

Associate Editor Decision: Publish subject to technical corrections (29 Jan 2020) by [Tina Treude](#)

Comments to the Author:

Dear Ralf and Co-Workers,

the reviewer is very pleased with the revision and suggests acceptance of the manuscript. I agree with this suggestion. However, in a personal statement the reviewer pointed to me that the following relevant citations seem to be missing:

Nüsslein et al. 2001 (Environmental Microbiology 3(7), 460–470)

Beulig et al. 2018 (ISME Journal (2019) 13:250–262)

Beulig et al. 2018 (PNAS vol. 115 | no. 2 | 367–372)

All three studies already documented that methyl-C of the ¹⁴C-labelled acetate is oxidized to CO₂ rather than reduced to CH₄. It would therefore be appropriate to give credit to these studies. I agree and suggest to place the respective citations at appropriate locations either in your introduction or discussion.

Let me know in case you have any questions.

Best

Tina

Response

Dear Tina,

Thank you for the hint to the references.

In fact, Nüsslein et al. 2001 has been cited in the Introduction. We did not include the reference to Beulig et al. 2018, since the work is dealing with a seabed sediment rather than a lake sediment. Nevertheless, both references are now also included in the Discussion (see marked ms). However, we did not include the Beulig et al. reference in the ISME journal, since this work is mainly dealing with anaerobic methane oxidation, and the data on acetate oxidation are not thus obvious in this paper.

Best wishes

Ralf

1 **Acetate turnover and methanogenic pathways in Amazonian lake sediments**

2

3 Ralf Conrad^a, Melanie Klose^a, Alex Enrich-Prast^{b,c}

4

5 ^aMax Planck Institute for Terrestrial Microbiology, Karl-von-Frisch-Str. 10, 35043 Marburg,
6 Germany

7 ^bDepartment of Thematic Studies - Environmental Change, Linköping University, Linköping,
8 Sweden

9 ^cDepartamento de Botânica, Instituto de Biologia, University Federal do Rio de Janeiro
10 (UFRJ), Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

11

12

13 Corresponding author:

14 Ralf Conrad, Max Planck Institute for Terrestrial Microbiology, Karl-von-Frisch-Str. 10,
15 35043 Marburg, Germany

16 Tel. +49-6421-178801; Fax: +49-6421-178809;

17 email: Conrad@mpi-marburg.mpg.de

18

19 **Abstract**

20 Lake sediments in Amazonia are a significant source of CH₄, a potential greenhouse gas.
21 Previous studies of sediments using ¹³C analysis found that the contribution of
22 hydrogenotrophic versus acetoclastic methanogenesis to CH₄ production was relatively high.
23 Here, we determined the methanogenic pathway in the same sediments (n = 6) by applying
24 [¹⁴C]bicarbonate or [2-¹⁴C]acetate, and confirmed the high relative contribution (50-80%) of
25 hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis. The respiratory index (RI) of [2-¹⁴C]acetate, which is
26 ¹⁴CO₂ relative to ¹⁴CH₄ + ¹⁴CO₂, divided the sediments into two categories, i.e., those with an
27 RI < 0.2 being consistent with the operation of acetoclastic methanogenesis, and those with an
28 RI > 0.4 showing that a large percentage of the acetate-methyl was oxidized to CO₂ rather
29 than reduced to CH₄. Hence, part of the acetate was probably converted to CO₂ plus H₂ via
30 syntrophic oxidation, thus enhancing hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis. This happened
31 despite the presence of potentially acetoclastic *Methanosaetaceae* in all the sediments.
32 Alternatively, acetate may have been oxidized with a constituent of the sediment organic
33 matter (humic acid) serving as oxidant. Indeed, apparent acetate turnover rates were larger
34 than CH₄ production rates except in those sediments with a R < 0.2. Our study demonstrates
35 that CH₄ production in Amazonian lake sediments was not simply caused by a combination of
36 hydrogenotrophic and acetoclastic methanogenesis, but probably involved additional acetate
37 turnover.
38

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Acetate is an important intermediate in the anoxic degradation of organic matter and is
41 produced by fermentation processes and chemolithotrophic homoacetogenesis. The
42 contribution of these two processes to acetate production is difficult to determine, but seems
43 to be quite different for different environments (Fu et al., 2018; Hädrich et al., 2012; Heuer et
44 al., 2010; Lokshina et al., 2019; Ye et al., 2014). The degradation of acetate requires a suitable
45 oxidant such as oxygen, nitrate, ferric iron or sulfate. If such oxidants are not or no longer
46 available, such as in many freshwater environments (e.g., paddy fields, lake sediments, peat),
47 acetate sometimes accumulates until suitable electron acceptors become again available.
48 Temporal accumulation and subsequent oxidative consumption has for example been
49 observed in peatlands during increase and decrease, respectively, of the water table
50 (Duddleston et al., 2002). However, it is generally assumed that acetate degradation in the
51 absence of inorganic electron acceptors is accomplished by aceticlastic methanogenesis
52 (Zinder, 1993). If aceticlastic methanogenesis is operative, the methyl group of the acetate is
53 converted to CH₄.

54 If methanogenesis is the exclusive final step in the anaerobic degradation of organic
55 matter, polysaccharides (one of the most important compounds from primary production) will
56 be dismutated to equal amounts of CH₄ and CO₂. Furthermore, acetate usually accounts for
57 more than two third of total methane production, especially if polysaccharides are the
58 predominant degradable organic matter (Conrad, 1999). However, CO₂ has often been found
59 to be the main product in many anoxic environments despite the absence of inorganic electron
60 acceptors (O₂, nitrate, ferric iron, sulfate) (Keller et al., 2009; Yavitt and Seidmann-Zager,
61 2006). Such results have been explained by the assumption that organic substances (e.g.
62 humic acids) may also serve as electron acceptors (Gao et al., 2019; Keller et al., 2009;
63 Klüpfel et al., 2014). Organic electron acceptors also allow the oxidation of acetate (Coates et
64 al., 1998; Lovley et al., 1996). The role of organic electron acceptors during anaerobic
65 degradation of organic matter is potentially important, but still not well known (Corbett et al.,
66 2013)

67 There are also many reports that methane production in lake sediments is dominated by
68 hydrogenotrophic rather than acetoclastic methanogenesis (Conrad, 1999; Conrad et al., 2011;
69 Ji et al., 2016). Such observations were explained (1) by incomplete degradation of organic
70 matter producing predominantly H₂ and CO₂ without concomitant acetate production (Conrad
71 et al., 2010; Hodgkins et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2017), (2) by acetate oxidation coupled to the
72 reduction of organic substances (see above), or (3) by syntrophic acetate oxidation coupled
73 with hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis (Lee and Zinder, 1988; Vavilin et al., 2017). If acetate
74 oxidation is operative, the methyl group of the acetate is converted to CO₂. However, if
75 acetate oxidation is syntrophic, it does not require a chemical compound (other than H⁺) as
76 electron acceptors, since it is the hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis that eventually accepts
77 the electrons released during acetate oxidation.

78 Syntrophic acetate oxidation can replace acetoclastic methanogenesis and thus, has been
79 found when acetoclastic methanogenic archaea were not present in the microbial community
80 of lake sediment (Nüsslein et al., 2001). This may also happen in other anoxic environments
81 when conditions are not suitable for acetoclastic methanogens, e.g., at elevated temperatures
82 (Conrad et al., 2009; Liu and Conrad, 2010; Liu et al., 2018), in the presence of high
83 concentrations of ammonium (Müller et al., 2016; Schnürer et al., 1999; Zhang et al., 2014),
84 or phosphate (Conrad et al., 2000). However, syntrophic acetate oxidation has also been found
85 in lake sediments that contained populations of putatively acetoclastic methanogens (Vavilin
86 et al., 2017). It is presently unknown under which conditions syntrophic acetate oxidizers can
87 successfully compete with acetoclastic methanogens and co-occur with acetate oxidation that
88 is coupled to the reduction of organic substances.

89 As a further step in understanding the ecology of acetate oxidizers (syntrophic or non-
90 syntrophic ones) versus acetoclastic methanogens, we attempted to document their coexistence
91 by studying lake sediments, which had been reported containing 16S rRNA genes of
92 putatively acetoclastic *Methanosaetaceae* (*Methanotrichaceae* (Oren, 2014)) (Ji et al., 2016).
93 We used these sediments and measured the fractions of hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis and
94 of the methyl group of acetate being oxidized to CO₂ rather than reduced to CH₄, and
95 compared the turnover of acetate to the production rate of CH₄.

96

97 **2. Materials and Methods**

98 The sediment samples were obtained from floodplain lakes in the Amazon region and have
99 already been used for a study on structure and function of methanogenic microbial
100 communities (Ji et al., 2016). In particular, these sediment have been assayed for the
101 percentage of hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis and for the percentage contribution of
102 putatively acetoclastic methanogens to the total archaeal community (Ji et al., 2016). Here, we
103 used six of these sediments for incubation experiments with radioactive tracers. These are the
104 same sediment samples as those listed in our previous publication (Ji et al., 2016). The
105 identity of the lake sediments and the percentage content of putatively acetoclastic
106 methanogens is summarized in Table 1. The experiments were carried out at the same time as
107 those in our previous publication (Ji et al., 2016) and were basically using the same incubation
108 techniques. However, the experimental approach to determine the fractions of
109 hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis (f_{H_2}) were different. In our previous experiment, values of
110 f_{H_2} were determined from the $\delta^{13}C$ of CH_4 in the presence ($\delta^{13}C_{CH_4-mc}$) and absence ($\delta^{13}C_{CH_4}$)
111 of methyl fluoride, an inhibitor of acetoclastic methanogenesis, and from the $\delta^{13}C$ of the
112 methyl group of acetate ($\delta^{13}C_{ac-methyl}$):

$$113 \quad f_{H_2} = (\delta^{13}C_{CH_4} - \delta^{13}C_{ac-methyl}) / (\delta^{13}C_{CH_4-mc} - \delta^{13}C_{ac-methyl}) \quad (1).$$

114 The CH_4 production rates and f_{H_2} values from this experiment are shown in Fig. 1 for
115 comparison.

116 In the present experiment, however, values of f_{H_2} were determined by addition of
117 $NaH^{14}CO_3$ and measurement of the specific radioactivities in CH_4 and CO_2 . Briefly, about 10-
118 15 ml of each replicate ($n=3$) were filled into 27-ml sterile tubes, flushed with N_2 , closed
119 with butyl rubber stoppers, and incubated at 25°C. After preincubation for 12 days (in order to
120 deplete eventually present inorganic oxidants), 0.5 ml of a solution of carrier-free $NaH^{14}CO_3$
121 (about 1 μCi ; 50 $Ci mol^{-1}$) was added, the tubes flushed again with N_2 , and incubation was
122 continued at 25°C for about 100 days. Partial pressures of CH_4 and CO_2 as well as their
123 contents of ^{14}C were measured at different time points after mixing the slurries by heavy
124 manual shaking. The gas partial pressures were measured by gas chromatography with a

125 flame ionization detector (Ji et al., 2016), the radioactivities were analyzed with a
126 radiodetector (RAGA) (Conrad et al., 1989). The data were used to calculate the fractions of
127 hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis (f_{H_2}) from the specific radioactivities of gaseous CH_4
128 (SR_{CH_4}) and CO_2 (SR_{CO_2}):

$$129 \quad f_{H_2} = SR_{CH_4} / SR_{CO_2} \quad (2).$$

130 For determination of acetate turnover, the same conditions were used, except that
131 preincubation was for 25 days, 0.5 ml of a solution of carrier-free $Na[2-^{14}C]$ acetate (about 2
132 μCi ; $50 Ci mol^{-1}$), equivalent to about 20 nmol acetate, was added, and incubation was
133 continued for about 8 h. During this time gas samples were repeatedly taken and the
134 radioactivities in CH_4 and CO_2 were analyzed in a gas chromatograph with a radiodetector
135 (RAGA) (Conrad et al., 1989). In the end, the sediment samples were acidified with 1 ml of
136 1M H_2SO_4 to liberate CO_2 from carbonates, and the radioactivities in CH_4 and CO_2 were
137 analyzed again. The data were used to calculate the, the acetate turnover rate constants (k_{ac})
138 and the respiratory index (RI) values from the radioactivities of gaseous CH_4 and CO_2 as
139 described by Schütz et al. (1989). The RI is defined as:

$$140 \quad RI = ^{14}CO_2 / (^{14}CO_2 + ^{14}CH_4) \quad (3).$$

141 Both $^{14}CH_4$ and $^{14}CO_2$ were measured at the end of the incubation after acidification. The
142 acetate turnover rate constants were determined from the change of $^{14}CH_4$ and $^{14}CO_2$ with
143 incubation time (t) and the maximal values of $^{14}CH_4$ and $^{14}CO_2$ at the end of the incubation
144 before acidification:

$$145 \quad k_{ac} = [\ln(1 - (^{14}CH_4 + ^{14}CO_2) / (^{14}CH_{4-max} + ^{14}CO_{2-max}))] / t \quad (4).$$

146 The acetate turnover rates (v_{ac}) were calculated by:

$$147 \quad v_{ac} = k_{ac} \cdot ac \quad (5).$$

148 The acetate concentration (ac) was analyzed in the sediments at the end of the incubation
149 using high pressure liquid chromatography. The acetate concentrations are summarized in
150 Table 1. The rates of acetate-dependent CH_4 production (P_{ac}) were calculated from the acetate
151 turnover rates and the RI:

$$152 \quad P_{ac} = v_{ac} \cdot (1 - RI) \quad (6).$$

153

154 3. Results

155 Six different lake sediments from Amazonia were incubated in the presence of H^{14}CO_3 .
156 Methane production started without lag phase indicating that the inorganic electron acceptors,
157 which were present in the original sediment (Ji et al., 2016) had been depleted during the
158 anaerobic preincubation and did not suppress methanogenesis. The CH_4 production rates were
159 compared to those obtained in our previous experiments without addition of H^{14}CO_3 (Ji et al.,
160 2016). Although the rates of CH_4 production were different in the two different incubations,
161 the orders of magnitude were similar for the different lake sediments (Fig. 1A). The
162 incubations in the presence of H^{14}CO_3 were used to follow the specific radioactivities of CH_4
163 (Fig. 2A) and CO_2 (Fig. 2B) over the incubation time. The specific radioactivities of CH_4
164 changed only little but were slightly different for the different lake sediments. The specific
165 radioactivities of CO_2 decreased with time as expected due to the production of non-
166 radioactive CO_2 . Both specific radioactivities were used to calculate the fractions of
167 hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis (f_{H_2}), which increased with incubation time and eventually
168 reached a plateau. The values of f_{H_2} averaged between 30 and 60 d of incubation are
169 summarized in Fig. 1B. Only the incubations of sediment “Grande” did not reach a plateau
170 but still increased after 260 d of incubation due to the continuously decreasing specific
171 radioactivities of CO_2 (data not shown). Averaging these values over the 4 data points
172 between 160 and 260 d resulted in f_{H_2} of about 60% (Fig. 1B). The thus determined values of
173 f_{H_2} were comparable to those determined in the absence of H^{14}CO_3 using values of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$,
174 which have already been published (Ji et al. 2016) (Fig.1B).

175 The same sediments were used to determine the turnover of $[2\text{-}^{14}\text{C}]$ acetate by measuring
176 the increase of radioactive CH_4 (Fig. 3A) and CO_2 (Fig. 3B). These data were used to
177 determine the rate constants of acetate turnover (Fig. 3C), which ranged between 0.02 and 1.7
178 h^{-1} . The respiratory indices (RI) were generally larger than 0.2 except those of the sediments
179 Tapari and Verde, which were smaller than 0.2 (Fig. 4B). The RI values and the acetate
180 turnover rate constants were used to calculate the rates of CH_4 production from acetate in
181 comparison to the rates of total CH_4 production (Fig. 4A). Interestingly, acetate-dependent

182 CH₄ production was always larger than total CH₄ production, except in those sediments
183 exhibiting a RI <0.2.

184

185 **4. Discussion**

186 The RI value quantifies the fraction of the methyl group of acetate that is oxidized to CO₂
187 rather than reduced to CH₄. Since some oxidation of acetate methyl is also happening in pure
188 cultures of aceticlastic methanogens (Weimer and Zeikus, 1978), and since a RI of around 0.2
189 has often been found in environments where acetate turnover was dominated by aceticlastic
190 methanogenesis (Phelps and Zeikus, 1984; Rothfuss and Conrad, 1993; Winfrey and Zeikus,
191 1979), an RI value of 0.2 may in practice be used as the threshold for the change of
192 methanogenic to oxidative acetate turnover. Based on this criterion, i.e. RI < 0.2, the lake
193 sediments of Tapari and Verde behaved as when acetate turnover was exclusively caused by
194 aceticlastic methanogenesis. The percentage of acetate-dependent CH₄ production was fairly
195 consistent with the fraction of hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis, which made up the
196 remainder of total CH₄ production. In conclusion, the acetate turnover and CH₄ production in
197 these lake sediments behaved as expected as when aceticlastic methanogenesis was the sole
198 process of acetate consumption (reaction 1 in Fig. 5).

199 However, the sediments of Jua and in particular those of Jupinda, Cataldo, and Grande
200 exhibited RI values >0.2, showing that a substantial fraction of the acetate-methyl was
201 oxidized to CO₂. Hence, acetate was not exclusively consumed by aceticlastic
202 methanogenesis, but it was oxidized, for example by syntrophic acetate oxidation producing
203 H₂ and CO₂. **Similarly, RI values > 0.2 have been observed in the sediment of Lake Kinneret**
204 **in Israel and interpreted as syntrophic acetate oxidation (Nüsslein et al., 2001). Also in the**
205 **methanogenic zone of an anoxic seabed in the Baltic Sea, acetate has been shown to be**
206 **degraded syntrophically (Beulig et al., 2018).** The H₂ and CO₂ from acetate oxidation may
207 subsequently be used as methanogenic substrates, thus supporting CH₄ production (reactions
208 2 and 3 in Fig. 5). Such support would be consistent with the relatively high fractions (f_{H2}) of
209 hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis observed in the sediments of Lakes Juas, Jupinda, Cataldo
210 and Grande. However, it would not explain why acetate turnover rates were higher than

211 necessary for supporting the observed rates of total CH₄ production. A possible conclusion is
212 that acetate was converted to CO₂ without concomitant production of H₂. Possibly, electrons
213 from acetate were transferred to organic electron acceptors (reaction 4 in Fig. 5), such as
214 suggested in the literature (Coates et al., 1998; Lovley et al., 1996). Alternatively, acetate may
215 have first been converted to H₂ plus CO₂ followed by the oxidation of H₂ with organic
216 electron acceptors (reactions 2 and 5 in Fig. 5) rather than syntrophic formation of CH₄ from
217 H₂ plus CO₂ (reactions 2 and 3 in Fig. 5). In conclusion, these lake sediments behaved as
218 when acetate consumption was accomplished not only by acetate-dependent methanogenesis,
219 but also by oxidative consumption.

220 Our conclusions are mainly based on radiotracer measurements, which may be biased. For
221 example, acetate turnover rate constants are calculated from acetate concentrations and
222 turnover rate constants. Acetate concentrations were only measured at the end of incubation
223 and thus, may not have been representative for the entire incubation time. Furthermore,
224 acetate in the sediment may occur in several pools with different turnover (Christensen and
225 Blackburn, 1982). Therefore, acetate turnover rates and acetate-dependent CH₄ production
226 rates may be overestimated, if the actual acetate turnover depends on a pool size that is
227 smaller than that analyzed. Overestimation may also result from too low RI values, such as
228 when carbonate-bound radioactivity is neglected. However, such bias was avoided by
229 acidification prior to determination of the RI. Finally, a potential bias may arise from the fact
230 that the rates of CH₄ production and the acetate turnover rates were measured in two different
231 sets of incubation, with different incubation times. While CH₄ production (and f_{H₂}) was
232 measured over tens of days (Fig. 2), acetate turnover was determined within 8 h (Fig. 3).
233 Nevertheless, the data in the lake sediments of Tapari and Verde resulted in CH₄ production
234 and acetate turnover consistent with the operation of aceticlastic methanogenesis, which is the
235 canonical acetate consumption pathway for methanogenic sediments. Therefore, we are
236 confident that our results obtained from the sediments of Jua, Jupinda, Cataldo and Grande
237 were also in a realistic range.

238 The determination of fractions of hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis (f_{H₂}) depends on the
239 specific radioactivity of the dissolved CO₂ pool that is involved in CH₄ production. However,

240 it is the pool of gaseous CO₂ that is analyzed in the assay, assuming that its specific
241 radioactivity is identical to that of the active dissolved pool. Since non-radioactive CO₂ is
242 permanently produced from oxidation of organic matter, there may be disequilibrium.
243 Nevertheless, determinations of f_{H2} using radioactive bicarbonate exhibited the same
244 tendencies as those based on δ¹³C values, and thus are probably quite reliable. Furthermore,
245 the f_{H2} values were fairly consistent with the fractions of acetate-dependent methanogenesis
246 determined from the turnover of radioactive acetate.

247 Despite these reservations, our results collectively demonstrated that acetate turnover in
248 tropical lake sediments did not necessarily follow a canonical pattern with aceticlastic
249 methanogenesis as sole or predominant process of acetate turnover, despite the fact that all
250 these sediments contained populations of putative aceticlastic methanogenic archaea. Acetate
251 consumption in *Methanosaeta* species is known to have a relatively high affinity and a low
252 threshold for acetate (Jetten et al., 1992). Therefore, the question arises why oxidative
253 processes, including syntrophic acetate oxidation, could successfully compete with
254 aceticlastic methanogenesis.

255

256 **5. Author contribution**

257 RC designed the experiments, evaluated the data and wrote the manuscript; MK did the
258 experiments; AEP provided the samples and contributed to the discussion of the data.

259

260 **6. Competing interests**

261 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

262

263 **7. Acknowledgements**

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266

267 **8. References**

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389

390 Table 1: Identity of sediment samples (same as those in Ji et al. (2016)),
391 percentage content of putatively acetoclastic methanogens (*Methanosaetaceae*)
392 relative to total archaea, and concentrations of acetate; mean \pm SE.

393

Lake #	Name	Type	<i>Methanosaetaceae</i> (%)	Acetate (nmol g ⁻¹ dry weight)
P1	Jua	clear water	21 \pm 1	93 \pm 5
P8	Tapari	clear water	19 \pm 3	261 \pm 39
P9	Verde	clear water	19 \pm 11	126 \pm 12
P10	Jupinda	clear water	27 \pm 4	110 \pm 6
A1	Cataldo	white water	42 \pm 1	50 \pm 3
A2	Grande	white water	36 \pm 3	35 \pm 1

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395

396 **Figure captions**

397 Fig. 1: Methane production in sediments of different Amazonian lakes: (A) rates
398 of CH₄ production, and (B) fractions of hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis,
399 both determined in the absence and the presence of radioactive bicarbonate.
400 The data in the absence of radioactive bicarbonate are the same as published in
401 Ji et al. (2016), when f_{H₂} was determined from values of δ¹³C; mean ±SE.

402 Fig. 2: Conversion of radioactive bicarbonate in sediments of different Amazonian
403 lakes: (A) specific radioactivities in CH₄; (B) specific radioactivities in gaseous
404 CO₂; and (C) fractions (f_{H₂}) of hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis; mean ±SE.

405 Fig. 3: Conversion of [2-¹⁴C]acetate in sediments of different Amazonian lakes:
406 (A) accumulation of radioactive CH₄; (B) accumulation of radioactive gaseous
407 CO₂; and (C) acetate turnover rate constants; mean ±SE.

408 Fig. 4: (A) Rates of total and acetate-derived CH₄ production in sediments of
409 different Amazonian lakes and (B) respiratory indices (RI) of the turned over
410 [2-¹⁴C]acetate; mean ±SE.

411 Fig. 5: Scheme of the pathways involved in acetate turnover in sediments of
412 Amazonian lakes; (1) aceticlastic methanogenesis; (2) syntrophic acetate
413 oxidation; (3) hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis; (4) acetate oxidation with
414 organic electron acceptors.