1.8 [19]). The sequences were aligned using MUSCLE multiple sequence alignment for DNA [20], which is implemented in MEGA X software. A maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree was reconstructed using the Tamura three-parameter model [21]. Non-uniformity of evolutionary rates among sites were modelled by using a discrete gamma distribution (+G) with five rate categories and by assuming that a certain fraction of sites are evolutionarily invariable (+I). Model parameters were estimated using the 'Find best

DNA Models' option and selected according to the lowest Bayesian information criterion scores. Maximum-parsimony and neighbour-joining trees were reconstructed and information about tree topologies was integrated in the maximum-likelihood tree. The tree is given in Fig. 1. All trees were supported by a bootstrap test including 1000 replications.

The complete genomic DNA of DH-S5^T and *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T was purified with the MasterPure Gram Positive DNA Purification Kit (Epicentre) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The DNA was quantified and the sequencing libraries prepared, following the Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) protocol for 'Native barcoding genomic DNA', using the SQK-LSK109 and EXP-NBD104 kits. The samples were sequenced on the ONT GridION X5 system. Basecalling and demultiplexing were performed with ONT MinKNOW (version 3.6.5) and Guppy (version 3.2.10).

Genome assemblies were produced from the sequencing data via the flye assembly tool (version: 2.7b; parameters: '--genome-size 5m --asm-coverage 50' [22]). The resulting genome sequences were further processed by an initial polishing via the Racon tool (version 1.4.10; parameters: '-m 8x -6g -8w 500' [23]) based on mapping results of ONT reads to the corresponding assemblies using minimap2 (version: 2.17; parameter: '-x map-ont' [24]). This procedure was applied once. Afterwards, Medaka was used for final polishing (version 1.0.3; parameter: '-m r941_min_high_g303'; <https://github.com/nanoporetech/medaka>). Chimaera check was performed with DECIPHER (version 2.17.1).

To additionally elucidate the evolutionary relatedness of strain DH-S5^T with its closest relatives at the whole-genome level, thus promising better-resolved trees in comparison to phylogenies only based on one to only a few marker genes, a

Table 1. Differentiating characteristics of strain DH-S5^T and the reference strain, as well as strains *Sphingomonas qilianensis* X1^T and *Sphingomonas hylomeconis* GZJT-2^T

Strains: 1, DH-S5^T; 2, *Sphingomonas alpina* DSM 22537^T; 3, *Sphingomonas qilianensis* X1^T; 4, *Sphingomonas hylomeconis* GZJT-2^T. w, Weakly positive; ND, no data available.

Characteristic	1	2	3†	4‡
Pigmentation	Red	Yellow	Light yellow	Yellow
Colony diameter (mm)	<1	1.5–2.0	1.0–1.5	1.0–2.0
Cell diameter (μm)	1.5×0.9	1.9×0.8	1.2–2.0×0.4	1.4–2.2×0.6–0.7
Optimum growth temperature (°C)	30	25	15–30 (range)	25
Growth on TSA	+	–	+	+
Growth on Columbia blood agar	–	+	ND	ND
Growth with 20% CO ₂	+	–	ND	ND
Assimilation of:				
L-Arabinose	–	+	+	–
D-Mannitol	+	–	–	–
N-Acetyl-glucosamine	–	+*	–	+
Enzyme activity:				
α-Chymotrypsin	+	–*	–	–
β-Glucuronidase	+	–*	–	w
β-Galactosidase	–	+	+	–
Naphthol-AS-BI-phosphohydrolase	–	+	+	+
β-Glucosidase	–	+	+	+
β-Glucosidase (aesculin hydrolysis)	–	+	+	+

*Data differs from Margesin et al. [34].

†Data taken from Piao et al. [41].

‡Data taken from Akbar et al. [40].

genome-scale phylogenomic analysis was conducted via the Type (Strain) Genome Server (TYGS; <https://tygs.dsmz.de>) [25], as previously done for a large-scale genome-based taxonomic study of the *Alphaproteobacteria* [26]. Briefly, TYGS was used to conduct two independent GBDP (genome BLAST distance phylogeny) analyses, using either the whole-genome nucleotide sequences or amino acid sequences of the entire proteomes, including strain DH-S5^T and a set of 36 closely related type strains, which were automatically determined by TYGS. The resulting GBDP distances were used to infer balanced minimum-evolution trees via FastME 2.1.6.1 [27]. Branch support was inferred from 100 pseudo-bootstrap replicates each. The trees were rooted at the midpoint [28], and visualized with iTOL [29]. The whole-proteome sequence-based GBDP tree (Fig. 2) is considerably better supported than the whole-genome sequence-based GBDP tree (Fig. S1, available in the online version of this article) and reveals a maximally supported phylogenetic placement with the evolutionary distances to the phylogenetic neighbours supporting the status of a distinct species.

GENOME FEATURES

Meier-Kolthoff et al. [18] recommended a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 98.8% or above to be the minimal standard for comparing genome sequences, which was not the case for the strains used in this study, as the similarity was lower. 16S rRNA gene Sanger sequences were compared with the ones obtained from the genome sequences using BLAST. G+C content and ANI (average nucleotide identity) values were determined using the EzBioCloud online ANI calculator [30]. Digital DNA–DNA hybridization (dDDH) of strains DH-S5^T and *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T was performed using the Genome-to-Genome Distance Calculator (version 2.1), as described by Meier-Kolthoff et al. [31].

The genome sizes of DH-S5^T (CP061035-CP061037) and *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T (CP061038) were 4.26 and 5.20 Mbp, respectively. The genome sequence of DH-S5^T included two plasmids, pSphA1 and pSphA2 (CP061036 and CP061037), consisting of 203 and 142 Kbp, respectively. Plasmid and genome sequences were compared with sequences from type

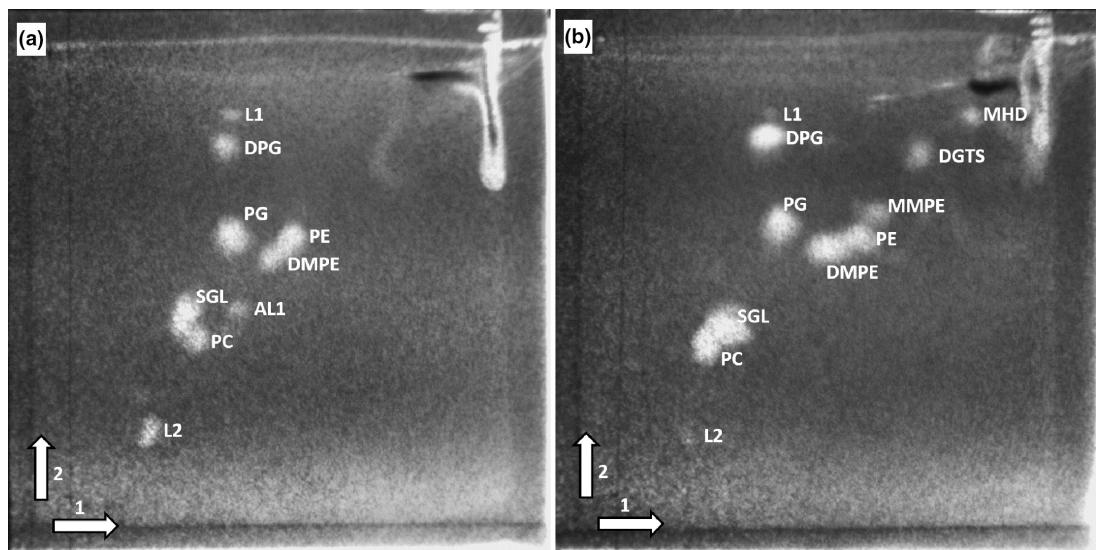


Fig. 4. Two-dimensional thin-layer chromatography showing polar lipid patterns of (a) strain DH-S5^T and (b) *Sphingomonas alpina* DSM 22537^T. Lipids are stained with primuline dye as described by White *et al.* [49]. DGTS, 1,2-diacylglycerol-3-O-4'-N,N,N-trimethyl-homoserine; DMPE, dimethylphosphatidylethanolamine; DPG, diphaspatidylglycerol; L1, unidentified lipid 1; L2, unidentified lipid 2; MHD, monohexosyldiacylglycerol; MMPE, monomethylphosphatidyl-ethanolamine; PC, phosphatidylcholine; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PG, phosphatidylglycerol; SGL, sphingoglycolipid. Dimensions are indicated by arrows.

strains of species with validly published names in GenBank using BLAST, as described above. Protein sequences were determined using the SEED Viewer and RAST (Rapid Annotation using Subsystem Technology, version 2.0 [32]). A plasmid with a high similarity of 98.5% to plasmid pSphA1 has been described for *Sphingobium cloacae* JCM 10874^T (AP017656.1). The highest similarity of 86.0% to plasmid pSphA2 was found to be an unnamed plasmid described for *Sphingomonas insulae* KCTC 12872^T (CP048421.1). Large plasmids have been found in various members of the family *Sphingomonadaceae* by several authors and are often associated with the capability of degrading aromatic molecules [33]. In the case of the plasmids found in strain DH-S5^T mainly genes related to membrane transport (cation transporters and type IV secretion system) and resistance to toxic compounds, such as copper, cobalt, zinc, cadmium and chromium, were identified. The 16S rRNA gene Sanger sequence of strain DH-S5^T included two base deletions in comparison to the ONT-based sequence. For strain *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T one deletion in the Sanger sequence could be detected. G+C content of the genome including plasmids was 64.4 mol% for DH-S5^T and 64.0% for *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T. Margesin *et al.* [34] described a highly similar content of 64.1% for *S. alpina* S8-3^T. Takeuchi *et al.* [10] described levels of 62–68% for the whole genus. The dDDH value between strain DH-S5^T and *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T was 21.0% and the ANI value was 77.03%. The proposed species boundaries for dDDH and ANI values are 70% and 95–96%, respectively [35, 36]. Therefore, based on the (phylo-)genomic data, DH-S5^T represents a novel species of the genus *Sphingomonas*.

PHYSIOLOGY AND CHEMOTAXONOMY

Physiological and chemotaxonomic characteristics of strain DH-S5^T and *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T were determined in addition to the phylogenetic and phylogenomic analyses. Colony morphology was assessed after incubation on R2A agar for 3 days at 30 °C. Additionally, growth on Columbia blood agar (Oxoid) and TSA was tested. Growth parameters were evaluated after incubation in NB by measuring the optical density at 600 nm after 24 h (for temperature optima) or 72 h, respectively. Tolerance range and optima for growth temperatures (2, 3, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 33, 35 and 37 °C), NaCl concentrations (0, 0.25, 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10 %) and different pH values (4–10, in intervals of 1 pH unit) have been analysed. Acetate buffer (pH 4.0 and 5.0), phosphate buffer (pH 6.0–8.0) and glycine buffer (pH 9.0 and 10.0) were used to adjust the pH in NB media, as previously described [37]. Anaerobic growth was tested on R2A agar in an anaerobic jar by using the Anaerocult system (Merck). Growth under modified atmosphere packaging was assessed by placing inoculated R2A agar petri dishes in a polypropylene tray (ES-Plastic), which was sealed with polyethylene foil (Südpack) by a Multivac T200 traysealer (Multivac). The most common gas composition for meat products [38], consisting of 80% O₂ and 20% CO₂, was used. The trays were incubated at 10 °C for 4 weeks after which growth was evaluated. Gas atmospheres were analysed with an Oxybaby M+ O₂/CO₂ gas analyser (WITT-Gasetechnik). Biofilm formation was analysed as previously described by Kolari *et al.* [39]. Cell morphology and dimensions, as well as motility and the presence of endospores were examined using a Zeiss Axio Observer microscope AxioScope.A1 (Carl Zeiss),

Table 2. Fatty acid patterns, detected quinones and polar lipid profiles of type strain DH-S5^T and reference strain, as well as *Sphingomonas qilianensis* X1^T and *Sphingomonas hylomeconis* GZJT-2^T

Strains: 1, DH-S5^T; 2, *Sphingomonas alpina* DSM 22537^T; 3, *Sphingomonas qilianensis* X1^T; 4, *Sphingomonas hylomeconis* GZJT-2^T; DGTS, 1,2-diacylglycerol-3-O-4'-(N,N,N-trimethyl)-homoserine; DMPE, dimethylphosphatidylethanolamine; DPG, diphosphatidylglycerol; MHD, monohexosyldiacylglycerol; MMPE, monomethylphosphatidylethanolamine; PC, phosphatidylcholine; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PG, phosphatidylglycerol; SGL, sphingoglycolipid; ND, Not detected.

	1	2	3*	4†
Fatty acids				
C _{14:0}	1.5	1.8	ND	1.2
C _{15:0}	3.3	ND	ND	ND
C _{14:0} 2-OH	11.4	15.6	11.1	7.5
C _{16:1} cis 9	12.5	5.0	19.1	17.7‡
C _{16:1} cis 11	2.0	0.8	1.2	2.7
C _{16:0}	12.1	12.5	15.6	10.1
ECL 16.150	1.6	ND	ND	ND
C _{17:1} cis 7	2.0	1.3	ND	ND
C _{17:1} cis 11	10.3	0.3	1.7	2.5
C _{17:0}	1.2	ND	ND	ND
C _{18:1} cis 11	39.3	55.5	50.1	50.2§
C _{18:0}	ND	ND	ND	1.0
C _{18:1} cis 11, 11 methyl	2.9	4.7	1.2	3.2
ECL 18.123	ND	2.3	ND	ND
Quinones	Ubiquinone Q-10	Ubiquinone Q-10	Ubiquinone Q-10	Ubiquinone Q-10
Polar lipids	DPG, DMPE, MMPE, PC, PE, PG, SGL	DGTS, DMPE, DPG, MHD, MMPE, PC, PE, PG, SGL	PE, PG, SGL	DPG, MMPE, PC PE, PG, SGL

*Data taken from Piao et al. [41].

†Data taken from Akbar et al. [40].

‡Not separated from C_{16:1} cis 10 and given as summed feature 3.

§Not separated from C_{18:1} cis 12 and given as summed feature 8.

including Zen2012 software. A minimum of at least 100 cells were measured. A single colony was taken from an agar plate, diluted with Ringer's solution and stained with uranyl acetate (2% in distilled H₂O, pH 4–4.5) for electron microscopy. A Zeiss 109T transmission electron microscope (Carl Zeiss) was used and images were taken with a 1K digital camera, including the ImageSP software.

After incubation for 3 days, strain DH-S5^T formed red, circular, convex and shiny colonies with a diameter of <1.0 mm on R2A agar. The two compared strains showed a clear difference in colony colour, as *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T grew in yellow, circular, convex and shiny colonies with a diameter of 1.5–2 mm, which was also observed by Margesin et al. [34]. Other closely related strains like *Sphingomonas qilianensis* X1^T and *Sphingomonas hylomeconis* GZJT-2^T have also been described to be light-yellow or yellow in colour, with circular, convex and smooth colonies [40, 41], consequently differing from DH-S5^T. Both strains had the same growth temperature

range at 3–33 °C, with an optimum temperature of 30 °C for DH-S5^T and 25 °C for *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T, respectively. The species *S. qilianensis* is described to grow at elevated temperatures of 15–30 °C [41]; for *S. hylomeconis* a temperature range of 4–30 °C is mentioned [40]. Strain DH-S5^T and *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T grew at the same NaCl and pH values, ranging from 0 to 0.25% NaCl (optimum at 0.25%) and pH 6 to 7 (optimum at pH 6). Strain DH-S5^T was able to grow on TSA, but not on Columbia blood agar. On the other hand, *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T grew on Columbia blood agar, but not on TSA. No growth of the strains occurred under anaerobic conditions. DH-S5^T showed growth under 20% CO₂-containing modified atmosphere, in contrast to *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T, indicating its capability to colonize and spoil food packaged under CO₂-enriched atmosphere. No biofilm formation was observed for either strain. Cells of DH-S5^T were 1.5×0.9 µm in diameter and those of *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T were 1.9×0.8 µm. Cells of both strains showed motility and endospores were

not detected. Electron microscopy footage of both strains is displayed in Fig. 3. A summary of the differentiating characteristics, including for *S. qilianensis* X1^T and *S. hylomeconis* GZJT-2^T, is shown in Table 1.

The Gram reaction was tested by Gram-staining as previously described [42]. Catalase activity was analysed by observing the production of gas after adding a drop of 3% H₂O₂ (v/v) on colonies on R2A agar after incubation for 3 days. Cytochrome oxidase activity was determined with Bactident Oxidase test strips (Merck). Further biochemical and physiological characteristics, including enzyme activity, were tested with the API ZYM and API 20 NE systems (bioMérieux) at 30 °C.

Gram-staining was negative for both strains and catalase activity was positive. The two strains differed in cytochrome oxidase activity, as only *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T showed a positive reaction. Both strains tested positive on alkaline phosphatase, esterase (C4), esterase lipase (C8), lipase (C14), leucine arylamidase, valine arylamidase, trypsin and acid phosphatase. No enzymatic activity was detected for cystine arylamidase, α-galactosidase, α-glucosidase, N-acetyl-β-glucosaminidase, α-mannosidase, α-fucosidase, nitrate reduction to nitrite and N₂ indole formation, glucose fermentation, arginine dihydrolase, urease and protease hydrolysis (gelatin). Additionally, DH-S5^T differed from *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T by a positive reaction for the enzymes α-chymotrypsin and β-glucuronidase and negative reactions for β-galactosidase, naphthol-AS-BI-phosphohydrolase, β-glucosidase and β-glucosidase activities (aesculin hydrolysis). Both strains tested positive for the assimilation of D-glucose, D-mannose and maltose. Neither DH-S5^T nor *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T were able to metabolize the following carbohydrates: potassium gluconate, capric acid, adipic acid, malic acid, trisodium citrate and phenylacetate. Regarding the assimilation of carbohydrates, strain DH-S5^T could be differentiated from *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T by a positive result for D-mannitol and negative results for L-arabinose and N-acetyl-glucosamine.

Fatty acid methyl ester samples were prepared as described by Sasser [43] and analysed via gas chromatography (model 6980, Agilent) with a flame ionization detector, as previously described [44]. Verification of fatty acid identity was carried out using gas chromatography (model 7890A, Agilent Technologies) with mass spectrometry (model 5975C, Agilent Technologies). The chromatographic conditions were previously described by Lipski and Altendorf [45]. Fatty acids were extracted from cell material of colonies grown on R2A agar for 72 h at 30 °C. Extraction and analysis of isoprenoid quinones was performed as described by Minnikin *et al.* [46], as modified by Wiertz *et al.* [47]. Polar lipids were extracted and visualized using thin-layer chromatography (TLC), based on the Bligh and Dyer method [48] and modified by Minnikin *et al.* [46]. Primulin dye was used for visualization of all polar lipids [49]. Aminolipids were stained by ninhydrin reagent (Sigma-Aldrich). The same plates were sprayed with molybdenum blue reagent (Sigma-Aldrich) for visualization of phospholipids. Sphingoglycolipids were detected by spraying α-naphthol reagent (4 g in 250 ml methanol, mixed with 30 ml

sulfuric acid) on TLC plates and heating them up at 137 °C for 10 min until staining appeared. Sugar-containing lipids produced red-brown spots. For verification, primulin-stained lipid spots were scratched off from the TLC plates, extracted and analysed by quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometry, as described by Hödl *et al.* [50]. Polar lipid patterns of strain DH-S5^T and *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T are shown in Fig. 4.

The major fatty acids (>5%) of strain DH-S5^T were C_{18:1} cis 11 (39.3%), C_{16:1} cis 9 (12.5%) and C_{16:0} (12.1%), as well as the hydroxylated fatty acids C_{14:0} 2-OH (11.4%) and C_{17:1} cis 11 (10.3%), as expected for the genus *Sphingomonas* [4]. The fatty acid profile of *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T differed from strain DH-S5^T in significantly lower amounts of C_{17:1} cis 11 (0.3%) and higher amounts of C_{18:1} cis 11 (55.5%). The closely related strains *S. qilianensis* X1^T and *S. hylomeconis* GZJT-2^T showed similarly low amounts of C_{17:1} cis 11 (1.7 und 2.5%, respectively) and high amounts of C_{18:1} cis 11 (50.1 and 50.2%, respectively) [40, 41]. IUPAC-IUB nomenclature of fatty acids is used [51]. Both strains contained ubiquinone Q-10 as their major respiratory quinone, which is in agreement with the findings of Margesin *et al.* [34]. A polar lipid pattern consisting of phosphatidylcholine (PC), phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), phosphatidylglycerol (PG), monomethylphosphatidylethanolamine (MMPE), dimethylphosphatidylethanolamine (DMPE) and sphingoglycolipid (SGL) was detected for strain DH-S5^T. In addition to these lipids, monohexosyldiacylglycerol (MHD) and 1,2-diacylglycerol-3-O-4'-(N,N,N-trimethyl)-homoserine (DGTS) were detected in polar lipid extracts of *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T. In their emended description of the genus *Sphingomonas*, Busse *et al.* [52] mentioned the occurrence of PE, PG, DPG, SGL, PC, MMPE and DMPE [52]. Table 2 gives an overview of the fatty acid patterns, detected quinones and polar lipid profiles of the isolate and reference strain *S. alpina* DSM 22537^T, as well as the closely related strains *S. qilianensis* X1^T and *S. hylomeconis* GZJT-2^T.

DESCRIPTION OF *SPHINGOMONAS ALIAERIS* SP. NOV.

Sphingomonas aliaeris (a.li.a'e.ris. L. masc. adj. *aliaeris* different; L. masc. n. *aer* air, atmosphere; N.L. gen. n. *aliaeris* of a different atmosphere).

Cells are Gram-stain-negative, oxidase-negative, catalase-positive, motile and rod-shaped. Cells are 1.5 (± 0.4) \times 0.9 (± 0.1) μm in diameter. Growth is strictly aerobic on R2A agar and TSA at 3–33 °C at pH 6.0; optimum growth at 30 °C. Tolerates 0.25% NaCl and 20% CO₂. No growth occurs on Columbia blood agar. Colonies are round, convex, red-pigmented, shiny and mostly less than 1 mm in diameter. Does not hydrolyse aesculin or gelatin. Positive for alkaline and acid phosphatase, esterase (C4), esterase lipase (C8), lipase (C14), leucine arylamidase, valine arylamidase, trypsin, α-chymotrypsin and β-glucuronidase. Negative for cystine arylamidase, α-galactosidase, α-glucosidase, N-acetyl-β-glucosaminidase, α-mannosidase, α-fucosidase, nitrate reduction to nitrite

and N₂, indole formation, glucose fermentation, arginine dihydrolase, urease, β-galactosidase, naphthol-AS-BI-phosphohydrolase and β-glucosidase. D-Glucose, D-mannose, maltose and D-mannitol are used as carbon sources. Does not assimilate potassium gluconate, capric acid, adipic acid, malic acid, trisodium citrate, phenylacetate, L-arabinose and N-acetyl-glucosamine. Main fatty acids are C_{18:1} cis 11, C_{16:1} cis 9, C_{16:0} and C_{14:0} 2-OH. The ubiquinone is Q-10. The polar lipid profile consists of PC, PG, DPG, PE, DMPE, SGL and MMPE.

The type strain, DH-S5^T (=DSM 110829^T=LMG 31606^T), was isolated from refrigerated pork steak packed under modified atmosphere, containing 20% CO₂. The DNA G+C content of the type strain is 64.4 mol% based on the whole genome sequence.

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Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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KAPITEL 4

4.1 PUBLIKATION: POLAR LIPID CHARACTERIZATION AND DESCRIPTION OF *CHRYSEOBACTERIUM CAPNOTOLERANS* SP. NOV., ISOLATED FROM HIGH CO₂-CONTAINING ATMOSPHERE AND EMENDED DESCRIPTIONS OF THE GENUS *CHRYSEOBACTERIUM*, AND THE SPECIES *C. BALUSTINUM*, *C. DAECHEONGENSE*, *C. FORMOSENSE*, *C. GLEUM*, *C. INDOLOGENES*, *C. JOOSTEI*, *C. SCOPHTHALMUM* AND *C. UREILYTICUM*

Die in diesem Kapitel dargestellten Ergebnisse entstammen der folgenden Originalpublikation:

Heidler von Heilborn, D., Nover, L.-L., Weber, M., Hölzl, G., Gisch, N., Waldhans, C., Mittler, M., Kreyenschmidt, J., Woehle, C., Hüttel, B., Lipski, A. (2022) Polar lipid characterization and description of *Chryseobacterium capnotolerans* sp. nov., isolated from high CO₂-containing atmosphere and emended descriptions of the genus *Chryseobacterium*, and the species *C. balustum*, *C. daecheongense*, *C. formosense*, *C. gleum*, *C. indologenes*, *C. joostei*, *C. scophthalmum* and *C. ureilyticum*. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 72. DOI: 10.1099/ijsem.0.005372.

Persönlicher Beitrag zur Publikation: Der persönliche Beitrag zu dieser Publikation umfasst neben dem Konzept und der Versuchsplanung auch die Durchführung aller im Artikel erwähnten Laborexperimente von mir oder Studenten unter meiner Anleitung, mit Ausnahme der NMR-Spektrometrie. Darüber hinaus wurden die Ergebnisse von mir analysiert und interpretiert und anschließend das Manuskript vorbereitet und eingereicht.

4.2 ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Diese Arbeit thematisiert die Neubeschreibung des aus roher Schweinebratwurst isolierten Stammes DH-B6^T als neue Spezies *Chryseobacterium capnotolerans* sowie darüber hinaus die vollständige Analyse der polaren Lipide, die aus dieser und weiteren (teilweise ehemaligen) Spezies der Gattung extrahiert wurden, mit der Folge einer anschließenden erweiterten Beschreibung der Gattung *Chryseobacterium* und einzelner Arten.

Der Stamm DH-B6^T wurde aus roher Schweinebratwurst isoliert, die unter einer – für rotes Fleisch häufig genutzten (Belcher 2006) – modifizierten Atmosphäre mit 80 % O₂ und 20 % CO₂ verpackt war.

Anhand der 16S rRNA-Gensequenz wurde festgestellt, dass der isolierte Stamm DH-B6^T zur Gattung *Chryseobacterium* gehört und *Chryseobacterium indologenes* DSM 16777^T dem Stamm verwandtschaftlich am nächsten steht (98,4 % Übereinstimmung). Dieser wurde im Rahmen der Arbeit als Referenzorganismus bei allen Versuchen mitgeführt und ist von medizinischer Bedeutung, da er Bakterämie, Pneumonie und Wundinfektionen auslösen kann und Resistenzen gegenüber diversen Antibiotika aufweist (Douvogiannis *et al.* 2010; Hsueh *et al.* 1996). Neben klinischen Proben wurden *Chryseobacterium*-Spezies zuvor auch aus anderen Habitaten, wie Boden, Wasser und Lebensmitteln, isoliert (Vandamme *et al.* 1994a; Herzog *et al.* 2008; Hantsis-Zacharov *et al.* 2008).

Bei beiden Stämmen wurde nach erfolgreicher Genomsequenzierung mittels *Oxford Nanopore Technology* eine Genomanalyse durchgeführt. Die Genomlängen betragen 5,36 Mbp für Stamm DH-B6^T sowie 4,92 Mbp für *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T. Die ANI liegt bei 81,1 % zwischen beiden Stämmen und die dDDH bei 24,9 %, womit beide Werte weit unter den vorgeschlagenen Speziesgrenzen von 95-96 % für ANI und 70,0 % für dDDH liegen (Richter und Rosselló-Móra 2009; Goris *et al.* 2007).

Die Arbeit enthält darüber hinaus eine detaillierte Analyse der Physiologie beider Stämme, einschließlich der Wachstumsbedingungen, Stoffwechselfähigkeiten und Reaktionen auf Umweltfaktoren. Dabei wurde festgestellt, dass sich DH-B6^T von *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T durch sein Wachstum bei modifizierter Atmosphäre mit 40 % CO₂ und 60 % O₂ unterscheidet und *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T auch nicht bei niedrigerer CO₂-Konzentration von 20 % wächst. Die Gattung wurde zuvor nicht mit Capnotoleranz in Verbindung gebracht. DH-B6^T weist bei Wachstum auf TSA eine orangefarbene Koloniefarbe und fruchtig-herben Geruch auf, während *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T unangenehm süßlich-verdorben riecht. Beide Stämme sind Gram-negativ, Oxidase-positiv und Katalase-positiv und weisen Wachstum bei 8-39 °C, bei bis zu 4,5 % NaCl sowie bei pH-Werten zwischen 6,0 und 8,7 auf. Mittels biochemischer Testverfahren, wie dem api-Test, wurden darüber hinaus Unterschiede in der Physiologie der beiden Stämme nachgewiesen.

Im Rahmen der Chemotaxonomie wurde bei beiden Stämmen das für *Chryseobacterium*-Arten charakteristische Pigment Flexirubin photometrisch nachgewiesen (Nicholson *et al.* 2020; Reichenbach *et al.* 1980). Die Fettsäuren wurden mittels GC-MS bestimmt. Das Fettsäureprofil von DH-B6^T weist die Haupt-Fettsäuren iC_{15:0} (50,7 %), iC_{17:1} cis 9 (28,7 %), iC_{15:0} 2-OH (7,0 %) und iC_{17:0} 3-OH (6,2 %) auf, wie sie auch für die Gattung *Chryseobacterium* beschrieben sind (Vandamme *et al.* 1994a). Das Fettsäureprofil von *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T unterscheidet sich davon nur schwach. Als einziges respiratorisches Chinon wurde mittels HPLC bei beiden Stämmen, wie in der Literatur für die Gattung *Chryseobacterium* beschrieben, Menachinon 6 detektiert (Vandamme *et al.* 1994a).

Die Analyse der polaren Lipide nimmt in dieser Arbeit eine besondere Stellung ein und wurde, neben den beiden genannten Stämmen, zudem auf die Typstämme *Chryseobacterium balustinum* ATCC 33487^T, *Chryseobacterium daecheongense* DSM 15235^T, *Chryseobacterium formosense* CC-H3-2^T, *Chryseobacterium gleum* CCUG 14555^T, *Chryseobacterium joostei* CCUG 46665^T, *C. scophthalmum* LMG 13028^T, *Chryseobacterium ureilyticum* DSM18017^T, *Epilithonimonas bovis* H9^T, *Epilithonimonas pallida* DSM 18015^T, *Kaistella anthropi* NF1366^T und *Kaistella haifensis* DSM 19056^T ausgeweitet. Dabei wurden die Lipide mittels 2-DC, QTOF-MS und NMR-Spektroskopie charakterisiert. Das polare Lipidprofil von DH-B6^T enthält die polaren Lipide PE, MHD, Ornithinlipid (OL), hydroxyliertes OL (OL-OH), zweifach-hydroxyliertes OL (OL-(OH)₂) sowie die seltenen polaren Lipide Cytolipin (CYL), Flavolipin (FL) und Sulfobacin A (SBA). Das Profil von *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T gleicht diesem, es fehlt jedoch das MHD. CYL wurde bisher erst bei zwei anderen Bakterienspezies, *Cyclobacterium marinum* und *Flavobacterium johnsoniae*, nachgewiesen (Moore *et al.* 2016; Kawazoe *et al.* 1991). Auch FL und SBA wurden zuvor nur bei wenigen Bakterien, teilweise bei nicht näher bestimmten Arten, nachgewiesen (Clark *et al.* 2013; Kamiyama *et al.* 1995). Darüber hinaus war das Vorkommen verschiedener näher charakterisierter Ornithinlipide und Glykolipide bei der Gattung *Chryseobacterium* zuvor nicht bekannt.

Alle verwendeten Stämme enthalten die drei Lipide CYL, FL und SBA sowie PE, OL und OL-OH. Bei einigen Stämmen treten darüber hinaus MHD, OL-(OH)₂ und PC auf. Neben der Beschreibung von Stamm DH-B6^T als neue Spezies *Chryseobacterium capnotolerans* wurde auch die vollständige Gattung *Chryseobacterium* erweitert beschrieben und die vorherigen Beschreibungen der Arten *C. balustinum*, *C. daecheongense*, *C. formosense*, *C. gleum*, *C. indologenes*, *C. joostei*, *C. scophthalmum* und *C. ureilyticum* offiziell erweitert.

Die Veröffentlichung bietet Einblicke in die Taxonomie, Physiologie und insbesondere polaren Lipidmuster des Stammes DH-B6^T und weiteren Arten der Gattung *Chryseobacterium*, mit der Folge der Neubeschreibung von DH-B6^T als *Chryseobacterium capnotolerans*. Resultierend aus seiner Fähigkeit bei hochkonzentrierter CO₂-Atmosphäre (40 %) und bei Temperaturen unter 10 °C zu wachsen, stellt er einen für die Lebensmittelmikrobiologie interessanten Organismus dar, der wegen seiner hohen CO₂-Toleranz auch für die Forschung an Capnophilen und –toleranten von Relevanz sein kann.

4.3 ORIGINALPUBLIKATION

Es folgt die oben genannte Originalpublikation mit freundlicher Genehmigung des Verlags.

Polar lipid characterization and description of *Chryseobacterium capnotolerans* sp. nov., isolated from high CO₂-containing atmosphere and emended descriptions of the genus *Chryseobacterium*, and the species *C. balustinum*, *C. daecheongense*, *C. formosense*, *C. gleum*, *C. indologenes*, *C. joostei*, *C. scophthalmum* and *C. ureilyticum*

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Abstract

Modified atmosphere (MA) packaging plays an important role in improving food quality and safety. By using different gas mixtures and packaging materials the shelf life of fresh produce can significantly be increased. A Gram-negative-staining, rod-shaped, orange-pigmented strain DH-B6^T, has been isolated from MA packed raw pork sausage (20% CO₂, 80% O₂). The strain produced biofilms and showed growth at high CO₂ levels of up to 40%. Complete 16S rRNA gene and whole-genome sequences revealed that strain DH-B6^T belongs to the genus *Chryseobacterium*, being closely related to strain *Chryseobacterium indologenes* DSM 16777^T (98.4%), followed by *Chryseobacterium gleum* NCTC11432^T (98.3%) and *Chryseobacterium lactis* KC1864^T (98.2%). Average nucleotide identity value between DH-B6^T and *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T was 81.1% and digital DNA–DNA hybridisation was 24.9%, respectively. The DNA G+C content was 35.51 mol%. Chemotaxonomical analysis revealed the presence of the rare glycine lipid cytolipin, the serine-glycine lipid flavolipin and the sulfonolipid sulfobacin A, as well as phosphatidylethanolamine, monohexosyldiacylglycerol and ornithine lipid, including the hydroxylated forms. Major fatty acids were iC_{15:0} (50.7%) and iC_{17:1} cis 9 (28.7%), followed by iC_{15:0} 2-OH (7.0%) and iC_{17:0} 3-OH (6.2%). The isolated strain contained MK-6 as the only respiratory quinone and flexirubin-like pigments were detected as the major pigments. Based on the phenotypic, chemotaxonomic and phylogenetic characteristics, the strain DH-B6^T (=DSM 110542^T=LMG 31915^T) represents a novel species of the genus *Chryseobacterium*, for which the name *Chryseobacterium capnotolerans* sp. nov. is proposed. Emended descriptions of the genus *Chryseobacterium* and eight species of this genus based on polar lipid characterisation are also proposed.

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Keywords: *Chryseobacterium*; novel species; polar lipids; carbon dioxide; food microbiology; modified atmosphere packaging.

Abbreviations: ANI, average nucleotide identity; BIC, Bayesian Information Criterion; BLAST, basic local alignment search tool; CYL, cytolipin; dDDH, digital DNA-DNA hybridisation; DSMZ, Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen; FL, flavolipin; GBDP, Genome BLAST Distance Phylogeny; GGDC, Genome-to-Genome Distance Calculator; MA, modified atmosphere; Mbp, mega base pairs; MHD, monohexosyldiacylglycerol; NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance; OD₆₂₅, optical density at 625 nm; OL, ornithine lipid; ONT, Oxford Nanopore Technologies; PC, phosphatidylcholine; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; QTOF-MS, quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometry; SBA, sulfobacin A; TLC, thin-layer chromatography; TSA, tryptic soy agar; TYGS, Type (Strain) Genome Server.

GenBank accession for the 16S rRNA gene sequence is MT823301 (*Chryseobacterium* sp. DH-B6^T). The whole Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) DNA sequencing project has been deposited at DDBJ/ENA/GenBank under the accessions CP065589 (*Chryseobacterium* sp. DH-B6^T) and CP065590 (*Chryseobacterium indologenes* DSM 16777^T). The versions described in this paper are versions CP065589.1 and CP065590.1.

Two supplementary tables are available with the online version of this article.

INTRODUCTION

Microorganisms that tolerate or are in need of elevated CO₂ levels are called capnotolerant or capnophilic, respectively. Environments with higher concentrations of carbon dioxide are often associated with volcanism, such as mofettes and cold-water geysers. In a cold-water geyser, for instance, mainly autotrophic bacteria and archaea have been found, most of which were identified to fix CO₂ [1]. A variety of acetogenic and methanogenic microorganisms has been described for the Bossoletto Mofette in Tuscany with strong differences between low CO₂ and high CO₂ sampling sites [2].

Another type of CO₂-enriched environments are modified atmospheres used in food technology to preserve fresh produce against growth of food spoiling microorganisms and therefore extend the shelf life of different products. Varying gas compositions are used for this so-called modified atmosphere (MA) packaging, depending on the product and the producer, e. . 80% O₂ and 20% CO₂ are frequently used as a gas composition for red meat products [3]. The characterisation of organisms with resistance against this preservation technique is of importance for risk assessment of MA packed food products.

The strain DH-B6^T, described in this study, was obtained from MA packed raw pork sausages and identified to belong to the genus *Chryseobacterium*. This genus currently consists of 122 species with validly published names and has recently been integrated into the family Weeksellaceae, formerly Flavobacteriaceae [4]. Being firstly described in 1994, species of this genus underwent several reclassifications due to novel phylogenetic approaches [5]. They share biochemical features, such as the dominance of iC_{15:0}, iC_{17:1} cis 9, iC_{17:0} 3-OH and iC_{15:0} 2-OH fatty acids, as well as the occurrence of menaquinone-6 as their major respiratory quinone [5]. So far, only phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), along with various yet not identified lipids, including aminolipids, have been described as part of the polar lipid profile of this genus [6]. In case of *Chryseobacterium indologenes* the occurrence of the serine-glycine lipid flavolipin (FL) has been demonstrated [7], as well as the presence of ornithine lipids (OLs) in *Chryseobacterium frigidisoli* [8]. An uncharacterized *Chryseobacterium* strain was associated with the sulfonolipid sulfobacins A (SBA), sulfobacins B and flavocristamide A [9].

Chryseobacterium strains have previously been isolated from soil, water and clinical sources [5], as well as from food and food-associated locations, such as raw cow's milk and beer-bottling plants [10, 11]. Some species are of medical relevance, such as *C. indologenes*, which can cause bacteremia, pneumonia or wound infections [12, 13]. In several cases resistances to β-lactam agents, aminoglycosides and polymyxins have been reported, as well as their potential to form biofilms [14, 15]. Also animal pathogens, in particular fish pathogens like *Chryseobacterium scophthalmum* and *Chryseobacterium piscicola*, have been described [16, 17].

Strains of the genus *Chryseobacterium* have not yet been associated with capnotolerant growth. Nevertheless tolerance of high carbon dioxide levels has been described for other genera of the Weeksellaceae family, such as *Ornithobacterium* and *Riemerella* [18]. Additionally, the genera *Coenonia* and *Capnocytophaga*, which belong to the closely-related Flavobacteriaceae family, were described to tolerate high levels of carbon dioxide [18]. In this study we characterized a capnotolerant strain of the genus *Chryseobacterium* with focus on the polar lipid composition due to probable constitutive membrane adaptations associated with tolerance to carbon dioxide enriched atmospheres.

ISOLATION AND ECOLOGY

Strain DH-B6^T was isolated from raw pork sausage samples packed under modified atmosphere. The sausages were produced and provided by a processing company in Germany. Directly after processing, the product was packed under modified atmosphere, each sample package (750 g) contained five sausages. The initial modified atmosphere consisted of 80% O₂ and 20% CO₂.

The samples were transported from the processing site to the laboratory (University of Bonn) at 2 °C. In the laboratory, the samples were stored under constant temperature conditions at 4 °C in a high precision temperature incubator (MIR 153, SANYO Electric Co., Ora-Gun, Japan). The samples for this trial were taken 12 days after storage at 4 °C, when the atmosphere consisted of 62.1% (±3.5) O₂ and 27.6% (±3.5) CO₂. A raw sausage sample of 25 g was taken from a defined area and mixed with saline peptone solution (0.85% NaCl, Oxoid Ltd., Basingstoke, UK with 0.1% peptone, VWR International, Darmstadt, Germany) to a total weight of 250 g. The sample was then homogenized for 60 s (Bag Mixer 400B, Interscience Inc., Saint-Nom-la-Bretèche, France). A tenfold dilution series was prepared. The suspension (0.1 ml) of an appropriate dilution was plated on Plate Count agar (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). Different colony morphotypes were present on the plates, from which isolates were picked randomly for further characterization. Strain *Chryseobacterium indologenes* DSM 16777^T was used as a reference in this study and was obtained from the Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen (DSMZ, Braunschweig, Germany). The strains were stored at -80 °C using Cryobank (Mast Group, Bootle, UK). For further experiments, the strains were cultivated on TSA (tryptic soy agar; Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) and in TSB medium (tryptic soy broth; Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). No elevated CO₂ levels were used for the cultivation.

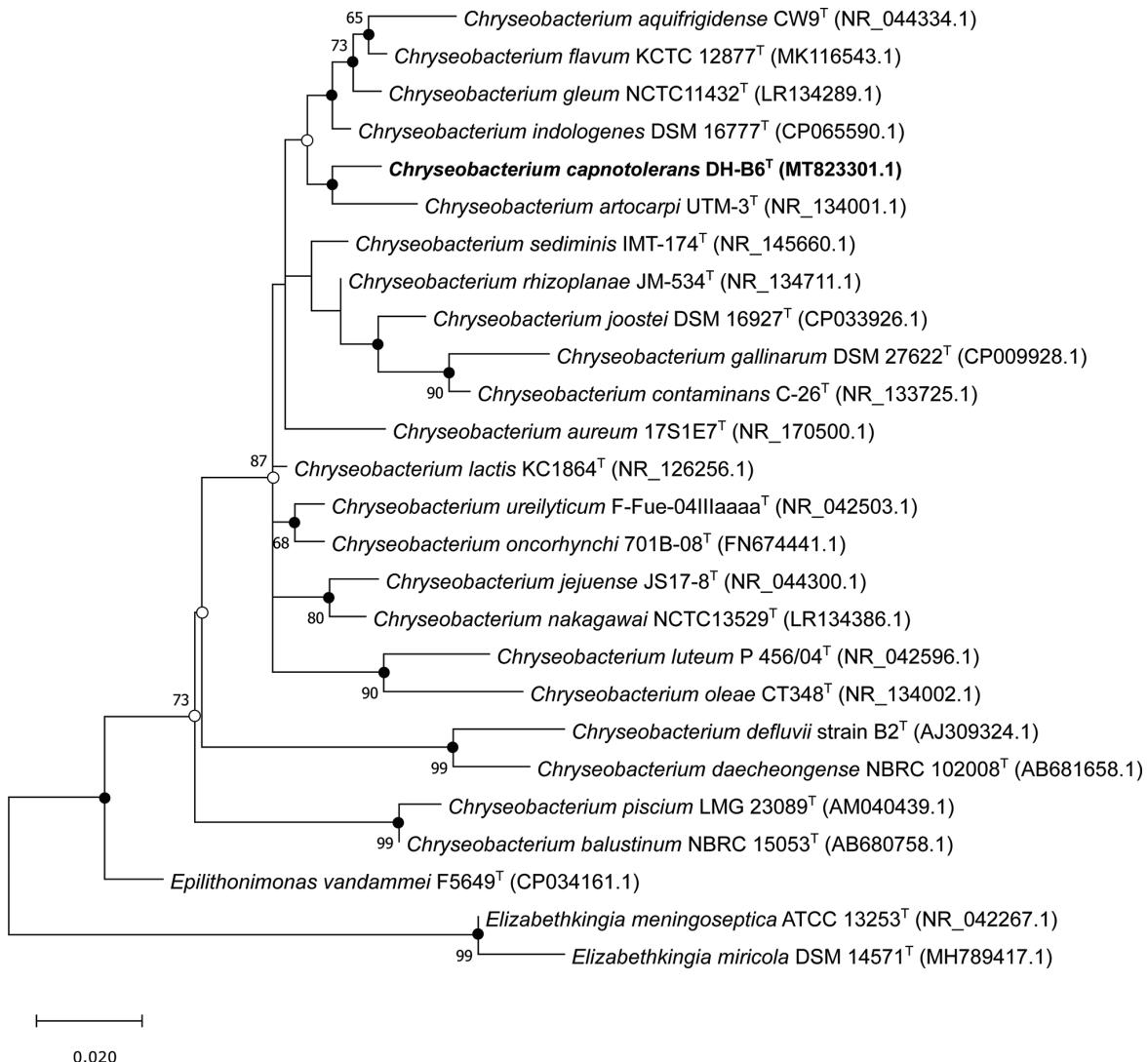


Fig. 1. Maximum-likelihood tree based on 16S rRNA sequences of strain DH-B6^T and other type strains of the genus *Chryseobacterium*. Representatives of the genera *Epilithonimonas* and *Elizabethkingia* were used as the rooted outgroup. Bootstrap values >60.0% are shown next to the branches. Filled circles demonstrate that the corresponding branches were additionally recovered with maximum-parsimony and neighbour-joining method. Non-filled circles indicate that the corresponding branches were recovered with at least one of the other mentioned algorithms. Bar represents 0.02 substitutions per site.

SINGLE-GENE AND GENOME-SCALE PHYLOGENIES

The genomic DNA was extracted using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and the 16S rRNA genes were amplified with bacterial primers GM3 8F (5'-AGAGTTGATCMTGGC-3') and GM4 1507R (5'-TACCTTGTTACGACTT-3'), as described by Muyzer *et al.* [19]. For purification of PCR products the QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) was used, according to the manufacturer's instructions. The DNA was Sanger sequenced by Seqlab (Göttingen, Germany). The sequencing primers used were GM8R (5'-GGACTACCAGGGTATCTAAT-3') and GM1F (5'-CCAGCAGCCGCGGTAAAT-3').

The nearly complete 16S rRNA gene sequence of 1427 bp was compared with those of type strains of validly published species in GenBank using BLAST version 2.11.0 (Basic local alignment search tool, National Centre for Biotechnological Information, Bethesda, USA; [20]). Before being compared, the sequence was checked and cut manually with the Chromas software (Version 2.6.6, Technelysium). The highest sequence similarity of 98.4% was shown to *Chryseobacterium indologenes* DSM 16777^T (CP065590.1), followed by 98.3% to *Chryseobacterium gleum* NCTC11432^T (LR134289.1), 98.2% to *Chryseobacterium lactis* KC1864^T (NR_126256.1), 98.0% to *Chryseobacterium ureilyticum* F-Fue-04IIIaaaa^T (NR_042503.1) and 98.0% to *Chryseobacterium*

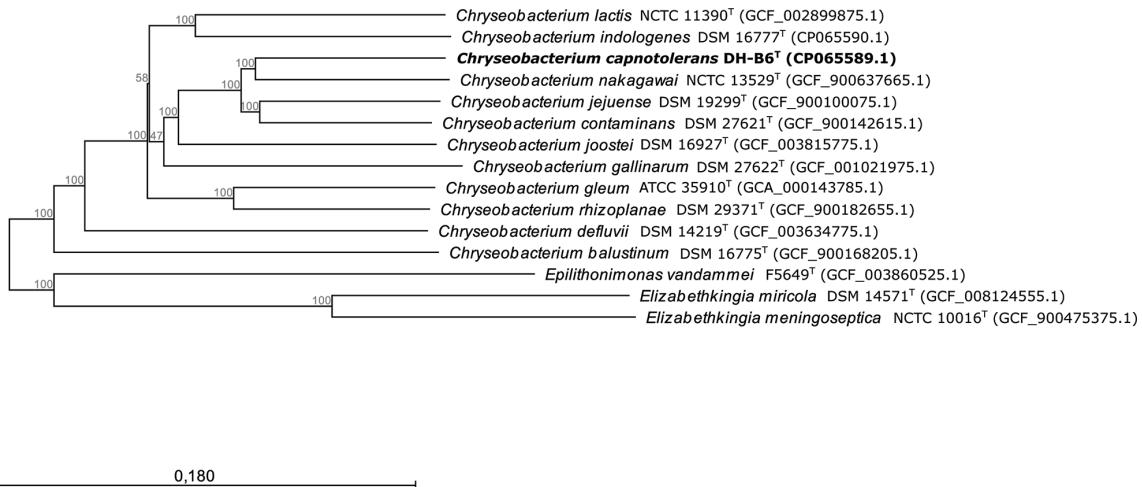


Fig. 2. Neighbour-Joining tree based on whole-genome nucleotide sequences of strain DH-B6^T, reference strain *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T and other related type strains of the genus *Chryseobacterium*, *Epilithonimonas* and *Elizabethkingia*. Bootstrap values >60% are shown next to the branches. Bar represents 0.18 substitutions per site.

bernardetii G229^T (NR_126254.1). The sequence showed 100% similarity to that of the strain '*Chryseobacterium timonianum*' G972, which was isolated previously from a sputum sample of a patient with pneumonia [21]. This species name was not validated so far and therefore was not considered for further analyses in this study. A sequence similarity in the 16S rRNA gene sequence of 98.7% was proposed to be a threshold for distinction between two species [22], which means exclusion of isolate DH-B6^T from the species with validated names represented by the type strains listed above.

The 16S rRNA gene sequences of strains DH-B6^T, *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T and other related type strains of the genera *Chryseobacterium*, *Epilithonimonas* and *Elizabethkingia* were used to reconstruct phylogenetic trees. Within the MEGA X software (version 10.1.8 [23]), sequences were aligned using the CLUSTAL OMEGA multiple sequence alignment for DNA [24], which is implemented in the MEGA X software. Model parameters were estimated using the 'Find best DNA Models' option and selected according to the lowest BIC (Bayesian Information Criterion) scores. The evolutionary history was inferred by using the maximum-likelihood method and General Time Reversible model [25]. All positions with less than 90.0% site coverage were eliminated, i.e. fewer than 10.0% alignment gaps, missing data, and ambiguous bases were allowed at any position (partial deletion option) [23]. Neighbour-Joining and maximum-parsimony trees were reconstructed and information about tree topologies was integrated in the maximum-likelihood tree. Tree support values were determined by bootstrap with 1000 replications. The maximum-likelihood tree is given in Fig. 1.

Purification and quantification of the complete genomic DNA of DH-B6^T and *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T, followed by ONT (Oxford Nanopore Technologies) sequencing and genome assembly were carried out as described earlier [26]. Sequences were polished via the Racon and Medaka tools as described [26], however the polishing procedure via Racon was applied an additional three times for each sequence. For the sequence of DH-B6^T, a short contig was discarded, as it was present as well in the larger genome contig with high sequence identity. Before submitting the sequences to NCBI GenBank a chimaera check was performed with DECIPHER (version 2.17.1, [27]), and no chimaera was detected.

Whole genome phylogenetic trees were reconstructed including complete genome nucleotide sequences of DH-B6^T and *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T (CP065589.1 and CP065590.1, respectively), as well as sequences of 13 other closely related type strains, taken from NCBI RefSeq. Strains from the genera *Elizabethkingia* and *Epilithonimonas* were used as an outgroup. The Microbial Genomics Module of the CLC Genomics Workbench (version 20.0.4, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) was used to calculate the tree. Whole genome alignments were performed according to the software's default settings, followed by an extraction of the multiple sequence alignment. A Neighbour-Joining tree was reconstructed from this multiple sequence alignment including nucleotide-distance measure 'jukes-cantor' and supported by a bootstrap including 1000 replications (Fig. 2).

GENOME FEATURES

A 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 98.7% or above was recommended to be the minimal standard for comparing genome sequences for species delineation [22], which was not the case for the strains used in this study, as the similarity was lower. The 16S rRNA gene Sanger sequence of strain DH-B6^T was identical with one of the ONT-based sequence. The genome of strain

Table 1. Differentiating characteristics of type strain DH-B6^T and closely related *Chryseobacterium* species

Strains: 1, DH-B6^T; 2, *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T; 3, *Chryseobacterium gleum* NCTC 11432^T; 4, *Chryseobacterium artocarpi* KCTC 32509^T; 5, *Chryseobacterium contaminans* LMG 27810^T; +, positive; -, negative; w, weak or delayed positive; NA, no data available.

	1	2*	3†	4‡	5§
Pigmentation	Orange	Light orange	Bright yellow	Yellow	Yellow
Odor	Fruity	Strong, sweet, rotten	NA	NA	NA
Cell dimension	2.0×0.8 µm	1.8×0.8 µm	2.6×0.7 µm	1.8×0.8 µm	2.0×1.0 µm
Growth at levels of 40% CO ₂	+	-	NA	NA	NA
Growth at 4.5% NaCl	+	+	NA	+	-
Indole formation	-	+	+	-	+
Nitrate reduction	-	-	-	+	-
Assimilation of					
Starch	+	w	+	+	+
D-Fructose	+	-*	+	+	-
Glycerol	+	-	+	+	-
Glycogen	+	w	NA	-	NA
D-Mannitol	+	-	-	-	-
Enzyme activity					
β-Galactosidase	-	-	+	-	-
Leucine arylamidase	w	+	+	+	NA
Urease	+	+	-	-	+
Valine arylamidase	w	+	+	+	NA

*Data differs from Yabuuchi et al. [35].

†Data taken from Holmes et al. [57].

‡Data taken from Venil et al. [58].

§Data taken from Kämpfer et al. [59].

DH-B6^T included seven copies of the 16S rRNA gene sequence in total with up to five different base positions between these copies. G+C content and ANI values (average nucleotide identity) were determined using the EZBioCloud online ANI calculator [28]. Digital DNA–DNA hybridisation (dDDH) of strains DH-B6^T and *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T was performed using the GGDC (Genome-to-Genome Distance Calculator, version 2.1 [29]). The whole genome sequences were deposited in the GenBank database under accession numbers CP065589 (DH-B6^T) and CP065590 (*C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T).

The genome sizes of DH-B6^T and *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T were 5357258 and 4920726 bp, respectively. G+C content of the genome was 35.51 mol% for DH-B6^T and 37.23% for *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T. According to Nicholson et al. [30], the G+C content range of the genus is between 28.8 and 49.3 mol%. The ANI value of strain DH-B6^T relative to that of *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T was 81.1%, below the proposed species boundary of about 95–96% [31]. The dDDH value between both strains was 24.9%, below the recommended cut-off point for species delineation of 70.0% [32]. Therefore, based on the (phylo-)genomic data, DH-B6^T represents a novel species of the genus *Chryseobacterium*.

PHYSIOLOGY AND CHEMOTAXONOMY

Physiological and chemotaxonomic characteristics of strains DH-B6^T and *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T were determined in addition to the phylogenetic and phylogenomic analyses. For phenotypic characterisation the strains were cultivated on TSA for 24 h at 30 °C. The Gram-staining procedure was applied to both strains as described before [33]. The organisms were tested for the activity of cytochrome c oxidase with Bactident oxidase test stripes (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) and for catalase by adding droplets of H₂O₂ (3%, v/v) to single colonies. Formation of gas indicated a positive reaction for catalase. Growth parameters were evaluated after incubation in TSB for at least 7 d. Temperature, NaCl and pH optima were determined by measuring the optical density at 625 nm (OD₆₂₅) after 24 h (for temperature) or 72 h (for NaCl and pH), respectively. Tolerance range and optima for

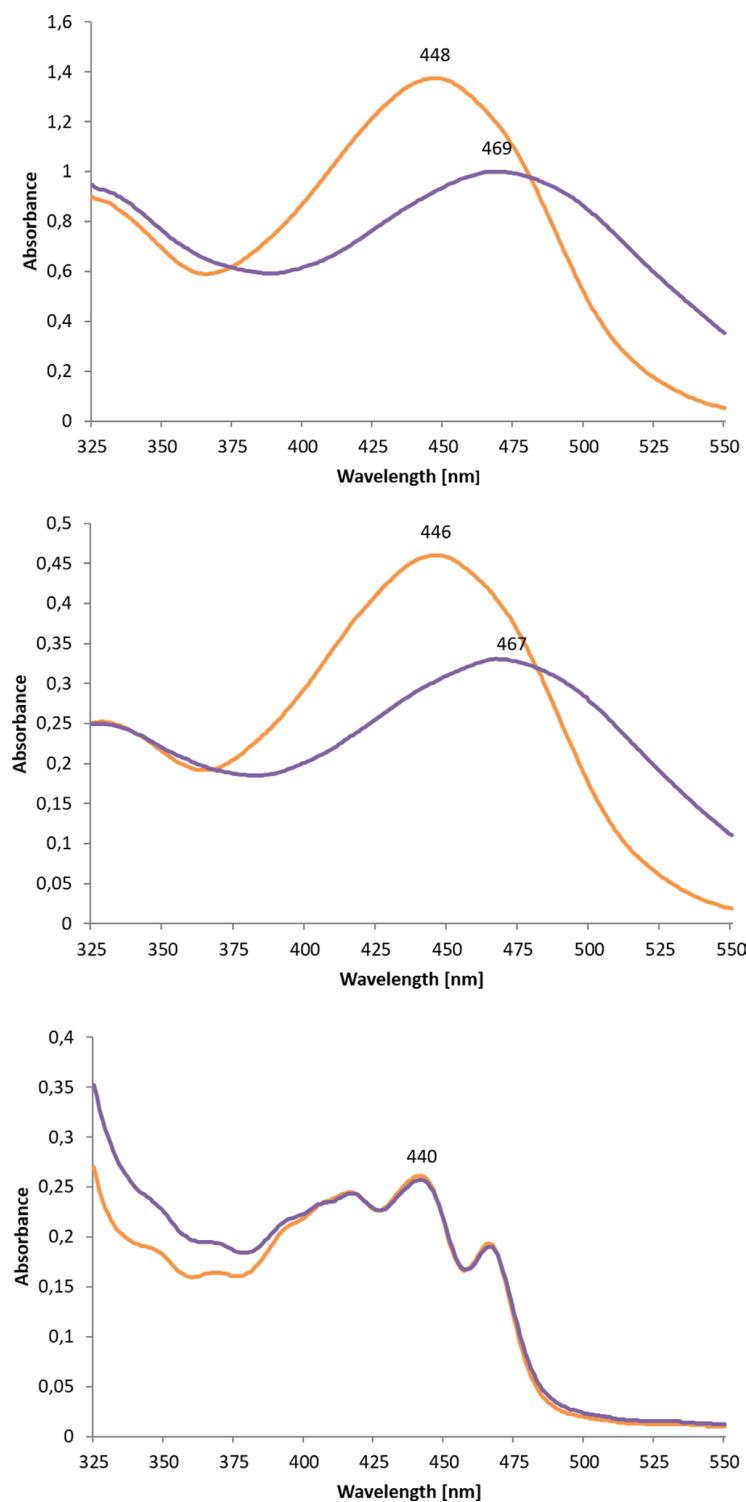


Fig. 3. Spectrophotometric analysis of flexirubin-type pigments at wavelengths between 325 and 550 nm. Orange graph shows the absorbance of the natural methanolic extract, violet graph shows the absorbance after addition of KOH (20%, v/v). (a) Extract of strain DH-B6^T showed a shift of the absorbance maximum from 447 to 470 nm, indicating the presence of flexirubin-type pigments. (b) Extract of *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T showed a shift of the absorbance maximum from 446 to 470 nm, indicating the presence of flexirubin-type pigments. (c) Negative control extract of *M. luteus* DSM 20030^T did not show any shift of the absorbance maximum at 440 nm.

Table 2. Fatty acid patterns (%) of strain DH-B6^T and closely related *Chryseobacterium* species.

1, DH-B6^T; 2, *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T; 3, *Chryseobacterium gleum* NCTC 11432^T; 4, *Chryseobacterium artocarpi* KCTC 32509^T; 5, *Chryseobacterium contaminans* LMG 27810^T; ECL, equivalent chain length; TR, traces (<1.0%); ND, not detected.

	1	2	3*	4†	5‡
Fatty acids					
<i>iso-C</i> _{13:0}	TR	TR	TR	1.4	ND
ECL 13.565	ND	ND	1.2	3.3	4.6
<i>C</i> _{14:0}	TR	TR	ND	ND	ND
<i>iso-C</i> _{15:0}	50.7	49.6	35.4	41.2	34.2
<i>anteiso-C</i> _{15:0}	TR	TR	TR	TR	ND
<i>iso-C</i> _{16:0}	TR	TR	ND	ND	ND
<i>iso-C</i> _{15:0} 2-OH	7.0	7.0	11.8§	12.1§	ND
<i>iso-C</i> _{15:0} 3-OH	TR	TR	2.5	3.5	2.5
<i>iso-C</i> _{15:1}	ND	ND	ND	TR	ND
<i>C</i> _{16:0}	1.0	TR	1.3	1.3	1.5
<i>C</i> _{16:0} 3-OH	ND	ND	1.1	TR	1.8
<i>iso-C</i> _{16:0} 3-OH	ND	ND	ND	1.4	ND
<i>iso-C</i> _{17:1} cis 9	28.7	31.9	20.2	20.1	18.2
<i>iso-C</i> _{17:1} cis 10	1.3	1.4	ND	ND	ND
ECL 16.537	TR	TR	ND	ND	ND
ECL 16.576	TR	TR	1.7	1.7	1.2
<i>iso-C</i> _{17:0}	1.1	TR	1.6	3.0	1.4
ECL 17.133	TR	TR	ND	ND	ND
<i>iso-C</i> _{17:1} 3-OH	6.2	4.9	21.8	10.3	22.0

*Data taken from Park et al. [60].

†Data taken from Venil et al. [58].

‡Data taken from Kämpfer et al. [59].

§Not separated from *C*_{16:1} cis 9 or *C*_{16:1} trans 9, respectively.

growth temperatures (6, 8, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 37, 39 and 42 °C), NaCl concentrations (0.5, 2.5, 4.5, 6.5 and 10.5%) and different pH values (4–10, in intervals of 1 pH unit) have been analysed. Acetate buffer (pH 4.0 and 5.0), phosphate buffer (pH 6.0, 7.0 and 8.0) and glycine buffer (pH 9.0 and 10.0) were used to adjust the pH in TSB media. The formation of biofilms was evaluated by staining with crystal violet [34]. Anaerobic growth was examined by incubation of inoculated petri dishes in an anaerobic jar (Anaerocult A; Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). Growth under CO₂-containing modified atmospheres was analysed as described previously [26], with the addition that concentrations of 40% CO₂ with 60% O₂ have been tested. Morphology, dimensions and motility of cells, as well as the formation of endospores, were evaluated using a Zeiss Axio Observer microscope AxioScope.A1 (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany). A minimum of at least 100 cells were measured.

The isolates were Gram-staining-negative and positive for cytochrome c oxidase and catalase activity, which is in agreement with other *Chryseobacterium* species [5]. After incubation for 24 h, strain DH-B6^T grew in orange, circular, convex and shiny colonies with a diameter of about 2 mm on TSA. The two strains compared showed difference in colony color, as *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T grew in lighter orange, as well as in their odor. DH-B6^T released a fruity odor, which has been described for other *Chryseobacterium* species as well [35], whereas *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T smelled rotten, sweet and stronger. Both strains had the same growth temperature range at 8–39 °C, with an optimum temperature of 30 °C. Both strains tolerated NaCl concentrations of up to 4.5% and grew at a pH of 6 to 8.7, with an optimum at pH 7. Biofilm formation has been observed for each of the strains, which has been described for other *Chryseobacterium* strains before [14]. No growth occurred under anaerobic conditions in case of both strains. Isolate DH-B6^T showed growth in a modified atmosphere containing up to 40% CO₂ (with 60% O₂), in contrast to *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T, which did not grow after being exposed to 20% CO₂ and above. Other species of the genus

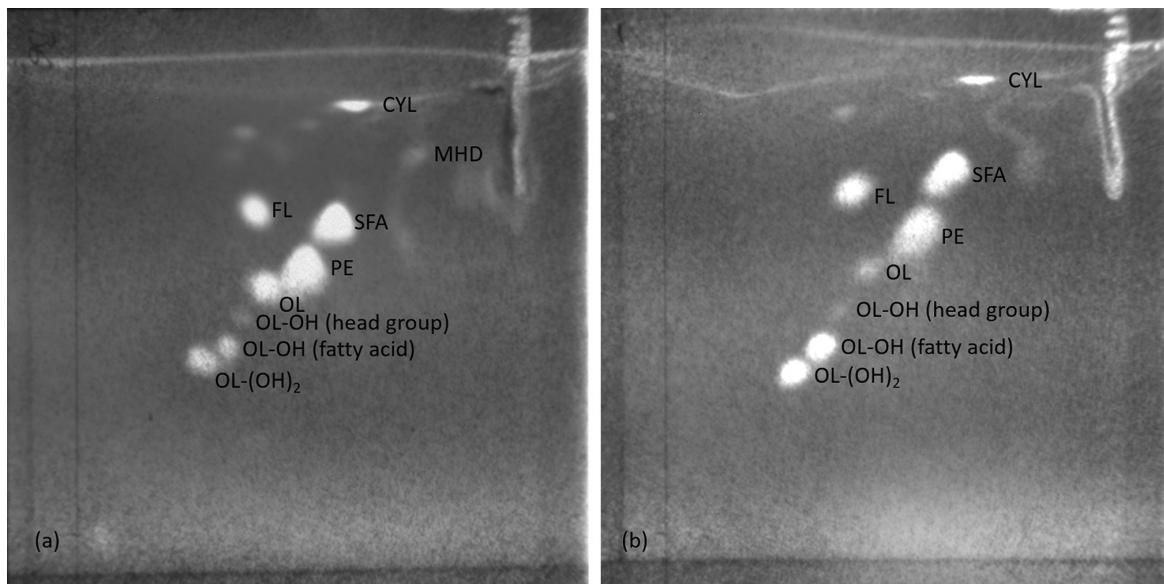


Fig. 4. Polar lipid profile visualisation of (a) strain DH-B6^T and (b) *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T using two-dimensional TLC and primuline staining method as described before [26]. CYL, cytolipin; FL, flvolipin; MHD, monohexosyldiacylglycerol; OL, ornithine lipid; OL-OH, hydroxylated ornithine lipid; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; SBA, sulfobacin A.

Chryseobacterium have not yet been associated with capnotolerant growth. Regarding this, strain DH-B6^T can be characterized as a psychro- and capnotolerant strain, which is able to grow and potentially spoil food packed with elevated levels of carbon dioxide and stored under low temperature conditions. The rod-shaped cells were 2.0×0.8 µm and 1.8×0.8 µm for DH-B6^T and *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T, respectively. Motility and endospores were not detected in both strains. The differentiating characteristics are summarized in Table 1.

Other physiological and biochemical characteristics have been tested with the API ZYM, 20 NE and 50 CH systems according to the manufacturer's instructions (bioMérieux, Marcy-l'Étoile, France). API 20 NE test stripes were incubated for 48 h, API 50 CH for 96 h at 30 °C.

The strains differed in the capability of producing indole, which was detected only for *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T. Neither of the strains was positive for nitrate reduction or fermentation of glucose. Carbon sources used by both strains were D-glucose, D-mannose, amygdalin, maltose and trehalose. Aesculin was hydrolysed by both strains. Starch and glycogen have also been used by both strains, although with a weaker reaction for strain *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T. The isolates were tested negative for utilization of erythritol, D-arabinose, L-arabinose, D-ribose, D-xylose, L-xylose, D-adonitol, methyl-β-D-xylopyranoside, D-galactose, L-rhamnose, dulcitol, inositol, D-sorbitol, methyl-α-D-mannopyranoside, methyl-α-D-glucopyranoside, N-acetylglucosamine, arbutin, salicin, cellobiose, lactose, melibiose, sucrose, inulin, melezitose, raffinose, xylitol, gentiobiose, turanose, L-lyxose, D-tagatose, D-fucose, D-arabitol, L-arabitol, potassium gluconate, potassium 2-ketogluconate, potassium 5-ketogluconate, capric acid, adipic acid, malic acid, trisodium citrate and phenylacetic acid. In contrast to *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T, strain DH-B6^T was able to use glycerol, D-fructose and D-mannitol as carbon sources. Furthermore, both strains showed activity of the following enzymes: arginine dihydrolase, urease, protease (hydrolysis of gelatin), alkaline phosphatase, esterase (C4), esterase lipase (C8), acid phosphatase, naphthol-AS-BI-phosphohydrolase, α-glucuronidase and N-acetyl-β-glucosaminidase. Also, reactions for leucine arylamidase and valine arylamidase were positive, but weaker for strain DH-B6^T. Both strains did not show any activity of the enzymes lipase (C14), cystine arylamidase, trypsin, α-chymotrypsin, α-galactosidase, β-galactosidase, β-glucuronidase, β-glucosidase, α-mannosidase and α-fucosidase. A summary of the differentiating characteristics of closely related *Chryseobacterium* species and the type species is shown in Table 1.

In this study, flexirubin-type pigments were extracted from wet cell material of an overnight culture of the strains DH-B6^T and *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T (30 °C for 24 h) using acetone and methanol (1 : 1, v/v), as described by Reichenbach *et al.* [36]. The extracts were solved in methanol and analysed with a GENESYS 30 Visible Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, USA) at wavelengths ranging from 325 to 550 nm. Afterwards, droplets of KOH (20%, w/v) were added slowly to the extracts, which were measured again. *Micrococcus luteus* DSM 20030^T was used as a negative control.

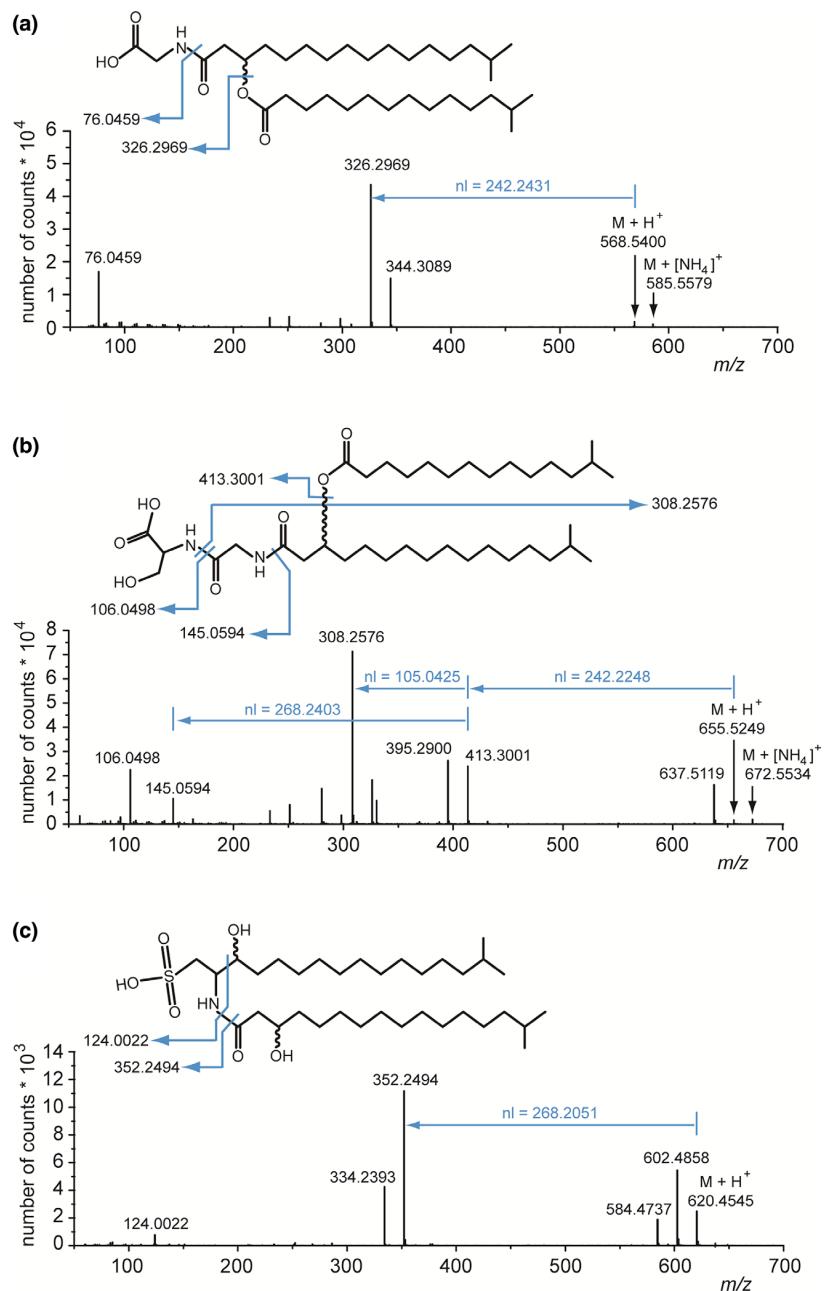


Fig. 5. QTOF MS/MS spectra of cytolipin, flvolipin and sulfobacin A from strain DH-B6^T. The lipids were measured in the positive ion mode, and main molecular species were selected. (a) Cytolipin was detected as ammonium adduct (m/z 585.5579). It contains $C_{15:0}$ identified due to its neutral loss (nl) of 242.2431 u, linked to an $iC_{17:0}$ 3-OH fatty acid, which is part of the corresponding lyso-lipid with m/z 326.2969; the fragment with m/z 76.0459 represents the glycine ion. (b) Flvolipin (m/z 672.5534) was also detected as ammonium adduct containing $iC_{15:0}$ as the ester-bound fatty acid derived from nl of 242.2248 u. The amide-bound fatty acid $iC_{17:0}$ 3-OH can be derived from the nl of 268.2051 u. This nl represents the mass of the corresponding aldehyde of $iC_{17:0}$ 3-OH formed after fragmentation and is calculated by the difference of the lyso-lipid (m/z 413.3001) and the lipid head group (m/z 145.0594). The fragment with m/z 308.2576 is derived from the lipid part lacking both the serine (nl=105.0425 u) and the ester-bound fatty acid $iC_{15:0}$. The fragments with m/z 145.0594 and 106.0498 represent the seryl-glycine and the serine ions, respectively. (c) Sulfobacin A (m/z 620.4545) was detected in its protonated form containing $iC_{17:0}$ 3-OH as amide-bound fatty acid indicated by the nl=268.2051 (mass of the corresponding aldehyde). The caprine backbone represented by the fragment m/z 352.2494 consists of a C17 unit. The fragment m/z 124.0022 is derived from the C2 unit carrying the sulfono and the amino group. The respective neutral losses (nl) are calculated as the difference between two fragments as indicated by the arrows in the spectra.

Table 3. Polar lipid profiles of type strain DH-B6^T, the reference strain *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T and other related strains from the genera *Chryseobacterium*, *Epilithonimonas* and *Kaistella*.

1, DH-B6^T; 2, *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T; 3, *C. balustinum* ATCC 33487^T; 4, *C. daecheongense* DSM 15235^T; 5, *C. formosense* CC-H3-2^T; 6, *C. gleum* CCUG 14555^T; 7, *C. joostei* CCUG 46665^T; 8, *C. scophthalmum* LMG 13028^T; 9, *C. ureilyticum* DSM18017^T; 10, *E. bovis* H9^T; 11, *E. pallida* DSM 18015^T; 12, *K. anthropi* NF1366^T; 13, *K. haifensis* DSM 19056^T.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
CYL	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
FL	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
MHD	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-
OL	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
OL-OH (head group)	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
OL-OH (fatty acid)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
OL-(OH) ₂	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-
PC	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
PE	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
SBA	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

CYL, cytolipin; FL, flavolipin; MHD, monohexosyldiacylglycerol; OL, ornithine lipid; OL-OH, hydroxylated ornithine lipid; PC, phosphatidylcholine; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; SBA, sulfobacin A.

Flexirubin-like pigments have been detected by a shift of the absorbance maximum from about 447 to 470 nm in strains DH-B6^T and *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T. Extract colors turned from orange to purple. In the pigment extracts of *M. luteus* DSM 20030^T, which produces the carotenoid sarcinaxanthin [37], no shift of the absorbance maximum at 440 nm has been observed. Spectra of the pigment extracts are given in Fig. 3. This characteristic is known for all currently described *Chryseobacterium* species, following the taxonomic suggestions of Nicholson *et al.* [30].

Fatty acid methyl ester samples were prepared as described by Sasser [38] and identified and quantified via gas chromatography (GC model 7890A, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA) with a mass selective detector (model 5975C, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA) [39]. The chromatographic conditions were previously described by Lipski and Altendorf [40]. Fatty acids were extracted from cell material of colonies grown on TSA for 24 h at 30 °C. Extraction and analysis of isoprenoid quinones was performed as described by Minnikin *et al.* [41], modified by Wiertz *et al.* [39].

The major fatty acids (>5%) of strain DH-B6^T were iC_{15:0} (50.7%) and iC_{17:1} cis 9 (28.7%), followed by iC_{15:0} 2-OH (7.0%) and iC_{17:0} 3-OH (6.2%), as expected for the genus *Chryseobacterium* [5]. IUPAC-IUB nomenclature of fatty acids is used [42]. The fatty acid pattern of *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T did not differ much from the isolate strain. With an occurrence of 31.9% iC_{17:1} cis 9 is more prevalent in the reference strain. Strain DH-B6^T and *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T contained menaquinone 6 (MK-6) as their only respiratory quinone, which is in agreement with the description by Vandamme *et al.* [5]. Table 2 provides an overview of the complete fatty acid patterns of isolate strain DH-B6^T, the reference strain and other related *Chryseobacterium* species, including the type species.

Polar lipids of several *Chryseobacterium* and *Chryseobacterium*-related strains were extracted and visualized using two-dimensional thin-layer chromatography (TLC), as described previously [26]. For the extraction, cultures grown in TSB media with an OD₆₂₅ of 1.0 (± 0.2) at 30 °C were used. After two-dimensional TLC, the polar lipid profiles have been analysed by quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometry (QTOF-MS) as described earlier [43]. For detailed analysis, lipids have been scratched off the TLC plates and extracted according to Bligh and Dyer [44] prior to the MS analysis. Strains DH-B6^T, *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T, *Chryseobacterium balustinum* ATCC 33487^T, *Chryseobacterium daecheongense* DSM 15235^T, *Chryseobacterium formosense* CC-H3-2^T, *Chryseobacterium gleum* CCUG 14555^T, *Chryseobacterium joostei* CCUG 46665^T, *C. scophthalmum* LMG 13028^T, *Chryseobacterium ureilyticum* DSM18017^T, *Epilithonimonas bovis* H9^T, *Epilithonimonas pallida* DSM 18015^T, *Kaistella anthropi* NF1366^T and *Kaistella haifensis* DSM 19056^T have been used for polar lipid analyses.

The polar lipids of strain DH-B6^T comprise PE, a not further characterized glycolipid monohexosyldiacylglycerol (MHD), OL, hydroxylated OL (OL-OH), double-hydroxylated OL (OL-(OH)₂) and furthermore, the rare polar lipids cytolipin (CYL), FL and SBA. The polar lipid profile of *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T differed from DH-B6^T by lacking MHD. TLC plates with polar lipid extracts from DH-B6^T and *C. indologenes* DSM 16777^T are shown in Fig. 4. The structures of FL and SBA were further corroborated by NMR (nuclear magnetic resonance) spectroscopy, as described earlier [43]. The NMR chemical shift data are listed in Tables S1

and S2 (available in the online version of this article), respectively. These data are in line with already published data for these lipids [45, 46]. FL has been described for *Porphyromonas gingivalis* [45], as well as for *Elizabethkingia meningoseptica* and *Chryseobacterium indologenes* [7], which were previously considered as members of the genus *Flavobacterium*. Besides, SBA was detected in an unidentified *Chryseobacterium* strain [46]. Analysis of polar lipids via QTOF-MS and two-dimensional TLC revealed the presence of another noticeable lipid detected as ammonium adduct with m/z 585.5579. The lipid was identified as CYL, which is structurally related to OL, but with a glycol head group instead of ornithine. CYL was described so far only for strains of *Cyclobacterium marinum* and *Flavobacterium johnsoniae*, which are members of the phylum *Bacteroidetes* [47, 48]. The MS/MS spectra of CYL, FL and SBA isolated from strain DH-B6^T are shown in Fig. 5. Our analyses revealed that the polar lipids CYL, FL, PE and SBA are present in the lipid extracts of all *Chryseobacterium* and *Chryseobacterium*-related strains used in this study. Additionally, a series of OLs was found, including hydroxylated forms (OL-OH), with the hydroxyl group linked to the ester-bound fatty acid or the head group, or with hydroxyl groups linked to both (double-hydroxylation, OL-(OH)₂, Table 3). By now, for the genus *Chryseobacterium*, ornithine lipids have only been described for *Chryseobacterium frigidisoli* [8] but not further specified. Here we could show that hydroxylated forms of OLs are also present in other *Chryseobacterium* strains. Furthermore, along with strain DH-B6^T, the not further characterized glycolipid MHD could be detected in *C. balustinum* ATCC 33487^T, *C. joostei* CCUG 46665^T and *E. bovis* H9^T. The presence of glycolipids has only been described for *Chryseobacterium caseinilyticum* before, but they were not further identified [49]. In *C. balustinum* ATCC 33487^T, *C. daecheongense* DSM 15235^T, *C. formosense* CC-H3-2^T, *C. scophthalmum* LMG 13028^T, *E. bovis* H9^T and *K. anthropi* NF1366^T phosphatidylcholine (PC) was found. The occurrence of PC has not been associated with *Chryseobacterium* species yet. In strain *K. haifensis* DSM 19056^T, a presumptive lysine lipid and a hydroxylated lysine lipid were detected, which is in agreement with findings of Hörlz et al. [43], predicting that the genes necessary for the hydroxylation of lysine lipids are present in several bacteria of the *Cytophaga-Flavobacterium-Bacteroidetes*-group.

Due to the observed phenotypic and chemotaxonomic properties, the analysed strain DH-B6^T is regarded as a novel species of the genus *Chryseobacterium*.

EMENDED DESCRIPTION OF THE GENUS *CHRYSEOBACTERIUM* VANDAMME ET AL. 1994 EMEND. KÄMPFER ET AL. 2009, WU ET AL. 2013, MONTERO-CALASANZ ET AL. 2014, CHEN ET AL. 2015, HAHNKE ET AL. 2016, NICHOLSON ET AL. 2020

The description of the genus *Chryseobacterium* is as given by Vandamme et al. [5] and emended by Kämpfer et al. [50], Wu et al. [51], Montero-Calasanz et al. [6], Chen et al. [52], Hahnke et al. [53] and Nicholson et al. [30] with the following emendations. In addition to PE, the rare glycine lipid CYL, serine-glycine lipid FL and the sulfonolipid SBA are present in the polar lipid profile, as well as aminolipid-positive staining OLs, including their hydroxylated forms. Some species contain PC and a glycolipid identified as MHD.

EMENDED DESCRIPTION OF *CHRYSEOBACTERIUM BALUSTINUM* (HARRISON 1929) VANDAMME ET AL. 1994 EMEND. GARCÍA-LÓPEZ ET AL. 2019

The description of *C. balustinum* is as before Vandamme et al. [5] with the following emendations. In addition to PE, the polar lipid profile consists of CYL, FL, MHD, OL, OL-OH (fatty acid), PC and SBA.

EMENDED DESCRIPTION OF *CHRYSEOBACTERIUM DAECHEONGENSE* KIM ET AL. 2005 EMEND. MONTERO-CALASANZ ET AL. 2014

The description of *C. daecheongense* is as given by Kim et al. [54] with the following emendations. In addition to PE, the polar lipid profile consists of CYL, FL, OL, OL-OH (fatty acid), OL-(OH)₂, PC and SBA.

EMENDED DESCRIPTION OF *CHRYSEOBACTERIUM FORMOSENSE* YOUNG ET AL. 2005 EMEND. HAHNKE ET AL. 2016

The description of *C. formosense* is as given by Young et al. [55] with the following emendations. The polar lipid profile consists of CYL, FL, OL, OL-OH (fatty acid), PC, PE and SBA.

EMENDED DESCRIPTION OF *CHRYSEOBACTERIUM GLEUM* (HOLMES ET AL. 1984) VANDAMME ET AL. 1994 EMEND. NGUYEN ET AL. 2013 EMEND. MONTERO-CALASANZ ET AL. 2014 EMEND. HAHNKE ET AL. 2016

The description of *C. gleum* is as before Vandamme et al. [5] with the following emendations. In addition to PE, the polar lipid profile consists of CYL, FL, OL, OL-OH (fatty acid), OL-(OH)₂ and SBA.

EMENDED DESCRIPTION OF *CHRYSEOBACTERIUM INDOLOGENES* (YABUCHI ET AL. 1983)

VANDAMME ET AL. 1994 EMEND. MONTERO-CALASANZ ET AL. 2013

The description of *C. indologenes* is as before Vandamme et al. [5] with the following emendations. In addition to PE, the polar lipid profile consists of CYL, FL, OL, OL-OH (head group), OL-OH (fatty acid), OL-(OH)₂ and SBA.

EMENDED DESCRIPTION OF *CHRYSEOBACTERIUM JOOSTEI* HUGO ET AL. 2003 EMEND.

MONTERO-CALASANZ ET AL. 2014 EMEND. GARCÍA-LÓPEZ ET AL. 2019

The description of *C. joostei* is as given by Hugo et al. [56] with the following emendations. The polar lipid profile consists of CYL, FL, MHD, OL, OL-OH (head group), OL-OH (fatty acid), OL-(OH)₂, PE and SBA.

EMENDED DESCRIPTION OF *CHRYSEOBACTERIUM SCOPHTHALMUM* (MUDARRIS ET AL. 1994)

VANDAMME ET AL. 1994 EMEND. GARCÍA-LÓPEZ ET AL. 2019

The description of *C. scophthalmum* is as before Vandamme et al. [5] with the following emendations. The polar lipid profile consists of CYL, FL, OL, OL-OH (fatty acid), PC, PE and SBA.

EMENDED DESCRIPTION OF *CHRYSEOBACTERIUM UREILYTICUM* HERZOG ET AL. 2008 EMEND.

MONTERO-CALASANZ ET AL. 2014 EMEND. GARCÍA-LÓPEZ ET AL. 2019

The description of *C. ureilyticum* is as given by Herzog et al. [10] with the following emendations. In addition to PE, the polar lipid profile consists of CYL, FL, OL, OL-OH (fatty acid), OL-(OH)₂ and SBA.

DESCRIPTION OF *CHRYSEOBACTERIUM CAPNOTOLERANS* SP. NOV.

Chryseobacterium capnotolerans (cap.no.to'le.rans. Gr. masc. n. *kapnos* smoke (used in biology for carbon dioxide); L. pres. part. *tolerans* tolerating; N.L. part. adj. *capnotolerans* carbon dioxide tolerating).

Cells are Gram-staining-negative, oxidase-positive, catalase-positive, non-motile and rod-shaped. Cell dimensions are 2.0×0.8 µm. Aerobic growth occurs on TSA at 8–39 °C (optimum growth at 30 °C) at a pH of 6.0 to 8.7 (optimum pH at 7.0). Tolerates up to 4.5% NaCl. Tolerates 40% CO₂. Colonies are round, convex, orange-pigmented, shiny and about 2 mm in diameter. Does hydrolyse aesculin and gelatin. D-fructose, D-glucose, D-mannose, amygdalin, glycerol, maltose and D-mannitol are used as carbon sources. Does not utilize erythritol, D-arabinose, L-arabinose, D-ribose, D-xylose, L-xylose, D-adonitol, methyl-β-D-xylopyranoside, D-galactose, L-rhamnose, dulcitol, inositol, D-sorbitol, methyl-α-D-mannopyranoside, methyl-α-D-glucopyranoside, N-acetylglucosamine, arbutin, salicin, cellobiose, lactose, melibiose, sucrose, inulin, melezitose, raffinose, xylitol, gentiobiose, turanose, L-lyxose, D-tagatose, D-fucose, D-arabitol, L-arabitol, potassium gluconate, potassium 2-ketogluconate, potassium 5-ketogluconate, capric acid, adipic acid, malic acid, trisodium citrate, phenylacetic acid. Positive for arginine dihydrolase, urease, alkaline phosphatase, esterase (C4), esterase lipase (C8), acid phosphatase, naphthol-AS-BI-phosphohydrolase, α-glucuronidase and n-acetyl-β-glucosaminidase, weakly positive for leucine arylamidase and valine arylamidase. Negative for lipase (C14), cystine arylamidase, trypsin, α-chymotrypsin, α-galactosidase, β-galactosidase, β-glucuronidase, β-glucosidase, α-mannosidase and α-fucosidase. Main fatty acids are iC_{15:0}, iC_{17:1} cis 9, iC_{15:0} 2-OH and iC_{17:0} 3-OH. Menaquinone is MK-6. Polar lipid profile consists of cytolipin, flavolipin, monohexosyldiacylglycerol, ornithine lipid, hydroxylated ornithine lipid (head group), hydroxylated ornithine lipid (fatty acid), double-hydroxylated ornithine lipid (head group and fatty acid), phosphatidylethanolamine and sulfobacin A.

The type strain DH-B6^T (=DSM 110542^T=LMG 31915^T) was isolated from refrigerated raw pork sausage packed under modified atmosphere (20% CO₂, 80% O₂) and stored at 4 °C for 12 days. The DNA G+C content of the type strain is 35.51 mol% based on the whole genome sequence. GenBank accession for the 16S rRNA gene sequence is MT823301 (*Chryseobacterium* sp. DH-B6^T). The whole ONT sequencing project has been deposited at DDBJ/ENA/GenBank under the accession CP065589.

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Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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KAPITEL 5

5.1 PUBLIKATION: CIRCULAR GENOMES OF TWO BACTERIAL STRAINS CAPABLE TO GROW UNDER HIGH-CO₂ CONTAINING ATMOSPHERE

Die in diesem Kapitel dargestellten Ergebnisse entstammen der folgenden Originalpublikation:

Heidler von Heilborn, D., Bartholomäus, A., Lipski, A. (2023) Circular genomes of two bacterial strains capable of growing in a CO₂-containing atmosphere. *Microbiology Resource Announcements*. DOI: 10.1128/MRA.00685-23

Persönlicher Beitrag zur Publikation: Der persönliche Beitrag zu dieser Publikation umfasst neben dem Konzept und der Versuchsplanung auch die Durchführung der im Artikel erwähnten Kultivierungs- und Extraktionsversuche. Darüber hinaus wurden die Ergebnisse analysiert und anschließend das Manuskript vorbereitet und eingereicht.

Diese Veröffentlichung entwickelte sich aus einer RNA-Analyse, die nicht Bestandteil dieser Dissertation ist und bei der drei Bakterienstämme hinsichtlich ihrer Transkriptom-Veränderungen unter CO₂-Stress untersucht wurden. Bei diesen Organismen handelte es sich um den zuvor erwähnten Stamm *Chryseobacterium capnotolerans* DH-B6^T sowie *Brochothrix thermosphacta* DH-B18 und *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4, wobei das Gesamtgenom des erstgenannten im Rahmen der oben genannten Publikation zur Neubeschreibung von *C. capnotolerans* bereits publiziert wurde. So waren im Rahmen dieser Arbeit die zirkulären Genome der beiden Stämme DH-B18 und DH-RSZ4 von Interesse. Von der Art *B. thermosphacta* war zum Zeitpunkt der Veröffentlichung kein vollständiges, zirkuläres Genom veröffentlicht und Stamm DH-RSZ4 stellte sich als potenzielle neu zu beschreibende Art heraus, was in der Veröffentlichung selbst nicht thematisiert wird.

5.2 ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Die beiden Stämme *Brochothrix thermosphacta* DH-B18 und *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4 wurden aus roher Schweinebratwurst und rohem Schweineschnitzel isoliert, welcher unter CO₂-haltiger modifizierter Atmosphäre verpackt waren. Sie wurden auf ihr Wachstum bei 10 °C und unter einer Atmosphäre

von 20 % CO₂ und 80 % O₂ getestet. Beide Organismen zeichneten sich als psychrotolerant und capnotolerant aus, im Falle von *B. thermosphaacta* war dies bereits bekannt (Pin *et al.* 2002). Die Gattung *Rathayibacter* wurde hingegen zuvor nicht mit Lebensmittelproben in Verbindung gebracht – sie stand lediglich im Zusammenhang mit Pflanzen und Pflanzenkrankheiten (Stoll *et al.* 2023).

Aus den beiden Stämmen wurde hochmolekulare DNA extrahiert und mit Hilfe der Oxford Nanopore-Technologie Genomsequenz-Bibliotheken erstellt. Die daraus nach bioinformatischer Analyse resultierenden zirkulären Genome hatten eine Länge von 2,56 (DH-B18) und 3,89 Mbp (DH-RSZ4) mit einem G+C-Gehalt von 36,5 % bzw. 71,5 %. Die taxonomische Zugehörigkeit wurde mit Hilfe von GTDB-Tk bestimmt (Chaumeil *et al.* 2019), was ergab, dass Stamm DH-B18 eng mit dem Typstamm *B. thermosphaacta* DSM 20171^T verwandt ist (dDDH-Wert von 91,9 %, ANI von 98,98 %), während DH-RSZ4 dem Typstamm *Rathayibacter oskolensis* VKM Ac-2121^T am nächsten steht (dDDH-Wert von 32,4 %, ANI von 88,61 %).

Diese im Rahmen dieser Arbeit präsentierten vollständigen zirkulären Genome der beiden genannten Organismen können Einblicke in die genetischen Merkmale von Capnotoleranten, insbesondere eines häufigen und bekannten Lebensmittelverderbniserregers, liefern und darüber hinaus für taxonomische Arbeiten von Bedeutung sein.

5.3 ORIGINALPUBLIKATION

Es folgt die oben genannte Originalpublikation mit freundlicher Genehmigung des Verlags.

8 | Bacteriology | Announcement

Circular genomes of two bacterial strains capable of growing in a CO₂-containing atmosphere

David Heidler von Heilborn,¹ Alexander Bartholomäus,² André Lipski¹

AUTHOR AFFILIATIONS See affiliation list on p. 2.

ABSTRACT The bacterial strains *Brochotrix thermosphacta* DH-B18 and *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4 were isolated from raw sausage and escalope samples and grown in a CO₂-rich modified atmosphere. Here, we present both circular genomes obtained by nanopore sequencing.

KEYWORDS modified atmosphere packaging, capnотolerance, food microbiology, taxonomy, carbon dioxide

Modified atmosphere packaging is used in the food industry for a variety of reasons, including the prevention of microbial spoilage and sensory changes, thus extending the shelf life of several food products. In most cases, carbon dioxide is a major component of these atmospheres and is used for its antimicrobial properties (1).

The Gram-positive bacterial strains *Brochotrix thermosphacta* DH-B18 and *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4 were isolated from raw sausage and escalope samples, respectively, by cutting and homogenizing 10 g of sample material with 90 mL Ringer's solution (Merck, Germany) and plating a suspension of 100 µL on tryptic soy agar (TSA), as described earlier (2). The strains were cultivated on TSA at 10 and 30°C. The mentioned samples of origin were stored and packed under high-CO₂-containing modified atmospheres before, and the isolates were tested for growth at 20% CO₂ and 80% O₂, as previously done (2). Both strains were selected due to their presence in food samples and their capnотolerance and psychrotolerance. The species *Brochotrix thermosphacta* is known for being a food spoilage organism and growing in the presence of elevated CO₂ levels (3). The genus *Rathayibacter* sp. has not yet been associated with food samples in general, but some species have been isolated from (cultivated) plants, such as onion, and linked to plant diseases (4).

High-molecular-weight DNA was extracted from a culture, which was grown from a single colony, using the Monarch HMW DNA Extraction Kit (NEB BioLabs GmbH, Germany) without specific size selection, and sequencing libraries were prepared using the rapid sequencing kit SQK-RAD004 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies [ONT], Oxford, UK). The sequencing libraries were cleaned using AMPureXP beads (Beckman Coulter, Pasadena, CA, USA) and sequenced using the MinION platform and the Flongle flow cell (ONT). The sequencing reaction ran for 72 h, and the quality was monitored using the MinKNOW interface v22.05.5 (ONT). Default parameters were used for all software unless otherwise specified. Raw sequencing data were base called and demultiplexed with super high accuracy using Guppy v6.0.6 (ONT), resulting in 26,626 reads with an N50 of 16,085 for DH-B18 and 8,998 reads with an N50 of 24,726 for DH-RSZ4. Assembly, first polishing, and circularity assessment were performed with Flye v2.9.1 (5) (parameter -meta -nano-raw). The second polishing was performed using Medaka v1.7.2 (ONT). The genome quality was assessed, and full-length 16S rRNA sequences were recovered using CheckM v1.2.1 (6). Genome characteristics were assessed using QUAST v5.2.0 (7).

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The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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The resulting genomes were circular contigs of 2,557,095 and 3,890,578 bp length, including a GC content of 36.5% and 71.5% and coverage of 62x and 23x for DH-B18 and DH-RSZ4, respectively. Plasmids were not detected. By using CheckM v1.2.1 (6), the DH-B18 genome was found to be 99.31% complete and 0.0% contaminated, and DH-RSZ4 was 85.6% complete and 2.2% contaminated. The taxonomic affiliations were inferred using GTDB-Tk v2.1.0 (8), revealing the type strain *Brochothrix thermosphacta* DSM 20171^T to be very closely related (ANI 98.98, GCF_000620985.1) to strain DH-B18, and the type strain *Rathayibacter oskolensis* VKM Ac-2121^T (ANI 88.61, GCF_900177245.1) represents the closest known species to strain DH-RSZ4. Additionally, the TYGS tool (accessed on 24 July 2023) (9) confirmed the results, with strain DH-B18 having a high 91.9% digital DNA-DNA hybridization (dDDH) value to *B. thermosphacta* DSM 20171^T, while DH-RSZ4 has only 32.4% dDDH to *R. oskolensis* VKM Ac-2121^T as the closest related type strain. The genomes were annotated by National Center for Biotechnology Information using the PGAP pipeline v6.3 (10).

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DATA AVAILABILITY

Genome and raw reads are available at GenBank. The data for *Brochothrix thermosphacta* DH-B18 have BioProject accession number PRJNA993613, genome accession number CP129978, and raw read accession number SRR25232469. The data for *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4 have BioProject accession number PRJNA993609, genome accession number CP129977, and raw read accession number SRR25232475.

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KAPITEL 6

6.1 MANUSCRIPT: CO₂ STRESS ADAPTATION OF BACTERIA INCLUDES CHANGES IN FATTY ACID COMPOSITION AND MEMBRANE FLUIDITY

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Persönlicher Beitrag zum Manuskript: Der persönliche Beitrag zu diesem Manuskript umfasst neben dem Konzept und der Versuchsplanung auch die Durchführung aller im Artikel erwähnten Laborexperimente von mir oder Studenten unter meiner Anleitung. Bestandteil meines persönlichen Beitrages ist die Ergebnisanalyse und –interpretation sowie die Vorbereitung des Manuskripts.

6.1.1 Introduction

Modified Atmosphere Packaging (MAP) is used to extend the shelf life of food by conservation of the product and prevention of microbial growth. Several gases, such as carbon dioxide (CO₂), oxygen (O₂) and nitrogen (N₂), and varying gas compositions are used depending on the type of product packed. For the purpose of microbial growth inhibition mainly carbon dioxide (CO₂) is applied (Devlieghere *et al.* 1998). The effect of CO₂ on microorganisms has been discussed for several decades and, despite earlier proposed mechanisms, its effectiveness does not or only partly result from the displacement of oxygen or the intracellular acidification (Daniels *et al.* 1985). The latter results from the formation of carbonic acid (H₂CO₃), which dissociates into bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) and carbonate (CO₃²⁻). Other hypotheses include cell membrane modifications as CO₂ solvates in the lipid phase and may cause leakage of the membrane (Garcia-Gonzalez *et al.* 2007), as it was also described for ethanol stress in bacteria (Ingram 1990). This was confirmed by computational simulations of an artificial lipid membrane, that demonstrated an increased membrane permeability after CO₂ treatment (Zhang *et al.* 2020).

It can be expected that bacteria react to CO₂ stress similarly to how they react to thermal stress, by changing their fatty acid composition in order to maintain membrane fluidity – the so-called homeoviscous adaptation (Sinensky 1974). Furthermore, it was observed that *Escherichia coli* responds to high concentrations of ethanol, another chemical that can solve in water and lipids, with

replacement of palmitic ($C_{16:0}$) by vaccenic acid ($C_{18:1}$ cis 11), aside a slight increase of its third main fatty acid palmitoleic acid ($C_{16:1}$ cis 9) (Ingram 1990). Also, respiratory quinones were found to be a regulatory factor for dealing with thermal stress in several *Listeria monocytogenes* strains (Seel *et al.* 2018). In preceding work, filamentous fungi and yeasts were observed to react to high concentrations of CO₂ of 20 % by incorporation of polyunsaturated fatty acids, leading to a decrease in the weighted average melting temperature (WAMT) of the membrane and indicating a fluidization of the membrane (Heidler von Heilborn *et al.* 2023b).

The adaptation mechanisms that bacteria develop to grow under increased CO₂ concentrations are of great interest, due to the relevance of those organisms, particularly in the field of food microbiology. Capnotolerant and psychrotolerant bacteria are able to spoil packed food even at low storage temperatures and can pose a medical risk in case of capnotolerant pathogens from food, such as *Helicobacter pylori*, *Campylobacter jejuni*, *Salmonella* spp. and *E. coli* and the food spoilage organism *Brochothrix thermosphacta* (St Maurice *et al.* 2007; Miya *et al.* 2014; Pin *et al.* 2002).

6.1.2 Material and Methods

Used strains and cultivation conditions

The strains used in this study were isolated from several modified atmosphere packed food products and selected by their ability to grow at a modified atmosphere of 80 % O₂ and 20 % CO₂ at 10 °C. Strains DH-B6^T, DH-B8, DH-B13, DH-B18 and DH-VB4 were isolated from raw pork sausages, which were initially packed with a gas combination of 80 % O₂ and 20 % CO₂. Strains DH-RS1, DH-RS2 and DH-S5a were isolated from raw pork steak samples, which were initially packed with 75 % O₂ and 20 % CO₂. Strains DH-RSZ3 and DH-RSZ4 were isolated from pork escalope samples, which were stored in an initial modified atmosphere of 70 % O₂ and 30 % CO₂. Strain AM3 was isolated from corn, which was sealed under normal atmosphere without increased CO₂ levels. For isolation, 25 g were taken from the product and mixed with saline peptone solution (0.85 % NaCl, Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK with 0.1 % Peptone, VWR International, Darmstadt, Germany), except for the pork steak, where 10 g of the samples were taken and homogenized with 90 ml Ringer's solution (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). Tenfold dilution series were prepared and 0.1 ml of the suspensions plated on Tryptic Soy Agar (TSA; Merck, Darmstadt, Germany), Reasoner's 2A Agar (R2A; Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) or Violet Red Bile Agar (VRB; Merck, Darmstadt, Germany), where the isolates were picked from. All of the organisms were routinely cultivated on TSA and Tryptic Soy Broth (TSB; Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) at 10 °C without (control) or with MAP treatment (20 % CO₂, 80 % O₂).

For MAP treatment inoculated tissue culture flasks (Sarstedt, Nümbrecht, Germany) were placed in a polypropylene tray (ES-Plastic, Hütthurm, Germany), which was sealed with polyethylene-containing foil (Südpack, Ochsenhausen, Germany) by a Multivac T200 traysealer (Multivac, Wolfertschwenden, Germany). Gas atmospheres were analyzed using an Oxybaby M+ O₂/CO₂ gas analyzer (WITT-Gasetechnik, Witten, Germany). Cultures were harvested at an optical density (600 nm) of 1.0 ± 0.2.

For identification of the strains, the genomic DNA was extracted and the 16S rRNA sequences amplified and analyzed as described earlier (Heidler von Heilborn *et al.* 2021). Furthermore, the genomes of strains DH-B6^T, DH-RSZ4 and DH-B18 were fully sequenced during the progress of former studies and DH-B6^T was described as a new species *Chryseobacterium capnotolerans* (Heidler von Heilborn *et al.* 2023a; Heidler von Heilborn *et al.* 2022). Results of the strain identification are displayed in Table 1.

Fatty acid methyl ester analysis

All of the strains used were analyzed regarding the change of their fatty acid profile after incubation at 10 °C (control) and at 10 °C under MAP with 20 % CO₂ and 80 % O₂. Around 40 mg of cell material were used for the extraction and preparation of the fatty acids (Sasser 1990). Their methyl esters were separated and analyzed using a GC-MSD system 8890 with mass spectrometry model 5977B (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA) or a system 7890A (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA) with mass spectrometry model 5975C (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA), both with a 5 % phenyl methyl silicone capillary column (0.25 mm x 30 m). The identification was performed as described earlier (Lipski and Altendorf 1997). The WAMT is a calculation to assess changes in fluidity of cell membranes by including melting points of single fatty acids combined with their abundance. The WAMT values were calculated as previously described (Seel *et al.* 2018). Results of the fatty acid methyl ester analysis are displayed in Tables 2 and 3.

Membrane fluidity analysis by anisotropy

Four strains, *B. thermosphacta* DH-B18, *E. coli* DH-VB4, *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T and *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4 were selected for further investigations on their membrane fluidity due to their response to CO₂ stress regarding fatty acid modifications. Strains DH-B6^T and DH-RSZ4 were selected as they were found to show strong reactions towards incubation under MAP, including a lowered WAMT, whereas *B. thermosphacta* DH-B18 and *E. coli* DH-VB4 showed no major change in the WAMT. Furthermore, only minor changes for two fatty acids were detected in *E. coli* DH-VB4 (Table 3).

The harvested cells from these strains were incubated with the fluorescent probe TMA-DPH [N,N,N-trimethyl-4-(6-phenyl-1,3,5-hexatrien-1-yl)-benzenaminium, 4-methylbenzenesulfonate] in order to analyze the membrane fluidity, as described before (Seel *et al.* 2018). The TMA-DPH anisotropy is

suitable for assessing the membrane fluidity *in vivo* as it determines the rotational motion of acyl chains or lateral diffusion of lipid molecules by anchoring at the lipid-water interface (Usui *et al.* 2012). An LS 55 fluorescence spectrometer combined with a PTP-1 Peltier system (PerkinElmer, Waltham, USA) was used for the measurements. The anisotropy values were calculated from the polarized intensities of the probes, as described earlier for laurdan anisotropy (Harris *et al.* 2002).

6.1.3 Results

The strains were identified using the 16S rRNA sequences and are listed in Table 1. Bacteria were recovered from various phyla, including the *Bacteroidota*, *Actinomycetota*, *Pseudomonadota* and *Bacillota*.

Table 1: Overview of all the strains isolated and used in this study and their closest relatives in regard of their 16S rRNA gene sequence according to the GenBank database of NCBI BLAST.

Source	Strain	Species according to NCBI BLAST	Sequence similarity with closely-related type strain
Pork sausage	DH-B6 ^T	<i>Chryseobacterium capnotolerans</i>	100.0 % (MT823301)*
	DH-B8	<i>Microbacterium maritropicum</i>	99.4 % (NR_042351.1)
	DH-B13	<i>Comamonas testosteroni</i>	99.9 % (NR_029161.2)
	DH-B18	<i>Brochothrix thermosphacta</i>	100.0 % (NR_113587.1)
	DH-VB4	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	99.7 % (CP033092.2)
Pork steak	DH-RS1	<i>Pseudoclavibacter helvolus</i>	99.4 % (NR_029264.1)
	DH-RS2	<i>Flavobacterium frigidimarvis</i>	99.7 % (NR_041057.1)
	DH-S5a	<i>Knoellia sinensis</i>	98.3 % (NR_028931.1)
Pork escalope	DH-RSZ3	<i>Arthrobacter psychrochitiniphilus</i>	99.6 % (NR_104702.1)
	DH-RSZ4	<i>Rathayibacter oskolensis</i>	99.6 % (NR_179022.1) [§]
Corn	AM3	<i>Duffyella gerundensis</i>	99.8 % (NR_148820.1)

* The strain used is the type strain of the new described species *Chryseobacterium capnotolerans*

§ The strain is referred to as *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4 in this work due to an ongoing process of species description

All of the strains showed weaker growth on TSA after incubation at 10 °C under MAP compared to the control at 10 °C, with the exception of *B. thermosphacta* DH-B18. *Knoellia sinensis* DH-S5a grew extremely poor with MAP treatment. *Pseudoclavibacter helvolus* DH-RS1 and *Duffyella gerundensis* AM3 showed weaker pigmentation after incubation with increased CO₂ and O₂ levels. Not inoculated TSA had a by 0.7 decreased pH after storage in MAP trays.

High variations in the fatty acid compositions were detected for several strains and are displayed in Tables 2 (*Micrococcales*) and 3 (*Flavobacteriales*, *Burkholderiales*, *Caryophanales*, *Enterobacterales*). One of the strongest responses shown is for strain *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4, including a drop from 86.8 % of *anteiso-C_{15:0}* (control) to 35.3 % (MAP treatment), in favor of a high increase of *iso-C_{16:0}* from 9.7 (control) to 42.8 % (MAP). These changes resulted in an extreme increase of the WAMT of 45.7 °C for cells grown under MAP conditions, compared to 28.9 °C (control). For *C. testosteroni* DH-B13 a shift from 11.7 to 25.8 % (MAP) for the *C_{16:0}* was detected, at the expense of 45.1 to 25.7 % for *C_{18:1} cis 11* (MAP) and *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T with a shift of 23.9 to 9.1 % (MAP) of *anteiso-C_{15:0}*, in favor of a shift from 2.6 to 10.9 % (MAP) for *iso-C_{15:0} 2-OH*. These changes resulted in WAMT increases of 8.8 °C for *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T and 5.9 °C for *C. testosteroni* DH-B13 for cells grown at increased CO₂ and O₂ levels. Only slight changes in the fatty acid composition were detected in the strains *M. maritypicum* DH-B8, *B. thermosphacta* DH-B18, *E. coli* DH-VB4 and *D. gerundensis* AM3. No significant changes in WAMT values were detected for *M. maritypicum* DH-B8, *A. psychrochitiniphilus* DH-RSZ3, *F. frigidimaris* DH-RS2 and *E. coli* DH-VB4. Changes in the fatty acid composition did not necessarily result in a change of WAMT.

The anisotropy values of strains *B. thermosphacta* DH-B18, *E. coli* DH-VB4, *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T and *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4 are displayed in Figure 1. The lower the measured value, the higher is the actual membrane fluidity of the organism analyzed. As for the adaptation of fatty acid compositions, there were no significant changes in membrane fluidity of the strains *B. thermosphacta* DH-B18 and *E. coli* DH-VB4 for the samples treated with MAP compared to the controls (Figure 1, A and C). This applies to all measured temperatures. Strains *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4 and *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T, which showed a strong change in fatty acid composition and WAMT values, underwent significant changes in their membrane fluidity between the MAP-treated samples and the control (Figure 1, B and D). The strains showed a strongly increased fluidization of the membrane for all of the temperatures tested, which did not correspond to the elevated WAMT values that indicated a solidification of the membrane.

Table 2: Fatty acid compositions of the strains belonging to the order of Micrococcales used in this study. Organisms were incubated at 10 °C (Control) and at 10 °C with Modified Atmosphere Packaging including 20 % CO₂ and 80 % O₂ (MAP). Weighted average melting temperatures (WAMT) of the membranes are given and were calculated as described before (Seel et al. 2018). * = Melting point not available, value was approached for calculation

Strain	<i>M. maritypicum</i>		<i>P. helvolus</i>		<i>K. sinensis</i>		<i>A. psychrochitiniphilus</i>		<i>Rathayibacter</i> sp.	
	DH-B8		DH-RS1		DH-S5a		DH-RS23		DH-RS24	
Order	<i>Micrococcales</i>		<i>Micrococcales</i>		<i>Micrococcales</i>		<i>Micrococcales</i>		<i>Micrococcales</i>	
Atmosphere	MAP	Control	MAP	Control	MAP	Control	MAP	Control	MAP	Control
iC_{14:0}										
C_{14:1} trans 2	7.3 ± 0.7	6.5 ± 0.5	4.8 ± 0.5					1.1 ± 0.1		
iC_{15:0}	14.8 ± 0.1	13.6 ± 0.6	3.9 ± 0.4					7.8 ± 2.3	1.1 ± 0.1	2.6 ± 0.6
aiC_{15:0}	44.5 ± 0.4	46.5 ± 1.4	52.4 ± 0.7	64.7 ± 2.0	0.4 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.2	77.7 ± 0.1	82.5 ± 2.3	35.3 ± 2.7	86.8 ± 0.5
C_{15:0}						0.4 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.2			
iC_{16:0}	11.3 ± 0.3	11.2 ± 0.9	41.5 ± 1.0	16.9 ± 0.6	8.3 ± 0.4	7.8 ± 0.8	3.9 ± 0.3	5.4 ± 0.4	42.8 ± 2.0	9.7 ± 0.4
C_{16:1} cis 9						0.8 ± 0.1	4.6 ± 2.0			
C_{16:0}	6.1 ± 0.3					2.2 ± 0.3	2.0 ± 0.4	2.7 ± 0.5		
iC_{17:1} cis 9*						1.4 ± 0.5	3.5 ± 2.2			
iC_{17:0}	3.5 ± 0.1	3.3 ± 0.5	2.7 ± 0.3					2.0 ± 0.6		
aiC_{17:0}	18.7 ± 0.3	19.0 ± 1.1	6.6 ± 1.5					2.6 ± 0.4	17.3 ± 0.5	9.5 ± 1.4
C_{17:1} cis 9						5.9 ± 0.7	15.0 ± 2.9			
C_{17:0}						2.9 ± 0.1	2.0 ± 0.1			
C_{18:1} cis 9						34.5 ± 0.9	37.1 ± 4.9			
C_{18:1} cis 11						2.6 ± 0.2	4.4 ± 0.1			
C_{18:0}						7.3 ± 0.4	3.5 ± 1.7			
C_{18:0} methyl 10						10.4 ± 1.5	2.7 ± 2.0			
C_{19:1} cis 7						11.0 ± 0.8	3.0 ± 1.1			
C_{19:1} cis 11						2.2 ± 0.3	0.8 ± 0.6			
C_{19:0}						1.7 ± 0.8				
WAMT [°C]	37.1 ± 0.1	36.6 ± 0.4	42.1 ± 0.3	34.6 ± 1.2	22.3 ± 0.4	20.0 ± 1.0	28.1 ± 0.1	28.1 ± 0.5	45.7 ± 0.8	28.9 ± 0.2

Table 3: Fatty acid compositions of the strains belonging to the order of Flavobacteriales, Burkholderiales, Caryophanales and Enterobacterales used in this study. Organisms were incubated at 10 °C (Control) and at 10 °C with Modified Atmosphere Packaging including 20 % CO₂ and 80 % O₂ (MAP). Weighted average melting temperatures (WAMT) of the membranes are given and were calculated as described before (Seel et al. 2018). * = Melting point not available, value was approached for calculation

Strain	<i>C. capnotolerans</i>		<i>F. frigidimarvis</i>		<i>C. testosteroni</i>		<i>B. thermosphacta</i>		<i>E. coli</i>		<i>D. gerundensis</i>	
	DH-B6 ^T		DH-RS2		DH-B13		DH-B18		DH-VB4		AM3	
Order	Flavobacteriales		Flavobacteriales		Burkholderiales		Caryophanales		Enterobacterales		Enterobacterales	
Atmosphere	MAP	Control	MAP	Control	MAP	Control	MAP	Control	MAP	Control	MAP	Control
aiC _{13:0}							6.5 ± 0.4	1.8 ± 0.1				
iC _{14:0}							6.5 ± 0.8	0.8 ± 0.3				
C _{14:0}			0.7 ± 0.1	0.7 ± 0.1					5.9 ± 1.2	4.5 ± 0.2		
C _{14:0} 3-OH											1.2 ± 0.0	2.3 ± 0.2
iC _{15:0}	38.0 ± 0.2	37.9 ± 0.6	31.3 ± 0.2	24.7 ± 1.9			1.3 ± 0.2	2.8 ± 0.1				
aiC _{15:0}	9.1 ± 0.1	23.9 ± 0.7	9.5 ± 0.3	9.7 ± 0.3			85.9 ± 1.7	91.6 ± 0.1				
C _{15:1} cis 9			10.9 ± 1.3	5.2 ± 0.5								
C _{15:0}			7.1 ± 1.1	9.5 ± 0.3								
iC _{16:0}			1.8 ± 0.1	1.9 ± 0.1								
C _{16:1} cis 9			24.2 ± 2.0	25.9 ± 0.5	48.6 ± 0.3	43.2 ± 0.5			46.1 ± 4.3	38.8 ± 0.2	46.3 ± 0.8	44.3 ± 0.8
C _{16:1} cis 10			4.2 ± 0.9	1.9 ± 0.2								
iC _{15:0} 2-OH*	10.9 ± 0.4	2.6 ± 0.4										
C _{16:0}	8.2 ± 0.4	3.2 ± 0.3	4.2 ± 0.3	3.5 ± 0.9	25.8 ± 0.5	11.7 ± 0.8			26.9 ± 2.8	28.7 ± 0.7	18.6 ± 0.2	22.8 ± 0.3
iC _{15:0} 3-OH*			2.0 ± 0.4	6.0 ± 2.3								
iC _{17:1} cis 9*	29.3 ± 0.3	30.1 ± 0.8	2.4 ± 0.2	4.3 ± 0.2							0.3 ± 0.0	
cyC _{17:0} 9-10											1.2 ± 0.4	
C _{17:1} cis 11			1.6 ± 0.4	6.8 ± 0.9								
C _{17:0}											2.9 ± 0.1	
C _{18:1} cis 11					25.7 ± 0.3	45.1 ± 0.4			20.9 ± 2.8	27.9 ± 0.4	29.5 ± 1.1	30.5 ± 0.7
iC _{17:0} 3-OH*	3.2 ± 0.2	1.2 ± 0.2										
WAMT [°C]	43.4 ± 0.3	34.6 ± 0.2	29.4 ± 0.6	30.5 ± 1.2	20.6 ± 0.3	14.7 ± 0.4	25.2 ± 0.1	24.8 ± 0.1	23.7 ± 1.4	25.1 ± 0.3	19.5 ± 0.2	21.3 ± 0.2

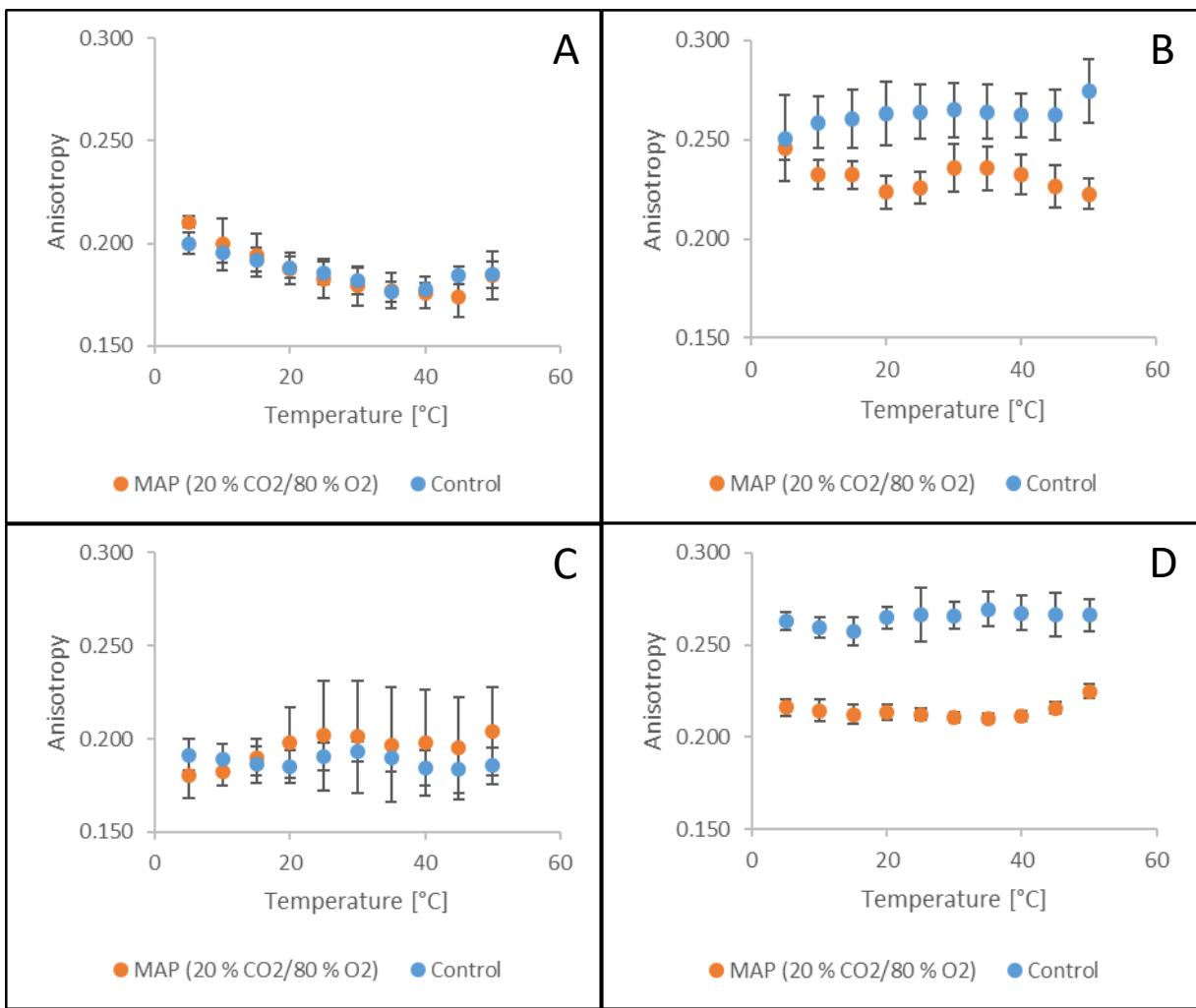


Figure 1: Anisotropy values measured at temperatures ranging from 5 to 50 °C. (A) *Brochothrix thermosphacta* DH-B18, (B) *Chryseobacterium caonotolerans* DH-B6^T, (C) *Escherichia coli* DH-VB4, (D) *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RS24

6.1.4 Discussion

Unlike filamentous fungi and yeasts (Heidler von Heilborn *et al.* 2023b) the bacterial strains used in this study did not respond to CO₂-induced stress by incorporation of (poly-)unsaturated fatty acids or fatty acids with a lower melting temperature. Even on the contrary, in *C. testosteroni* DH-B13 the C_{18:1} cis 11 decreased in favor of the C_{16:0} (and a slight increase of C_{16:1} cis 9), resulting in a hypothetical solidification of the membrane resembled by an increased WAMT of 20.6 °C instead of 14.7 °C, which we expected as a response to a fluidizing effect of CO₂ (Table 3). The melting point of C_{16:0} was described to be 62.2 °C and 15.4 °C for C_{18:1} cis 11 (Knothe and Dunn 2009). This increase of saturated fatty acids and decrease of unsaturated fatty acids was also described for *Carnobacterium divergens* and *Leuconostoc gelidum* treated with CO₂ stress (Kolbeck *et al.* 2021). *P. helvolus* DH-RS1 showed a shift (Table 2) from the *anteiso*-C_{15:0} (melting point of 24.1 °C) to the more stable *iso*-C_{16:0} fatty acid

(melting point of 61.9 °C), which indicated a stabilization of the membrane, as well (Knothe and Dunn 2009). In case of *E. coli* VB4 changes of the fatty acid composition, which did not alter the WAMT of the membrane, occurred, including a shift from the C_{18:1} cis 11 towards the C_{16:1} cis 9 (Table 3). An increase of palmitoleic acid was also described as a response to ethanol stress in *E. coli*, though this response furthermore included an increase of the C_{18:1} cis 11 at the expense of the C_{16:0} (Ingram 1990). In members of the *Lactobacillales* the increase of chain length and unsaturated fatty acids was observed after treatment with ethanol (Ingram 1990). An increase of chain length was found for strains in this work as well, the increase of unsaturated fatty acids after MAP treatment was only observed in fungi (Heidler von Heilborn *et al.* 2023b), which concludes that the reaction towards CO₂ stress is not entirely similar to ethanol stress. The data implies that reactions to CO₂ containing MAP are individual for each species, with a tendency of lengthening fatty acids (*K. sinensis* DH-S5a, *A. psychrochitiniphilus* DH-RSZ3) or shifts from *anteiso* to *iso* fatty acids (*P. helvolus* DH-RS1, *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4, *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T), the latter having a higher melting point (Knothe and Dunn 2009). In *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T the amount of the hydroxyted fatty acids increased. The named changes resulted in a significant change towards an increased WAMT in 6 out of the 11 strains analyzed. A change of fatty acids towards an increased WAMT or more stabilizing fatty acids can also be observed for bacteria and fungi when grown at elevated temperatures (Russell 1984; Suutari 1995; Pedneault *et al.* 2007). The only strain isolated from a non-CO₂-containing MAP environment, *D. gerundensis* AM3, showed a significant lowering of less than 2 °C of the WAMT after MAP treatment.

The WAMT values calculated for the cell membranes either barely differed from the controls or were higher, indicating a hypothetical solidification of the membrane. Strongest increase of 16.8 °C in WAMT was observed for *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4, +8.8 °C for *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T, +7.5 °C for *P. helvolus* DH-RS1 and +5.9 °C for *C. testosteroni* DH-B13, which demonstrates that a change in membrane composition can be found in several non-related bacteria as a response to CO₂ stress.

The anisotropy was lowered in two of the four strains analyzed, namely *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4 and *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T. The fatty acid composition seems to play a crucial role for several strains, although it is recognizable that the strains react very individually to CO₂ stress, in opposition to what was previously observed for fungi (Heidler von Heilborn *et al.* 2023b). Nevertheless, the increased WAMT due to changed fatty acid composition did not correspond to the increased membrane fluidity, which is why we assume that there might be at least one other factor taking influence on the membrane fluidity of bacteria. These could include respiratory quinone contents or pigments of the analyzed organisms, which were present in *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4 and *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T. Also a change in pigmentation was noted for *Pseudoclavibacter helvolus* DH-RS1 and *Duffyella gerundensis*.

AM3 and had been observed for fungi in earlier work, as well (Heidler von Heilborn *et al.* 2023b). This means that interpreting fatty acid compositions cannot necessarily help to conclude the membrane fluidity in bacteria.

We observed a fluidization (and hence increased permeability) of the membrane in those strains, which were affected by CO₂ in growth and in terms of fatty acid adaptations. Other authors mentioned a potential increase of membrane fluidity due to CO₂ stress (Isenschmid *et al.* 1995). The change of fatty acids and reaction of the membrane fluidity due to CO₂ stress was also described for yeasts (Castelli *et al.* 1969). Bacterial organisms like *B. thermosphacta* or *Enterobacteriales*, such as *E. coli* and *D. gerundensis*, seem to react in different ways to handle elevated concentrations of CO₂. Another study found high O₂- and CO₂-containing atmospheres to have an impact on membrane fluidity and fatty acid composition of several meat spoilage bacteria (Kolbeck *et al.* 2021). The bacteria analyzed showed an increase in saturated, *iso*- and cyclopropane fatty acids and the authors furthermore proposed the fatty acid adaptations to be species-specific (Kolbeck *et al.* 2021), which we could confirm in this work with the exception of cyclopropane fatty acids. Like in our study, *B. thermosphacta* did not have altered membrane fluidity whereas other organisms tested in the cited work, like *Carnobacterium maltaromaticum*, showed a significant change at different atmospheres tested, which in that case was a decrease of membrane fluidity (Kolbeck *et al.* 2021). The membrane fluidity of the other strains used in that work was only concluded from fatty acid analysis and the experiments were performed at elevated temperatures of 25 °C. Another study found that the solubility and diffusion of O₂ in phospholipid membranes increases with increasing temperature (Möller *et al.* 2016), unlike CO₂, where the solubility and the inhibitory effect increase with decreasing temperatures (Daniels *et al.* 1985; Gill and Tan 1979).

For the understanding of interactions between CO₂ and the cell membrane of bacteria, it is essential to perform further investigation, especially regarding other components of the membrane aside the fatty acids. Research in that field can help to improve MAP technologies and hence increase the food quality and safety.

6.1.5 Acknowledgement

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KAPITEL 7 – DISKUSSION

7.1 NEUBESCHREIBUNGEN DER CAPNOTOLERANTEN *STENOTROPHOMYCES FUMITOLERANS*, *SPHINGOMONAS ALIAERIS* UND *CHRYSEOBACTERIUM CAPNOTOLERANS*

Der primäre Teil dieser Arbeit lag in der Generierung und Charakterisierung von Isolaten, insbesondere aus dem Lebensmittelbereich und weiteren Umgebungen mit erhöhter CO₂-Atmosphäre, wie Mofetten und der *International Space Station*. Dabei wurden viele capno- und psychrotolerante Organismen selektiert, die zu den Bakterien, filamentösen Pilzen und Hefen gehören und aus den unterschiedlichsten Taxa stammen. Bei der Identifizierung dieser Stämme fielen einige aufgrund von biochemischen oder phylogenetischen Merkmalen auf und stellten sich als neue Art ihrer jeweiligen Gattungen heraus. Diese waren die Hefe *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans*, bei der im Rahmen dieser Arbeit auch die gesamte Gattung neu beschrieben wurde, sowie die Bakterienspezies *Sphingomonas aliaeris* und *Chryseobacterium capnotolerans*, die sich als Vertreter der *Pseudomonadota* und der *Bacteroidota* aus systematischer Sicht nicht nahestehen.

Dennoch verbindet alle diese Organismen ihre Fähigkeit, in Gegenwart von 20 und teilweise bis zu 40 % CO₂ zu wachsen. Dies ist ein Charakteristikum, das bei der Familie der *Sphingomonadaceae* zuvor nicht beschrieben worden ist. Im Falle von *C. capnotolerans* wurde capnophiles Wachstum zwar nicht bei anderen Vertretern der Gattung, jedoch innerhalb der Familie der *Weeksellaceae* nachgewiesen. So wurden *Riemerella anatipesfizer* und *Ornithobacterium rhinotracheale* als capnophile Organismen beschrieben, bei denen es sich um Vogelpathogene handelt und die beide in mikroaeroben Atmosphären mit 3,5 bis 10 % CO₂-Konzentration inkubiert werden (Segers *et al.* 1993; Vandamme *et al.* 1994b). Innerhalb der Ordnung der *Flavobacteriales*, denen diese Organismen angehören, findet sich auch ein weiteres Vogelpathogen, *Coenonia anatina*, das capnophil ist (Vandamme *et al.* 1999). Auch die dazugehörige Gattung *Capnocytophaga* zeichnet sich, wie der Name ausdrückt, durch CO₂-Toleranz aus und es konnte nachgewiesen werden, dass dessen strikt fermentativer Metabolismus abhängig von CO₂-Präsenz ist (Leadbetter *et al.* 1979). Daraus lässt sich ableiten, dass innerhalb dieses Taxons eine Anpassung an eine CO₂-haltige Umgebung verbreitet und diese auch bekannt ist – wenngleich sich durch diese Verbreitung nicht auf alle ihre Vertreter schließen lässt. So wurde bei *Chryseobacterium indologenes* DSM 16777^T im Rahmen dieser Arbeit weder Wachstum bei 20 %, noch bei 40 % CO₂ festgestellt. Bei der Neubeschreibung von *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T wurde auch die gesamte Gattung und einige ihrer Vertreter näher in Hinblick auf ihre polaren Lipide untersucht und eine erweiterte Beschreibung der Gattung durchgeführt. Neben dem ubiquitären Vorkommen von Phosphatidylethanolamin und

verschiedenen Ornithinlipiden wurden in allen untersuchten Stämmen die seltenen Lipide Cytolipin (Glycinlipid), Flavolipin (Serin-Glycin-Lipid) und Sulfobacin A (Sulfonolipid) detektiert. Diese wurden zuvor lediglich aus einzelnen, teilweise nicht näher bestimmten Stämmen extrahiert, im Falle von Cytolipin ausschließlich aus den Bakterien *Cyclobacterium marinum* und *Flavobacterium johnsoniae* (Moore *et al.* 2016; Kawazoe *et al.* 1991), und ihre Funktionen sind bisher, mit Ausnahme möglicher inflammatorischer Regulierung durch Flavolipin in Säugetieren (Clark *et al.* 2013), weitestgehend unbekannt.

Die Beschreibung neuer Arten bei Hefen unterscheidet sich von der bei Bakterien in der Hinsicht, dass bei Hefen nach dem „*International Code of algae, fungi and plants*“ und bei Bakterien nach dem „*International Code of Nomenclature of Prokaryotes*“ gearbeitet wird. Bei Bakterien fallen die Neubeschreibungen aufgrund häufiger, wiederkehrender Parameter, wie der Chemotaxonomie, in der Regel länger aus. *Stenotrophomyces fumitolerans* wurde jedoch neben der Phylogenie ebenfalls chemotaxonomisch untersucht und mitsamt der Gattung in dieser Arbeit als capno- und psychrotolerante Hefe neu beschrieben. Zur Verbreitung der Capnotoleranz in Hefen ist wenig bekannt, jedoch lässt sich aus der Fähigkeit der alkoholischen Gärung zumindest eine gewisse Toleranz gegenüber CO₂ ableiten (Dashko *et al.* 2014). Die der Hefe verwandtschaftlich nahestehende Gattung *Saccharomyces* zeichnet sich ebenfalls durch eine hohe CO₂-Toleranz aus (Castelli *et al.* 1969).

Die Neubeschreibung von Organismen auch heute noch von großer ökologischer, aber auch medizinischer, lebensmittelwissenschaftlicher und biotechnologischer Relevanz. Insbesondere Extremophile, wie die Capnotoleranten, können bei der Erforschung potentieller neuer Enzyme, Sekundärmetaboliten und Pigmenten helfen (Coker 2016; Buzzini *et al.* 2018). Die capnophilen Bakterien *Basfia succiniciproducens* und *Mannheimia succiniciproducens* weisen besondere Metabolismen auf, die die Produktion von Bernsteinsäure beinhalten und biotechnologisch genutzt werden können (Kuhnert *et al.* 2010; Lee *et al.* 2002). Für *Mannheimia succiniciproducens* wurde darüber hinaus die Fixierung von CO₂ beschrieben (Lee *et al.* 2002). Die Aufklärung der für Capnotoleranz oder Capnophilie relevanten Gene oder Enzyme einzelner Organismen könnte auch dabei helfen, das Wachstum capnotoleranter Organismen gezielt durch antimikrobielle Wirkstoffe zu inhibieren. Das Genom weiterer Organismen wurde im Rahmen dieser Arbeit sequenziert, darunter das Isolat *Rathayibacter* sp. RSZ4, in zukünftig als neue Art beschrieben werden und das Verständnis über Capnotolerante erweitern könnte. Insbesondere im Lebensmittelsektor sind diese Mikroorganismen als potentielle Lebensmittelverderbniserreger von Relevanz, wenn sie in Verpackungen mit erhöhter CO₂-Konzentration überdauern können und bei Lagertemperaturen wachsen.

7.2 LEBENSMITTEL-ASSOZIIERTE MIKROORGANISMEN UND IHRE INTERAKTION MIT MODIFIED ATMOSPHERE PACKAGING

Die zuvor genannten neu beschriebenen Organismen wurden alle aus Lebensmitteln isoliert, die mit CO₂-haltiger modifizierter Atmosphäre verpackt wurden. Viele der weiteren Organismen, die verwendet wurden, sind zuvor als Lebensmittelverderbniserreger oder Pathogene mit solchen Umgebungen assoziiert worden, darunter *B. thermosphacta*, *E. coli*, *Candida sake*, *Candida zeylanoides* und *Pichia fermentans* sowie *Penicillium rubens*, *Penicillium griseofulvum* und *Rhizopus oryzae* (Doulgeraki *et al.* 2012; Begley und Hill 2015; Loureiro 1999; Sautour *et al.* 2002; Rundberget *et al.* 2004). Darüber hinaus sind weitere Organismen, welche insbesondere in verpackten Lebensmitteln häufig vorkommen, *Lactobacillus* spp., *Pseudomonas* spp. sowie Vertreter der *Enterobacteriaceae* (Rossaint *et al.* 2015). Neben *E. coli*, der in dieser Arbeit aus Bratwurst isoliert wurde, wurde aus den Mofetten eine Pilzspezies, *Rhizopus oryzae*, isoliert, die ebenfalls nach den Technischen Regeln für Biologische Arbeitsstoffe (TRBA 466 Ausgabe 08/2015 und TRBA 460 Ausgabe 07/2016) der Risikogruppe 2 zuzuordnen ist.

In dieser Arbeit wurde sowohl bei Pro- als auch Eukaryoten ein verminderter Wachstum bei Inkubation unter CO₂-haltigen modifizierten Atmosphären festgestellt. Diese enthielten zumeist 20-40 % CO₂ und 40-80 % O₂, meist mit einem geringfügigen Restanteil N₂. CO₂ ist sowohl wasser- als auch lipidlöslich und hauptsächlich für den bakteriostatischen Effekt auf Mikroorganismen in modifizierten Atmosphären verantwortlich, was der Grund für die Verwendung in nahezu allen MAP-Gaszusammensetzungen ist (Farber 1991; Church 1994). Neben Wachstumsverminderung wurden im Rahmen dieser Arbeit auch Änderungen bei der Koloniekonsistenz sowie der Pigmentierungen von Pilzen und Bakterien festgestellt. Zumindest bei filamentösen Pilzen wurde Letzteres zuvor bereits beschrieben (Fairclough *et al.* 2011). Laut Literatur sinken die Mykotoxingehalte von Pilzen nach Verpacken unter stark CO₂-haltiger modifizierter Atmosphäre ab, darunter die stark-giftigen Aflatoxine, Patulin und Roquefortin C (Taniwaki *et al.* 2009; Taniwaki *et al.* 2001). Bei den in dieser Arbeit verwendeten Nährmedien wurde darüber hinaus eine Absenkung der pH-Werte beobachtet, was in Übereinstimmung mit anderen Forschungsarbeiten ist (Dixon und Kell 1989) und sich durch die Löslichkeit des Kohlenstoffdioxids erklären lässt. Dennoch wurde festgestellt, dass der Effekt von CO₂ nicht oder nur teilweise auf der (intrazellulären) Ansäuerung sowie der Verdrängung des Sauerstoffs basiert (Daniels *et al.* 1985). Auch Eingriffe in den Metabolismus von Mikroorganismen sowie Veränderung von Zellgrößen durch den Einfluss von CO₂ konnten nachgewiesen werden (Daniels *et al.* 1985; Kolbeck *et al.* 2021). Diese vielfältigen Effekte lassen auf einen komplexen Wirkmechanismus des Kohlenstoffdioxids schließen, so wie dies bereits von anderen Autoren diskutiert wurde (Garcia-Gonzalez *et al.* 2007). Die Arbeiten der zu-

vor genannten Autoren zeigen, dass diese Auswirkungen auch nicht auf den hohen O₂-Gehalt zurückzuführen sind. In einer Veröffentlichung wurden die Effekte der beiden Gase zumindest getrennt untersucht und dabei festgestellt, dass hohe O₂-Konzentrationen das Wachstum von unterschiedlichen Vertretern der *Lactobacillales* positiv sowie negativ beeinflussen und ebenfalls einen Einfluss auf die Zellgrößen haben können (Kolbeck *et al.* 2021). Es wurden auch Anpassungen der Fettsäurezusammensetzungen einzelner Organismen bei Konzentrationen von 70 % O₂ beobachtet (Kolbeck *et al.* 2021). Die Experimente der Autoren wurden jedoch bei 25 °C durchgeführt. Die Löslichkeit und Diffusionsrate von O₂ in Phospholipidmembranen steigt mit zunehmender Temperatur (Möller *et al.* 2016), weswegen davon auszugehen ist, dass der Einfluss der hohen O₂-Konzentration im Rahmen dieser Arbeit bei 10 °C deutlich geringer ausgefallen ist. Der Einfluss von CO₂ auf die Zellmembran wird in den folgenden Abschnitten genauer beschrieben und für die unterschiedlichen Organismengruppen Pilze und Bakterien separat betrachtet.

7.3 EINFLUSS VON CO₂ AUF DIE ZELLMEMBRAN VON FILAMENTÖSEN PILZEN UND HEFEN

Die Auswirkungen von CO₂ auf Ebene der Zellmembranen waren zuvor Bestandteil von nur wenigen wissenschaftlichen Arbeiten (Daniels *et al.* 1985; Kolbeck *et al.* 2021) und bezogen sich teilweise auf überkritisches CO₂ (Garcia-Gonzalez *et al.* 2007). Eine Hypothese, die im Rahmen dieser Arbeit näher untersucht werden sollte, war, ob CO₂ die Membran fluidisiert und inwiefern Mikroorganismen dem entgegenwirken. Es wurde mit 20 Stämmen unterschiedlichster Taxa gearbeitet, einschließlich filamentöser Pilze und Hefen, zugehörig sowohl zu Asco- als auch Basidiomycota. Dabei wurden signifikante Reaktionen auf CO₂ hinsichtlich der Fettsäurezusammensetzung der Membranen festgestellt. Der Anteil an mehrfach ungesättigten Fettsäuren, insbesondere der C_{18,3} cis 9, 12, 15, nahm in Folge der Inkubation unter CO₂-haltigem MAP um bis zu 24,8 % stark zu. Dies führte zu einer Abnahme der WAMT gegenüber den Kontrollen (ohne MAP), da diese Fettsäure im Vergleich zu Öl- (12,8 °C) und Linolsäure (-7,2 °C) einen niedrigeren Schmelzpunkt von -11,6 °C besitzt (Knothe und Dunn 2009). Die Zunahme des Grades der Unsättigung und die Abnahme der WAMT ließen sich bei 19 von 20 der untersuchten Stämme feststellen, was theoretisch auf eine erhöhte Fluidisierung der Membran schließen lässt. Eine Reaktion in Form des Einbaus membranstabilisierender Fettsäuren blieb aus. Möglicherweise könnte Ergosterol als membranstabilisierendes Lipid dabei eine zentrale Rolle spielen, da es einen großen Einfluss auf die Beweglichkeit der Membran hat und bei Hefen beispielsweise vermehrt bei Ethanol-Stress gebildet wird (Tesnière 2019). Der Anteil weiterer Lipide dient wiederum der An-

passung an Temperaturstress, wie etwa die Zunahme des polaren Lipids PI bei erhöhten Temperaturen, gegenüber der Zunahme von PE und PC bei niedrigen Temperaturen (Tesnière 2019). Vergleichend wurde aufgrund der zusätzlichen Inkubation bei erhöhten Temperaturen (25 °C) festgestellt, dass die WAMT mit zunehmender Temperatur steigt und der Grad der Unsättigung abnimmt. Dies deckt sich mit der Arbeit weiterer Autoren, die eine Membranstabilisierung durch vermehrte Bildung von gesättigten Fettsäuren bei erhöhten Temperaturen festgestellt haben (Pedneault *et al.* 2007). Auch in diesen Experimenten wurden verstärkt die C_{16:0} sowie in den meisten Fällen C_{18:0}-Fettsäure gebildet. Die genannten Membrananpassungen könnten auch eine (Mit-)Ursache für das festgestellte gehemmte Wachstum der Organismen sprechen.

Aus den Versuchen konnte geschlossen werden, dass Anpassungen unabhängig vom Isolationsort bzw. CO₂-haltiger Umgebung sind und bei allen Stämmen auf ähnliche Art stattfinden. Es gab somit keine auffälligen Adaptationen der Isolate der ISS, der Mofetten oder der MAP-assoziierten Lebensmittel gegenüber Luftkeimen. Die Fettsäureanpassungen bei erhöhter CO₂-Konzentration könnten sowohl aus ernährungsphysiologischer als auch aus Sicht der Lebensmittelsicherheit von Relevanz sein. Eine verstärkte Bildung mehrfach ungesättigter Fettsäuren bei der Kultivierung verzehrgeeigneter Pilze könnte eine positive Auswirkung auf die menschliche Gesundheit in Form von Senkung des Cholesterins haben (Kris-Etherton *et al.* 2004). Darüber hinaus wurde bei Pilzen unter MAP eine verringerte Bildung von Mykotoxinen festgestellt (Taniwaki *et al.* 2009; Taniwaki *et al.* 2001). Auch im Rahmen dieser Arbeit wurden mit *Penicillium griseoefulvum* und *Penicillium rubens* unter anderem zwei humanrelevante Toxinproduzenten aus Lebensmitteln isoliert (Rundberget *et al.* 2004). Die genannten Aspekte könnten weitere Gründe für eine Verwendung der CO₂-haltigen modifizierten Atmosphären im Lebensmittelbereich darstellen, neben der Inhibierung des mikrobiellen Wachstums selbst.

7.4 EINFLUSS VON CO₂ AUF DIE ZELLMEMBRAN VON BAKTERIEN

Gegensätzlich zu den Pilzen reagierten die in dieser Arbeit untersuchten bakteriellen Stämme auf CO₂-Stress überwiegend durch den Einbau von Fettsäuren mit höherem Schmelzpunkt, der hypothetisch zu einer Verfestigung der Membran führt. Dabei wurden die Fettsäuren, wie bei den Organismen *Knoellia sinensis* DH-S5a und *Arthrobacter psychrochitiniphilus* DH-RSZ3, tendenziell in Hinsicht ihrer C-Atome verlängert. Bei anderen Stämmen, wie *Pseudoclavibacter helvolus* DH-RS1, *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4 und *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T, wurden vermehrt *iso*- anstelle der *anteiso*-Fettsäuren eingebaut. In *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T wurde darüber hinaus der Anteil hydroxylierter Fettsäuren erhöht, die, ebenso wie die *iso*-Fettsäuren, erhöhte Schmelzpunkte aufweisen (Knothe und Dunn 2009). Bei 6 der 11 untersuchten Stämme wurde eine signifikante Erhöhung des WAMT-Wertes festgestellt.

Anpassungen hin zu einer stabileren Membran sind auch bei erhöhten Wachstumstemperaturen bekannt, die die Fluidität beeinträchtigen können (Russell 1984). Lediglich in dem Fall von *Duffyella gerundensis* AM3 kam es zu einer leichten signifikanten Senkung des WAMT-Wertes. Dies war das einzige Bakterium, das lediglich aus einer unter Normalatmosphäre versiegelten Verpackung isoliert wurde, was darauf schließen lässt, dass dieses möglicherweise nicht an Bedingungen mit erhöhten CO₂-Konzentrationen angepasst ist.

Ein geringerer Anteil der C_{18:1} cis 11-Fettsäure zugunsten der geradkettigen C_{16:0}-Fettsäure wurde bei *Comamonas testosteroni* DH-B13 festgestellt. Der Anstieg gesättigter Fettsäuren zulasten von ungesättigten Fettsäuren bei *Carnobacterium divergens* und *Leuconostoc gelidum* sowie die Zunahme von iso-Fettsäuren bei CO₂-Stress wurde zuvor bereits beschrieben und deckt sich mit den Beobachtungen dieser Arbeit (Kolbeck *et al.* 2021). Unter der Annahme, dass Ethanol-Stress bei Mikroorganismen in vielen Fällen aufgrund der Metabolismen gleichzeitig mit der Entstehung von CO₂ oder mit CO₂-Stress einhergeht, lassen sich möglicherweise auch Rückschlüsse aus Untersuchungen ziehen, die dies thematisieren. Bei dem Ethanol- und CO₂-produzierenden Bakterium *Zymomonas mobilis* konnte nachgewiesen werden, dass sich Ethanol-Stress nicht auf die Fettsäurezusammensetzung der Membran, dafür jedoch auf die Bildung der polaren Lipide DPG und PC positiv auswirkt, zulasten von PE und PG (Carey und Ingram 1983). Bei der stark Ethanol-toleranten Spezies *Fructilactobacillus fructivorans* wurden hingegen starke Anpassungen der Fettsäuren in Richtung der Zunahme ungesättigter Fettsäuren und Erhöhung der Kettenlänge nachgewiesen (Ingram 1990). Die Zunahme ungesättigter Fettsäuren konnte im Rahmen dieser Arbeit bei nahezu allen filamentösen Pilzen und Hefen, und die Erhöhung der Kettenlänge bei einigen bakteriellen Vertretern, wie *Knoellia sinensis* und *Arthrobacter psychrochitinophilus*, als Folge von CO₂-Stress nachgewiesen werden. Dennoch gibt es auch hier Unterschiede, wie die verstärkte Bildung der ungesättigten C_{18:1} cis 11-Fettsäure bei Ethanol-Stress bei *Escherichia coli* (Ingram 1990), im Gegensatz zu der in dieser Arbeit festgestellten Verschiebung von der C_{18:1} cis 11- zur C_{16:1} cis 9-Fettsäure. Dies erschwert eine direkte Vergleichbarkeit von Ethanol- mit CO₂-Stress. CO₂ scheint folglich über seine Möglichkeit der Wasser- und Fettlöslichkeit, die es mit Ethanol gemeinsam hat, hinaus individuellen Einfluss auf die Membranen von Mikroorganismen zu haben.

Messungen der Membranfluidität ergaben, dass CO₂ in *C. capnotolerans* DH-B6^T und *Rathayibacter* sp. DH-RSZ4 zu einer Fluidisierung führt. Bei diesen Stämmen wurden jedoch auch stark erhöhte WAMT-Werte festgestellt. Daraus lässt sich schließen, dass möglicherweise andere Komponenten, wie Chinone oder polare Lipide beteiligt sind, wie z. B. bei Ethanol- und Temperatur-Stress beschrieben wurde (Carey und Ingram 1983; Seel *et al.* 2018). Da beide Organismen pigmentiert sind und deren

Pigmentierung durch Inkubation unter hoher CO₂-Konzentration abnahm, könnten auch diese von Bedeutung für die Adaptation sein. Bei dem Cyanobakterium *Synechococcus lividus* wurde ebenfalls ein Verlust der Pigmentierung nach Inkubation bei CO₂ beschrieben (Miller und Holt 1977). *B. thermosphacta* DH-B18 und *Escherichia coli* DH-VB4 zeigten bei der Membranfluidität keine Reaktion auf CO₂ und zeigten nach wie vor gutes Wachstum. Bei der Zusammensetzung der Fettsäuren wies lediglich *B. thermosphacta* DH-B18 leichte Veränderungen auf. Die Ergebnisse lassen darauf schließen lässt, dass die beiden genannten Organismen gut an erhöhte Konzentrationen von CO₂ angepasst sind.

Es stellte sich heraus, dass die Reaktionen auf CO₂-Stress durch MAP bei Bakterien weitaus individueller als bei Pilzen ausfallen. In den meisten Fällen geht dieser Stress jedoch mit Membrananpassungen einher, die eine Ursache für das gehemmte mikrobielle Wachstum darstellen können. Eine weitere im Lebensmittelbereich beliebte Methode zur Konservierung von Lebensmitteln ist die Behandlung mit superkritischem CO₂. Bei dieser wurde bereits eine verstärkte Membranpermeabilisierung bei Bakterien nachgewiesen (Tamburini *et al.* 2013). Bei Stämmen von *Streptococcus pneumoniae* wurde eine Mutation im *murF*-Gen festgestellt, dessen kodiertes Enzym MurF UDP-MurNAc-Pentapeptid-Synthetase mit der Zellwandbiogenese assoziiert ist und in Verbindung mit der Capnophilie dieser Stämme steht (Burghout *et al.* 2013). Es wäre diskutabel, ob die Zellwand eine weitere Einflusszone des Kohlenstoffdioxids darstellt und, ob das erwähnte Gen auch bei anderen Taxa eine wichtige Funktion in Hinblick auf Capnotoleranz erfüllt. Eine Transkriptomanalyse könnte darüber hinaus weitere Einblicke in die Regulierung verschiedener Gene verschaffen. Insofern könnten die Taxonomie, einschließlich Gesamtgenomsequenzierungen und möglicher Transkriptomanalysen, sowie die Berücksichtigung weiterer Membrankomponenten weitere Ansatzpunkte bieten, die in zukünftigen Experimenten verfolgt werden könnten. In dieser Arbeit konnten weitere Einblicke hinsichtlich der Reaktion von Pilzen und Bakterien auf CO₂-Stress gewonnen werden, welche in überwiegendem Maß auf die Veränderung der Fettsäurekomposition abzielt. Neben der Membranfluidität ist auch das Wachstumsverhalten und die Taxonomie capnotoleranter Stämme näher untersucht worden und bot letztlich das Potential mehrerer Beschreibungen von neuen Arten.

KAPITEL 8 – LITERATURVERZEICHNIS

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