1	Ancestry and adaptive radiation of <i>Bacteroidetes</i> as assessed by comparative genomics
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18	Keywords
19	Bacteroidetes, Na ⁺ -NQR, alternative complex III, caa ₃ cytochrome oxidase, gliding, T9SS.
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21	Abbreviations
22	m.s.i.: median sequence identity.
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27 ABSTRACT

As of this writing, the phylum Bacteroidetes comprises more than 1,500 described species with 28 29 diverse ecological roles. However, there is little understanding of archetypal Bacteroidetes traits on 30 a genomic level. We compiled a representative set of 89 Bacteroidetes genomes and used pairwise reciprocal best match gene comparisons and gene syntenies to identify common traits that allow to 31 trace Bacteroidetes' evolution and adaptive radiation. Highly conserved among all studied 32 33 Bacteroidetes was the type IX secretion system (T9SS). Class-level comparisons furthermore 34 suggested that the ACIII-caa₃COX super-complex evolved in the ancestral aerobic bacteroidetal 35 lineage, and was secondarily lost in extant anaerobic Bacteroidetes. Another Bacteroidetes-specific 36 respiratory chain adaptation is the sodium-pumping Nqr complex I that replaced the ancestral 37 proton-pumping complex I in marine species. The T9SSS plays a role in gliding motility and the 38 acquisition of complex macro-molecular organic compounds, and the ACIII-caa3COX super-39 complex allows effective control of the electron flux during respiration. This combination likely provided ancestral Bacteroidetes with a decisive competitive advantage to effectively scavenge, 40 uptake and degrade complex organic molecules, and therefore has played a pivotal role in the 41 42 successful adaptive radiation of the phylum.

43 INTRODUCTION

44 The Gram-negative, biderm Bacteroidetes constitute one of the four largest bacterial phyla with 45 cultured representatives. Compared to the Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria and Firmicutes it is 46 underrepresented in culture collections and sequence databases despite high abundance in various 47 environments ranging from human gut to marine surface waters [16]. Recent studies have 48 corroborated the pivotal role of Bacteroidetes in the remineralization of high molecular weight 49 organic matter [e.g. 20, 49, 52]. High abundances and ecological importance notwithstanding, we 50 still lack a defined blueprint that could explain the monophyly of the Bacteroidetes [22, 33] and 51 their evolutionary success. Candidate phenotypic traits to identify Bacteroidetes are their gliding 52 motility [29], the use of flexirubin family pigments as UV protectants [2], or their capability of 53 complex biopolymers take up via TonB-dependent outer membrane receptors/transporters [50, 52]. 54 Good genomic markers for these phenotypes are the gld genes for gliding motility, flx for flexirubin 55 biosynthesis and the susD gene as predictor of canonical bacteroidetal polysaccharide utilization 56 loci (PUL) [50, 51].

57 Ongoing isolation and genome sequencing efforts have led to a more even representation of Bacteroidetes in public culture collections and sequence databases, even though members of the 58 59 classes Bacteroidia and Flavobacteriia disproportionately outnumber those of the classes 60 Chitinophagia, Saprospiria, Sphingobacteriia, and Cytophagia. Recent taxonomic rearrangements 61 have also changed the composition of these classes [14, 33], thereby changing the search space for 62 shared proteins that constitute suitable phenotypic markers [13, 29]. Therefore, we conducted a 63 reassessment of Bacteroidetes genomes in order to identify traits that define the essence of what 64 makes a bacteroidete a bacteroidete.

In 2007 Gupta and Lorenzini already tried to define the set of genes exclusive to the *Bacteroidetes.* Due to the limited number of available sequenced genomes they based their analysis on only three *Bacteroidia* and one *Flavobacteriia* [13]. Twenty-seven idiosyncratic genes were identified, all of which coded for proteins of unknown functions that contained characteristic *Bacteroidetes*-specific signatures. This small number suggests that the analyzed genomes are only distantly related, which substantiates that the *Bacteroidetes* is a large phylum with high adaptive radiation. Here we present a reciprocal best match comparison of 89 carefully selected *Bacteroidetes* genomes that is broader in taxonomic representation and links the adaptive radiation of the *Bacteroidetes* to their energy metabolism.

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75 MATERIALS AND METHODS

76 Data selection

77 As of June 2016, more than 800 Bacteroidetes genomes were available at NCBI's RefSeq database. We excluded genomes of Blattabacteriaceae endosymbionts to avoid a bias due to genome 78 79 reduction. Likewise we removed redundant genomes from popular genera, such as *Bacteroides*, 80 Prevotella, Porphyromonas, Flavobacterium or Hymenobacter, while retaining all type strains. This 81 resulted in a phylogenetically more balanced list of 478 complete genomes (Supplementary table 1). For genomes of species from the same genus, we performed average nucleotide identity (ANI) 82 83 calculations using ANIm as implemented in pyany v0.1.3.9 [38] to confirm species affiliations 84 (Supplementary figure 1). The final dataset comprised 89 high-quality *Bacteroidetes* genomes, each 85 consisting of less than five contigs. We chose 48 Flavobacteriia, 16 Bacteroidia, 15 Cytophagia, 5 86 Chitinophagia and 5 Sphingobacteriia in order to maintain phylogenetic representativeness. Two members of the Saprospiria were included within the Chitinophagia as classified by Munoz et al. 87 [33]. The sphingobacterial branch of the Mucilaginibacter spp. was not represented because the 88 89 most complete genome still consisted of seven contigs. Five non-bacteroidetal genomes of the 90 Fibrobacter-Chlorobi-Bacteroidetes (FCB) lineage complemented the database (Supplementary 91 figure 2, Supplementary table 2). Genome size (megabases) and G+C %mol content were used as 92 metrics to statistically compare the full dataset of 478 genomes to the reduced subset of 89 genomes 93 using R v3.6.0 [39] (Table 1, Supplementary figure 3).

95 *Comparative genomics*

Using scripts from the enveomics suite [43], BLAST+ v2.2.28 [1] reciprocal best matches were 96 97 calculated for the predicted protein sequences encoded by all 89 Bacteroidetes genomes. As 98 threshold for orthology, we used a minimum of 50% amino acid identity within 50% of the 99 sequence length [55], based on systematic evaluations that showed that core genomes remained 100 stable using 40% to 60% identity-coverage combinations (data not shown). Thousands of groups of 101 orthologous genes were obtained and corresponding amino acid sequences were compared at the 102 phylum and class levels as classified in Munoz et al. [33]. The resulting groups of orthologous 103 sequences were divided in three sets. (1) Sequences encoded in all genomes of a taxon (core 104 genome). (2) Sequences exclusively encoded in genomes of a taxon and not in genomes of other 105 taxa (exclusive sequences). (3) Sequences encoded in the majority of genomes of a taxon, but also 106 present in a smaller number of other genomes of other taxa (henceforth referred to as prevalent 107 sequences). The phylogenetic coverage of prevalent sequences in this study ranged from 80% in classes Chitinophagia and Sphingobacteriia (encoded in 4 out of 5 genomes and 1 allowed outlier 108 109 ortholog), to 96% in the Bacteroidetes phylum (encoded in 86 out of 89 genomes and/or 3 allowed 110 outlier genomes).

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112 Sequence identity and annotation

Exclusive and prevalent sequences were aligned with Clustal Omega v1.2.2 [12] using default parameters. From the resulting identity matrices, we calculated the median identity of each sequence with its orthologs and extracted the maximal and minimal identities within every group of orthologous sequences. Median sequence identities were compiled in a table that was transformed into a heatmap using plotly v2.6.0 [37]. Genome sequence annotations were updated by sequence similarity searches against the UniProt [7] and KEGG [18] databases. Sequences in the core genome of *Bacteroidetes* were searched against the NCBI database using BLAST with default parameters in search of homologies outside the phylum by excluding the *Bacteroidetes* (organismfilter taxid: 976).

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123 Sequence synteny and synonyms

For each taxon we selected reference genomes (Table 2) from which we extracted a multiheaded 124 125 FASTA file for each group of orthologs containing the conserved protein sequence plus eight 126 adjacent sequences (four genes up- and downstream). These files were searched for recurrent gene 127 arrangements against all 89 genomes using MultiGeneBlast v1.1.13 [30] for visual identification of 128 syntenies. The sequence homology cut-off was set to 20% identity and 30% coverage allowing the 129 detection of homologies below the reciprocal best match threshold. We set the maximum distance 130 between homologs to 10 genes. When syntenic arrangements extended past the nine query genes, 131 extended multiheaded fasta files were generated and queried against the database for confirmation. Ideally, every gene in a syntenic arrangement could be matched to a single group of orthologous 132 133 sequences indicating that the groups of orthologs represented adjacent genes. However, we also 134 depicted genes represented by multiple groups of orthologous sequences. These groups of orthologs 135 representing the same gene and syntenic position are synonymous. Furthermore, their annotations 136 also coincided [6].

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138 Phylogenetic reconstructions

Orthologous protein sequences were extracted from genomes using enveomic tools [43] and subsequently imported into ARB [26]. Sequences were aligned using Muscle v3.8.31 [8] with 16 maximum iterations. Neighbor-joining phylogenetic analyses included Kimura correction and 1,000 bootstrap iterations.

143

144 **RESULTS**

145 Overall the selected subset of 89 genomes of Bacteroidetes was representative of the curated dataset of 478 genomes in terms of median genome size (3.96 Mbp \pm 1.4) and G+C mol% content 146 147 $(39.4\% \pm 6.8)$. Minimum values were higher due to exclusion of *Blattabacteriaceae* (Table 1). The 148 mean genome size in the Chitinophagia increased by 2 Mbp, but its G+C % mol% remained 149 representative (Supplementary figure 3). The reason is that the selected *Chitinophagia-Saprospiria* 150 genomes with the least contigs were also the largest in this taxon (Supplementary table 1). The 151 balanced representation of species along the full phylogenetic tree of the phylum (Supplementary 152 figure 2), and the coherent metrics explained above, indicated that the reduced dataset was as 153 diverse and representative as the repositories allowed.

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155 Screening of conserved genes

156 The reciprocal best match analysis classified 325,548 translated sequences into 31,265 groups of orthologs (OGs) (Supplementary table 3), of which 5% recruited paralogous sequences. In OGs 157 with no paralogs each sequence was recruited from a different genome. In OGs with paralogs at 158 159 least two homologous sequences originate from the same genome. Of the 1,589 OGs that contained 160 paralogs, 56% recruited only 1 paralog in 1 genome. Frequencies of OGs that recruited increasing 161 numbers of paralogs decreased steeply (Supplementary figure 4). The core of the 94 Fibrobacteres-162 Chlorobi-Bacteroidetes (FCB) genomes in the analysis consisted of 65 predicted housekeeping proteins (Table 2, supplementary table 4) and was similar to the core genome of the prokaryotes in 163 terms of size and composition [21]. The Bacteroidetes' core genome comprised 155 predicted 164 165 proteins with a predominance of ribosomal proteins (Figure 1, Table 2, Supplementary table 5). BLAST searches retrieved homologs of all the 155 core genome sequences in other phyla with 166 167 similarities above 30%. Whithin our database, only 31 sequences were exclusively encoded in the 168 Bacteroidetes with a predominance of aminoacyl-tRNA synthesis enzymes (Figure 1, Table 2, 169 Supplementary table 6). Exclusive plus prevalent in Bacteroidetes were 87 sequences (Figure 1, Table 2, Supplementary table 6), 49 of which did not belong to the core genome and were either 170

171 involved in aminoacyl-tRNA biosynthesis or of unknown functions (Figure 1, Table 2). Prevalent sequences contained fewer predicted ribosomal proteins than the core genome, since most 172 173 ribosomal proteins were also present in the out-group genomes. For the same reason they did not 174 recruit predicted proteins involved in the metabolism of terpenoids and polyketides, lipid metabolism and energy transduction (Figure 1). Among the 87 highly conserved sequences in 175 176 Bacteroidetes a total of 21 were uncharacterized predicted proteins or proteins of unknown 177 functions. Independent BLAST searches indicated that the majority might belong to housekeeping 178 functions, but six remained difficult to classify (Table 3). Two unknown protein pairs that were 179 consistently encoded next to each other are of particular interest (corresponding to Pfam entries 180 PF02591/PF01784 and PF01327/PF03652).

181 Only two of the original 27 proteins identified by Gupta and Lorenzini 2007 [13] were contained in 182 our list of 31 predicted exclusive proteins, 13 did not find a reciprocal match in other genomes, and 183 many others were not common in the phylum (Supplementary table 7). We therefore examined prevalent sequences in classes of *Bacteroidetes* (Table 2, Supplementary figure 5). When the class 184 185 Bacteroidia was excluded, the remaining Bacteroidetes shared 19 exclusive sequences and 49 prevalent sequences (Table 2). These proteins that were lost in *Bacteroidia* predominantly belonged 186 187 to the carbohydrate metabolism, mostly to the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle (Supplementary table 188 8). The whole set of prevalent sequences by taxonomic class was of 382 sequences which coded for 189 many non-house-keeping functionalities (Supplementary table 8).

190

191 Distribution and similarity of prevalent sequences

The median sequence identity (m.s.i.) within prevalent groups of orthologs ranged from 45% to 81%. As much as 61% percent of 382 orthologous groups had within identity ranges of 50-60%, 26% of them of 60-70%, and the remaining 13% were evenly distributed above 70% or just below 50%. High internal m.s.i. did not correlate with taxonomic distribution, metabolic pathways or sequence length. However, representation of the presence/absence pattern of orthologs and their 197 m.s.i. in a heatmap revealed some underlying trends (Figure 2) that corresponded with evolutive traits of the Bacteroidetes. Conserved sequences of the Flavobacteriia were consistently less similar 198 in genomes of the Chryseobacterium branch [14]. The genomes of Fluviicola taffensis DSM 16823^T 199 200 (family *Crocinitomicaceae*) and Owenweeksia hongkongensis DSM 17368^T (family 201 Cryomorphaceae) lacked many of the conserved sequences of the Flavobacteriia. Likewise, the genomes of deep-branching *Bacteroidia*, such as *Alistipes finegoldii* DSM 17242^T, 202 Draconibacterium orientale FH5^T, and Odoribacter splanchnicus DSM 20712, frequently encoded 203 204 some of the 28 proteins missing from most other Bacteroidia. Finally, conserved sequences of the 205 Chitinophagia and Sphingobacteriia held low m.s.i., indicating phylogenetic remoteness.

206

207 Presence of hallmark genes described in the literature

208 TonB-dependent uptake systems are widely distributed among Gram-negative bacteria and have 209 been shown to transport a variety of large substrates including iron-siderophores, nickel, vitamin B12 and oligosaccharides [34, 45]. Bacteroidetes have evolved a variant that features a SusD-like 210 211 substrate-binding protein. Genes for SusD are usually co-located with genes for SusC in a characteristic tandem. These tandems are often part of PULs, where SusD acts as initial glycan-212 binding protein that interacts with the SusC TonB-dependent pore protein for uptake across the 213 214 outer membrane. However, there are also SusD homologs that might have alternate functions, e.g. 215 in iron acquisition [27].

SusC/D proteins are homologous to RagA/B proteins [15] and therefore often annotated as such. We identified 452 orthologous groups containing annotated SusC/RagA sequences, and 160 containing SusD/RagB sequences. SusC/RagA homologs were more abundant than SusD/RagB because not all bacteroidetal TonB-dependent transports feature SusD, which is specific for oligosaccharides [34]. The classes *Cytophagia*, *Chitinophagia* and *Sphingobacteriia* showed the highest SusD absolute abundances, but SusD distribution did neither reveal a phylogenetic nor environmental pattern. SusC/SusD ratios were high in the genera *Bacteroides* and *Prevotella* in comparison to the phylum's general trend, 13 genomes did not contain SusD sequences and five noSus sequences at all (Supplementary figures 7 and 8).

In order to identify flexirubin synthesis genes, we used the flx genes from *Flavobacterium johnsoniae* UW101 [46] as queries for MultiGeneBlast searches in other genomes. Only 22 genomes of the entire dataset contained at least half of the *flx* cluster (Supplementary figure 9), and no homologous sequences were found in genomes of the *Saprospiria* and *Sphingobacteriia* classes. When homologous gene clusters could be recognized outside the *Flavobacteriia*, these were shorter, mainly due to the absence of predicted hypothetical proteins.

231 Gliding motility sequences occurred almost ubiquitously in the *Bacteroidetes*. The gldC and gldL 232 gliding motility genes were conserved in most *Flavobacteriia* (gldC), *Sphingobacteriia* (gldC, gldL) 233 and Cytophagia (gldL) as synonymous groups of orthologs constrained to the class rank 234 (Supplementary table 8). The gldC gene was not conserved in a recognizable gene cluster across 235 Bacteroidetes and was located adjacent to gldB only in 43 Flavobacteriia. In contrast, gldL belonged to the cluster gldKLMN or gldKLMO recognizable in 80 genomes, 90% of the represented 236 237 Bacteroidetes (Supplementary table 9, Supplementary figure 6). Only Flavobacteriia encoded the cluster gldKLMO. Whereas the best reciprocal matches did not classify the gldK, gldM and gldN/O 238 239 genes as orthologs, we were able to identify their orthology by their syntenic position. Our 240 screening methodology did not recruit genes of other subunits (e.g. B, D, J, etc) either by orthology 241 or synteny.

242

243 Hallmark genes of the respiratory chain

Besides in *gldKLMN/O* genes common to most *Bacteroidetes*, synonymy was also frequent among genes of the respiratory chain. Quinol:cytochrome c oxidoreductases appeared among the conserved predicted proteins of all classes except for anaerobic *Bacteroidia*. These oxidoreductases belonged to a gene cluster that codes for an alternative complex III (ACIII) with six subunits: ActABCDEF [40]. Many of the *act* gene clusters showed downstream synteny with genes of predicted cytochrome oxidase subunits (Figure 3). These genes code for an oxygen-reducing caa₃-type cytochrome oxidase (caa₃COX) that together with ACIII forms a respiratory super-complex [47, 48]. BLAST searches found sequences of the ACIII gene cluster also in genomes of the initially discarded *Blattabacteriaceae*. The sequences of all subunits, except ActC, segregated in at least four synonymous groups of orthologs under our reciprocal best match parameters. The ACIIIcaa₃COXgene cluster was encoded in 83% of the represented *Bacteroidetes*, all the aerobes.

255 Genes *sdhA* and *sdhB* of the respiratory complex II belonged to the core genome of the phylum. 256 Both sequences were always encoded in a gene cluster together with sdhC. The sdhCAB operon 257 codes for the type B succinate: quinol reductase (SQR) [5, 25]. Since complex II SQR genes were 258 part of the *Bacteroidetes* core genome, and predicted proteins of the supercomplex ACIII-caa₃COX 259 were conserved, we investigated the distribution of other respiratory chain complexes. Sequences of 260 the NADH-quinone oxidoreductase (Nuo proteins of complex I) grouped in groups of orthologs 261 with no phylogenetic pattern of occurrence. Furthermore, we found that genomes that lacked genes for Nuo proteins featured genes for Nqr proteins of a sodium pumping NADH:quinone 262 263 oxidoreductase (Na⁺-NQR) (Figure 3, Supplementary table 9). Only Haliscomenobacter hydrossis DSM 1100^T encoded full copies of both complexes (Figure 3, Supplementary table 9). Like 264 265 complex I, Na⁺-NQR accepts electrons from NADH and transfers them to a quinone, but pumps 266 sodium ions instead of protons [3]. Presence of Ngr sequences correlated with strains' isolation from NaCl-rich environments (seawater, sea fauna and human gut microbiota or pathogens). 267 Subunits of Nuo and Nqr were both encoded in recognizable gene clusters (Figure 3). Nuo proteins 268 269 were organized in the cluster nuoABCDEFGHIJKLMN, with a lack of subunits C, E, F and G in Bacteroidia. Nqr subunits were encoded in the cluster nqrABCDEF, with the lack of subunit F in 270 271 Cytophagia (Figure 3, Supplementary table 9).

Sequences of the F-type ATP synthase were prevalent in the phylum, but barely had orthologous hits in *Bacteroidia*. A detailed inspection with a lower similarity threshold revealed that subunits A, B, C, δ , α , and γ remained encoded in the same gene cluster across most *Bacteroidetes*' genomes including *Bacteroidia* members (Supplementary table 10). However, no F-type ATPase subunits were present in the *Bacteroidia* members *Porphyromonas asaccharolytica*, *P. gingivalis* and *Alistipes finegoldii*. These species feature a V-type ATPase instead. Eight *Bacteroidia* genomes encoded both types of ATPases (Supplementary table 10) corroborating previous findings [33].

279 Conserved sequences of the *Bacteroidia* comprised a predicted cytochrome D ubiquinol oxidase 280 subunit II or cytochrome bd (Supplementary table 8). Its gene was always preceded by a gene 281 coding for a DUF4492-containing protein (DUF: domain of unknown function) and then followed 282 by the cytochrome D ubiquinol oxidase subunit I gene (Supplementary table 9). The cytochrome D 283 ubiquinol oxidases I and II corresponded to the cytochrome bd subunits CydAB involved in aerobic 284 respiration of *Bacteroides* species [4].

285

286 True orthology of hallmark genes as assessed by monophyletic circumscription of known taxa

We conducted a multi-locus sequence analysis (MLSA) of common Bacteroidetes protein 287 288 complexes in order to check their orthology via agreement with other phylogenies [14, 33] (Figure 289 4). A phylogenetic reconstruction based on concatenated SdhAB sequences of respiratory complex 290 II could not resolve the six *Bacteroidetes* classes and suggested a horizontal gene transfer (HGT) 291 event between the common ancestor of the Bacteroidia and the anaerobic green sulfur bacterium 292 Chlorobium limicola. In contrast, a reconstruction based on concatenated ActBCD sequences of the ACIII resolved the commonly accepted *Bacteroidetes* phylogeny although the only representative of 293 the Bacteroidia was placed closer to Saprospiria rather than Flavobacteriia. Lastly, a phylogeny 294 295 inferred from the GldKLMN/O sequences of the gliding machinery also agreed with the known Bacteroidetes phylogeny, but placed F. taffensis outside the Flavobacteriia in 65% of the total 296 iterations. The genetic drift of the Chryseobacterim branch measured by m.s.i. among the 297 298 Flavobacteriia could be related to their dichotomic branching in 100% of the Gld topologies and 299 67% of the Act topologies.

301 **DISCUSSION**

The low number of sequences exclusive to Bacteroidetes and their involvement mainly in 302 housekeeping functions precludes delineation of a genetic blueprint of the phylum on this basis 303 304 alone. Future functional characterization of 21 yet unknown predicted proteins could provide further insights into the Bacteroidetes common biology and ancestry. For now, no common 305 306 phenotype can be ascribed to all Bacteroidetes. In addition, the Bacteroidetes phylum status has 307 recently been questioned in a proposal to base the assignment of taxonomic ranks consistently on 308 comparable evolutionary distances in the prokaryotic tree of life [36], which could lead to a 309 unification of the FCB group into a single phylum [36]. The 94 FCB genomes analyzed in this study 310 shared a small core genome (65 proteins) resembling a core genome of organisms from different domains [11, 21]. Based on comparable evolutionary distances, the Actinobacteria represent a 311 312 phylum-level taxon [36] with a core genome of 123 genes [56] - a size similar to the Bacteroidetes 313 core genome of 155 genes. While a formal status of the phylum category in the ICNP is pending to be implemented by the ICSP [35], the classification of the Bacteroidetes as an independent phylum 314 315 seems justified based in our analyses in terms of phylogenetic coherence, independently of how 316 distant the emergence of the Bacteroidetes branch is in the prokaryotic tree of life, and thus 317 deserves a stable nomenclatural status.

318 Core gene sets of distant genomes are usually small and dominated by essential housekeeping functions [6, 21]. More relaxed criteria can in addition recruit genes that are common yet not 319 ubiquitous, and with an as broad phylogenetic distribution as possible [6]. A problem in comparing 320 321 distant genomes are groups of distant but still orthologous genes. A high identity threshold for orthology can split such a group of distant orthologs into multiple synonymous groups (false 322 negatives), while a low threshold can pick up spurious matches (false positives). In this study, we 323 applied a high identity threshold, and to detect false negative groupings with taxonomic coherence 324 325 we also searched for conserved sequences and their syntenies in lower taxonomic ranks. This way

we recovered sequences of the respiratory chain and gliding machinery, which are orthologous andwidely distributed in the phylum.

328 Complex II SQR is the only respiratory complex encoded in all analyzed Bacteroidetes. A 329 phylogenetic reconstruction based on SQR SdhAB was not able to resolve the classes Cytophagia, Chitinophagia, and Sphingobacteriia. Substitution rates were low and of insufficient resolution 330 331 considering the lengths of the protein sequences. This also caused many branches to have low 332 bootstrap support. Overall, the poor phylogenetic signal of these sequences is not indicative fora 333 true orthologous relationship. In this context, the affiliation of complex II from C. limicola with the 334 Bacteroidia's could be an artifact, even though a HGT between both taxa would explain the 335 similarity of their Sdh, Rnf, and Ngr protein sequences as xenologues.

336 Phylogenetic reconstructions based on the conserved GldKLMN/O and ActCDE sequences reproduced the currently accepted major *Bacteroidetes* taxa regardless of branching order. With 337 high substitution rates and acceptable bootstrap values, their phylogenies indicate that Gld and Act 338 sequences can be trusted as orthologs. The Gld-based topology was less stable than the Act based 339 340 topology. Yet, its only branch with a bootstrap below 50% was the Bacteroidia's, indicating a higher 341 sequence variability in this class compared to others in the phylum. The Bacteroidia in the Actbased tree were represented by the facultative aerobe *Draconibacterium orientale* FH5^T that 342 343 affiliates with the Chitinophagia and Saprospiria instead of the Flavobacteriia. However, for the purpose of this study, phylogenetic branching order is irrelevant. Still, the prevalence of the Gld and 344 345 Act protein complexes in the Bacteroidetes should encourage their analysis in future studies of the 346 bacteroidetal classification. In this regard, our MLSA topologies and m.s.i. analyses support possible reclassifications in the class Flavobacteriia. The Chryseobacterium branch could constitute 347 a new family of the Flavobacteriales, presumably the 'Riemerellaceae', and the family 348 349 Crocinitomicaceae (F. taffensis) could become a different order of the Flavobacteriia, presumably 350 the 'Crocinitomicales'. The family designation of the Cryomorphaceae (O. hongkongensis) would 351 be debatable.

Gliding motility has for long been thought to be a hallmark of the *Bacteroidetes*. Gliding genes are 352 353 widespread throughout the Bacteroidetes, but the phenotype is not always expressed [29]. The exact 354 mechanism of gliding is still unknown, but two sets of proteins seem to be essential: the membrane 355 Gld subunits B, D, H and J that might be effectors of movement, and a type IX secretion system (T9SS) formed by GldKLMN plus SprA, SprE, and SprT [29]. Gliding in F. johnsoniae also 356 357 requires an ABC-type transporter formed by Gld subunits A, F, and G, but this transporter is absent 358 from other gliding bacteria [29]. GldC is not essential to gliding, and known not to be produced by 359 all gliding cells [17]. The T9SS (also referred to as PorSS or PerioGate) is the latest discovered 360 secretion system and has been only found in *Bacteroidetes* so far [44]. The genes of the T9SS are 361 called *porKLMN*, *sov*, *porW* and *porT*, and are synonymous to *gldKLMN*, *sprA*, *sprE*, and *sprT*. In 362 gliding motility, the T9SS secretes the proteins SprB and RemA that are believed to be adhesins, but 363 T9SS also secretes hydrolytic enzymes like chitinase and cellulase [24, 29]. Thus, the T9SS is also involved in the acquisition of external complex carbon sources. We found that the cluster 364 gldKLMN/O (gldO is thought to be a paralog of gldN) is encoded in 90% of the analyzed genomes. 365 366 Except for Niabella soli, the genomes that lacked the T9SS belonged to pathogen or symbiont 367 species that likely feed on small low molecular weight organic molecules rather than complex 368 macromolecules.

369 The alternative complex III (ACIII) was first described in *Rhodothermus marinus*, and although it is found in many bacteria, it is prevalent in Bacteroidetes [28]. Association of ACIII with a caa3-370 type cytochrome oxidase in a super-complex has so far only been described in F. johnsoniae [48]. 371 372 We found that a corresponding super-complex operon is conserved in all aerobic Bacteroidetes, thus not constrained to the genus Flavobacterium. The super-complex accepts electrons from the 373 374 quinone pool and funnels them to oxygen as terminal acceptor while translocating protons across 375 the cytoplasmic membrane and thereby contributing to the proton-motive force. The rate of electron 376 transport of the canonical respiratory chain is limited by the capacity of the electron shuttling soluble cytochrome c to connect the terminal cytochrome oxidase with other redox complexes. The 377

ACIII-caa₃COX super-complex solves this problem by controlling the flux of electrons that are transmitted directly from complex III to the c-type heme electron carrier fused to the caa₃COX [48]. The high efficiency of the ACIII-caa₃COX might be advantageous for competing with other bacteria for the most efficient utilization of intermittently available energy-rich complex organic matter.

383 The gateways into the respiratory chain are complexes I and II. While a complex II type-B SQR is 384 present in all Bacteroidetes, two types of complex I divide the phylum. Strains isolated from 385 freshwater environments featured the canonical NADH:quinone oxidoreductase with 14 subunits 386 (NuoABCDEFGHIKJLMN) coded in a single gene cluster (nuo). The cluster was incomplete in 387 some genomes, specifically in Cvtophagia and Bacteroidia. The nuo cluster showed random gene 388 deletions in the *Cytophagia*, while the cluster of the *Bacteroidia* resembled the ancestral complex 389 [32] as it always lacked *nuoEFG* (the so-called N-module with dehydrogenase activity) and *nuoC* 390 (part of the Q-module with electron transfer activity). The mechanism of the ancestral complex I is 391 unknown, but it probably interacts with various electron donors or acceptor proteins [32]. In 392 Cytophagia and Sphingobacteriia genomes, incomplete nuo clusters appeared to be paralogous to 393 full nuo clusters within the same genome or residual upon the acquisition of the Nqr complex.

An alternative complex I, the Nqr complex (Na⁺-NQR), a sodium-pumping NADH:quinone 394 395 oxidoreductase, was present in strains isolated from seawater or animal and human gut microbiota. Ngr consists of a six-protein membrane complex that was described in marine bacteria [54]. It 396 397 translocates sodium ions across the inner membrane thereby linking the respiratory chain to osmotic 398 regulation [42]. The Nqr is associated with the respiration of pathogens like Vibrio, Klebsiella or 399 Haemophilus spp. [3], lineages that reportedly acquired the ngr genes horizontally during their adaptation to sodium-rich marine, alkaline or intracellular habitats [42]. Based on phylogenomic 400 401 analysis and comparison of gene cluster layout, it has been proposed that the Na⁺-NQR originated 402 in the common ancestor of Bacteroidetes and Chlorobi via duplication and subsequent neo-403 functionalization of the *rnf* operon (NADH:ferredoxin dehydrogenase) [42]. The copied *rnf* operon

404 would have lost the RnfB protein involved in electron uptake from the reduced ferredoxin and later 405 recruited an AMOr subunit (aromatic monooxygenase) to become NqrF, the electron uptake subunit 406 of the Na⁺-NQR [42]. The intermediate complex with no NqrF subunit is the ancestral Na⁺-NQR 407 [42]. Our results, however, suggest that the Ngr complex evolved solely in the Bacteroidetes. Rnf 408 proteins prevail in the Bacteroidia with two outliers in the Flavobacteriia and homologous 409 sequences in Chlorobi. Reyes-Prieto et al. represented the Bacteroidetes with Bacteroidia species in 410 their reconstruction of the Ngr dispersion [42]; hence, the interpreted common origin of the Ngr of 411 Bacteroidetes-Chlorobi could be the consequence of a HGT between the Bacteroidia and Chlorobi, 412 as is suggested by the phylogeny of the SQR complex.

413 The nqr cluster was incomplete in the Cytophagia lacking the nqrF subunit, thus, reproducing the 414 ancestral Na⁺-NQR. This suggests that the original *rnf* operon was transformed in the ancestor of 415 the Bacteroidetes, and the acquisition of the NgrF subunit happened after the divergence of the 416 Cytophagia. NADH:quinone oxidoreductase (Nuo complex for short) must have been the original 417 complex I, whereas the ancestral Nqr was an adaptation to salinity that remains in genomes of the 418 genus Flexibacter and the families Catalimonadaceae and Cyclobacteriaceae. The complete Nqr 419 complex radiated to lineages adapting to saline stress. Therefore, the radiation of the ngr genes was 420 not phylogenetic, but environmental, and Nqr became abundant in predominantly marine or gut taxa 421 like the Saprospiria, Bacteroidia, Cryomorphaceae and a substantial part of the Flavobacterieaceae. Since full copies of the Nqr complex coexist with partial copies of the Nuo 422 complex in most of the analyzed genomes, but never vice versa, the acquisition of the Ngr may 423 424 render the Nuo complex obsolete. Only H. hydrossis, isolated from activated sludge, encodes full Nuo and Ngr complexes possibly representing a recent Ngr acquisition. The order in which nuo 425 426 genes are deleted seems random, but for some as yet unknown reason the Bacteroidia kept an 427 ancestral-like model of the Nuo complex.

428 The respiratory chain of the *Bacteroidia* has been extensively described for the anaerobe 429 *Porphyromonas gingivalis* [31]. Despite its anaerobic lifestyle, it can use oxygen as terminal electron acceptor using a cytochrome bd (subunits CydAB) with high oxygen affinity. Such anaerobes, or nanaerobes (that can benefit from nanomolar concentrations of O₂ but cannot grow at higher concentrations) [4], use this mechanism to scavenge harmful oxygen thereby facilitating colonization. In *Bacteroidia*, the *cydAB* constituted a conserved gene pair together with a conserved DUF4492-containing protein. Some *Flavobacteriia* also encoded the gene pair *cydAB*. Explaining the role of the DUF4492-containing protein (if expressed together with *cydAB*) and the role of the cytochrome bd in *Flavobacteriia* are two future challenges.

437 Expected phylum-level genomic markers susD and flx genes were not recruited in any of the sets 438 of conserved sequences. The *flx* genes were not common enough, and *susD* grouped in many 439 different groups of orthologs, none of which reproduced a phylogenetic pattern. PULs in 440 Bacteroidetes frequently feature susCD-like genes tandems, although some are functional with susC 441 only [50]. Therefore SusD sequences can be used as a first rough approximation of the minimum 442 number of PULs in a bacteroidetal genome [50]. Only five of the Bacteroidetes genomes in our dataset did not contain any annotated susD-like sequences and only 5% of the SusCD OGs 443 444 contained paralogs. Despite we found few copies of susD in some genomes, we do not possess information about their expression. However, PULs are not only frequent and diverse, but also 445 446 believed to be subject to frequent HGT among Bacteroidetes as has been shown for a porphyran-447 targeting PUL from marine Flavobacteriia to anaerobic gut Bacteroides [52]. SusC/D sequences furthermore carry a strong substrate-specific signal that obscures their phylogeny [19]. Such 448 449 sequence diversity combined with a weak phylogenetic signal impedes the utilization of SusCD-like 450 sequences for the explanation of the adaptive radiation of the phylum.

451

452 CONCLUSIONS

By means of conservation, phylogenetic signal and uniqueness to the phylum, T9SS *gldKLMN* genes represent suitable genomic markers for *Bacteroidetes* although they are lacking in some pathogenic or symbiont species. T9SS is the anchor of the known gliding machinery, but while other *gld* genes seem accessory and are furthermore distributed in different loci hiding a complex phylogenetic pattern if any, T9SS genes remain well conserved regardless of the gliding capacity of the cell. Since T9SS also translocates enzymes, such as chitinase and cellulase, in a two-step process across both membranes, it connects the two most notable phenotypes of the phylum, gliding and degradation of complex organic matter. This suggests that the T9SS was part of the ancestral bacteroidete and might, to some extent, be responsible for their biological success.

462 Bacteroidetes do not only excel in decomposing complex organic matter, but their phylogenetic 463 position in the prokaryotic tree of life suggests they could have been Gram-negative pioneers in this 464 regard. Contrary to Gram-positive decomposers, the biderm Bacteroidetes feature a periplasmic 465 space that provides a protected area for degradation, e.g. of oligosaccharides, without diffusive loss 466 of both enzymes and degradation products. Recent studies on the Bacteroidia link their success as 467 members of the human gut microbiota to their PULs [9, 57] that are varied in carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes). Functionally, their SusCDs capture and translocate oligosaccharides that are 468 further decomposed in the periplasmic space, keeping them away from competitors [23, 41]. 469 470 Unfortunately, we could not identify an environmental pattern explaining the influence of the 471 SusCD lateral transfer in the adaptive radiation of the phylum, or prove they were likely to exist in 472 the ancestral bacteroidete. Yet, they seem relevant to the essence of what constitutes a bacteroidete.

473 The Bacteroidetes also conserved the energy-efficient ACIII-caa₃-COX respiratory super-complex improving their fitness to compete for high molecular weight carbon compounds. The substitution 474 of the ACIII-caa₃COX by a cytochrome bd is recorded only once in their genomes, at the origin of 475 476 the Bacteroidia. The Bacteroidia broke the T9SS/ACIII-caa3COX association and yet succeeded, 477 which hampers a circumscription of the Bacteroidetes by common traits. Still, many Bacteroidia 478 conserve the T9SS and only pathogens or symbionts have disposed of it. Therefore, we believe the 479 common ancestor of the phylum was a free-living aerobic decomposer, whose bioenergetic 480 efficiency allowed a broad adaptive radiation that ultimately caused some lineages to dispense of 481 the ancestral genes coding T9SS and/or ACIII-caa3-COX.

482 We would like to end on thoughts with respect to the ancestor of the Bacteroidetes. Did it live rather in a marine or freshwater environment? All species that have yet been isolated from 483 484 freshwater encode the canonical complex I (Nuo), whereas species isolated from salt-rich 485 environments encode the Ngr complex and often some remnants of the nuo gene cluster. Presence 486 of the ancestral Ngr and incomplete Nuo complexes in the *Cytophagia* suggests that the initially 487 present Nuo complex gradually degraded after the Nqr cluster was acquired. This would rather 488 support that the Bacteroidetes radiated from a Gram-negative, biderm freshwater ancestor from 489 which later successors adapted to the marine environment based on novel mechanisms.

490 In the present study, we rather explained intra-phylum genomic and phenotypic diversity despite 491 the absence of a common phenotype, which remains a hallmark of *Bacteroidetes* notwithstanding 492 their evolutionary origin. Hence, carbon source limitations and salinity were pivotal to the origin of 493 the phylum and responsible for its adaptive radiation. Future studies to support this hypothesis 494 would need to explain, if T9SS could have been paired with an oligosaccharide uptake mechanism 495 and confirm that ngr genes are part of the marine mobilome of the Bacteroidetes. From there it 496 could have been appropriated by known Ngr-encoding marine proteobacteria [10, 53], while the 497 protein complex originated in the Bacteroidetes.

498

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679 Table 1. Comparison of two non-redundant genome collections of Bacteroidetes, the smaller one of

which was used in this study. 680

	size	(Mb)	G+C %mol content			
	478 genomes	89 genomes	478 genomes	89 genomes		
maximum	9.77^{a}	9.13 ^c	62.1 ^e	61.9 ^g		
minimum	0.31 ^b	2.16 ^d	23.8^{f}	30.0^{h}		
Median +/-	3.96 +/-1.40	4.14+/-1.38	39.4+/-6.8	38.1+/-7.1		
SD						

a Microscilla marina ATCC 23134^T

b endosymbiont of Llaveia axin axin, of the family Blattabacteriaceae

c Chitinophaga pinensis DSM 2588^{T}

d *Riemerella anatipestifer* ATCC 11845^T

e Hymenobacter aerophilus DSM 13606^T

f Blattabacterium sp. (endosymbiont of Cryptocercus punctulatus Cpu)

g Hymenobacter sp. APR13

h Polaribacter sp. Hel I 88

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Table 2. Core genomes (CG) and taxonomically conserved sequences (P = Prevalent, E =697 Exclusive) of the taxa analyzed in this study (n = number of genomes). The reference genome 698 contains copies of all conserved orthologous sequences (P+E) that served as templates for synteny 699 searches in other genomes.

	n	CG	P+E	Ε	Reference genome
Bacteroidetes	89	155	87	31	Spirosoma radiotolerans DG5A
Flavobacteriia	48	352	44	4	Algibacter sp. HZ22
Bacteroidia	16	293	45	16	Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron VPI-5482
Lost in Bacteroidia	73	-	49	19	Fluviicola taffensis DSM 16823
Chitinophagia*	5	433	20	7	Niastella koreensis GR20-10
Sphingobacteriia	5	925	112	100	Pseudopedobacter saltans DSM 12145
Cytophagia	15	478	25	20	Hymenobacter swuensis DY53

701 * Two genomes of the novel class *Saprospiria* are included in the *Chitinophagia*.

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Table 3. Uncharacterized yet conserved sequences of the *Bacteroidetes*. For sequences not found in the UniProt database, accession numbers from the respective genomes are provided. The genome of *Spirosoma radiotolerans* DG5A^T was used as the reference genome, since it contained all core-set proteins. Putative annotations and pathways were compiled from the UniProt and KEGG databases or inherited from non-bacteroidetal proteins with similarities above 60% in BLAST searches.

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Accession	Putative annotation	Putative pathway
WP_046375230.1	RidA familiy protein	RNA processing
WP_046376045.1	Recombination protein A	Recombination
A0A0E3ZUE1	Methyltransferase	Unknown
A0A0E3V5X8	Uncharacterized protein. Putative gene ribH	Biosynthesis of secondary metabolites
A0A0E3ZUU2	HIT family hydrolase. Putative gene rplJ	Ribosome
A0A0E3ZTX4	Zine ribbon domain protein	Unknown
A0A0E3ZV03	NGG1p interacting factor 3 protein, NIF3	Unknown
A0A0E3V763	Tyrosine recombinase XerC	Homologous recombination
WP_046573655.1	tRNA dihydrouridine synthase	RNA procesing
WP_046574203.1	Unmapped. Putative gene recG	Homologous recombination
A0A0E3V803	ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	Homologous recombination
A0A0E3V8I4	Phosphoesterase. Putative gene rplW	Ribosome
A0A0E3ZXS5	ATPase AAA	Unknown
A0A0E3ZXT0	2-hydroxyhepta-2,4-diene-1,7-dioate isomerase	Aminoacyl-tRNA biosynthesis
A0A0E3V8H2	Pyrophosphatase. Putative gene <i>rsfS</i>	Translation
A0A0E3ZYL4	Uncharacterized protein. Putative gene xerC	Homologous recombination
A0A0E3ZYP4	Uncharacterized protein. Putative gene adk	Nucleotide metabolism
WP_046578056.1	tRNA-specific adenosine deaminase	RNA processing
A0A0E4A0W5	Polypeptide deformylase	Unknown
A0A0E4A0D9	Putative pre-16S rRNA nuclease	Unknown
WP_046580219.1	Translational GTPase TypA	Translation

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- 721

Figure 1. Composition of the *Bacteroidetes*' conserved sequences. (A) Concentric pie charts represent the core genome (outer), exclusive plus prevalent sequences (mid) and exclusive proteins only (inner). (B) Composition of the 49 proteins that are prevalent in the *Bacteroidetes* and do not belong to the core genome. KEGG and UniProt classifications were compared to produce the final categories (legend).

728 Figure in color



- 729 730
- 731

732 Figure 2. Conserved sequences at the taxonomic class rank sorted phylogenetically (columns) 733 represented by their median sequence identity against other sequences in the same group of orthologs (lines). Presence of proteins coded in each genome is combined with color shades that 734 represent the median identity. Absence is coded with the palest color (identity = 0). (A) Lighter 735 736 shades of pink denote the divergence of the Chryseobacterium branch from other Flavobacteriia. (B) Bacteroidia genomes still encode some putative aerobic lifestyle proteins. (C) Maximum 737 738 median identities are significantly lower between the sequences of the Chitinophagia and Sphingobacteriia than in other groups denoting a greater phylogenetic distance. (D) Dichotomic 739 distribution of coding regions for proteins of the NADH-quinone oxidoreductase (Nuo) and the 740 741 Na+-NQR (Nqr), together with the Rnf proteins.

742 Figure in Black & White



753	Figure 3. Aerobic respiratory chains in Bacteroidetes. (A) Brief representation of gene clusters in 15 genomes that represent the variety of
754	compositions described in this study. The nucleotide positions on both gene ends indicate locations in the respective genomes. Accession numbers
755	precede genome names. The legend summarizes protein names and their color code. (B) Proposed aerobic respiratory chain in halophilic aerobic
756	Bacteroidetes. (C) Proposed aerobic respiratory chain in mesophilic aerobic Bacteroidetes. (D and E) Proposed aerobic respiratory chain in nanaerobe
757	Bacteroidia: (D) in all except the Porphyromonadaceae, (E) in Porphyromonadaceae. 'Q' stands for quinone. Structures of the complexes are based on
758	representations found in the literature[25, 32, 42, 48] except for the cytochrome bd that is represented as a symmetric dimer for convenience to
759	represent the subunits CydAB.
760	Figure in color
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763

	Complex I (Nuo)		Na ⁺ -NQR Complex			II SQR	ACIII-ca	ACIII-caa₃COX	
A			697841	691793	1601361 1	604825	2079578	2091236	765
NC_015167 Cellulophaga lytica DSM 7489 ^T	2651272	2664088			2862100 2	8 58308	391870	403382	766
NC_017025 Flavobacterium indicum DSM 17447 ^T			0010011	000.4740					-767
NC_014230 Croceibacter atlanticus HTCC 2559 ^T					77	064452			-768
NZ_CP009928 Chryseobacterium gallinarum strain DSM 27622 ^T		2546461			1162435 11	158952	1913294		-760
NC 016599 Owenweeksia hongkongensis DSM 17368 ^T			3816434	3822408	2971797	2975684	2125411	2114096	709
	972391	962455	2417110	2422962	5161273 5	164731			//0
NC_003228 Bacteroides tragilis NCTC 9343	2075346	2065120	1483944	1478193	2931711 2	928993			771
NC_014033 Prevotella ruminicola Bryant 231			117168	123057	542851	546301			-772
NC_010729 Porphyromonas gingivalis ATCC 33277 ^T	1941334	1954677			1731558 1	727993	1903241	1	919209
NC_015277 Sphingobacterium sp. 21	405469	418500	5600860	5607156	2106951 2	2103188	6181636	61982	773
NC_015510 Haliscomenobacter hydrossis DSM 1100 ^T									
NC_013132 Chitinophaga pinensis DSM 2588 ^T					-//				774
NC_016940 Saprospira grandis str. Lewin [⊤]					2289452 2	293048	1539084		21647 7 -
NC_014759 Marivirga tractuosa DSM 4126		()		1866864	3823606 3	B27005	4374123		9882
NC 008255 Cytophaga hutchinsonii ATCC 33406 ^T		1592423			2841979 2	845388	2574022	255	8065//3
NC 015914 Cyclobacterium marinum DSM 745 ^T			2328645	2323986	1068845 1	066151	2658845	26	74493
									_
Periplasm _{Na} + _{Na} +	H ⁺ H ⁺			Periplasm	N	a ⁺ Na ⁺			
B <u>†</u> †	AL COL		D					\sim	
							e	Q Cyt bd	
Cytosol NAD		H20		Cytosol			iàd 🦰		`H₂O
NÁDH / O ² Succinate Fumarate				NADH	×	NADH		02	
				NÃD				Succinate Fumarate	



NADH dehydrogenase subunit I

NADH dehydrogenase subunit J

NADH dehydrogenase subunit K

NADH dehydrogenase subunit L

NADH dehydrogenase subunit M

NADH dehydrogenase subunit N

NADH dehydrogenase subunit B

NADH dehydrogenase subunit C

NADH dehydrogenase subunit D

NADH dehydrogenase subunit E

NADH dehydrogenase subunit F

NADH dehydrogenase subunit G

Na⁺-translocating NADH-quinone reductase subunit A
 Na⁺-translocating NADH-quinone reductase subunit E
 Na⁺-translocating NADH-quinone reductase subunit C
 Na⁺-translocating NADH-quinone reductase subunit D
 Na⁺-translocating NADH-quinone reductase subunit E
 Na⁺-translocating NADH-quinone reductase subunit E



Na⁺ Na⁺

Alternative Complex III subunit E [ActE, periplasmic protein]
Alternative Complex III subunit F [ActF, membrane protein]

NÀD

NÁDH

Periplasm

Cytosol



_o2

Succinate Fumarate

H₂O



Figure in Black & White

