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Extracellular Proteins Limit the Dispersal of Biogenic Nanoparticles

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Authors

Moreau, John W. Weber, Peter K. Martin, Michael C. <u>et al.</u>

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| 2 | Extracellular Proteins Limit the Dispersal of Biogenic Nanoparticles |
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| 4 | John W. Moreau ^{1,*+} , Peter K. Weber ² , Michael C. Martin ³ , Benjamin Gilbert ⁴ , |
| 5 | Ian D. Hutcheon ² and Jillian F. Banfield ^{1,5} |
| 6 | |
| 7 | ¹ Department of Earth and Planetary Science, |
| 8 | University of California Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, USA |
| 9 | ² Glenn T. Seaborg Institute, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Livermore, CA, |
| 10 | USA |
| 11 | ³ Advanced Light Source, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA |
| 12 | ⁴ Earth Science Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA |
| 13 | ⁵ Department of Environmental Science, Policy, and Management, University of |
| 14 | California Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, USA |
| 15 | |
| 16 | |
| 17 | * Current Address: United States Geological Survey Water Resources Division, 8505 |
| 18 | Research Way, Middleton, WI, USA 53562 |
| 19 | ⁺ Corresponding author: jwmoreau@usgs.gov |
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Summary: Proteins are trapped within dense aggregates of bacterially formed metal sulfide nanoparticles, and may have played a key role in the aggregation process.

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4 High spatial-resolution secondary ion microprobe spectrometry, synchrotron 5 radiation Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy and polyacrylamide gel analysis 6 demonstrate the intimate association of proteins with spheroidal aggregates of 7 biogenic zinc sulfide nanocrystals, an example of extracellular biomineralization. 8 Experiments involving synthetic ZnS nanoparticles and representative amino acids 9 indicate a driving role for cysteine in rapid nanoparticle aggregation. These 10 findings suggest that microbially-derived extracellular proteins can limit dispersal 11 of nanoparticulate metal-bearing phases, such as the mineral products of 12 bioremediation, that may otherwise be transported away from their source by 13 subsurface fluid flow.

14

15 Introduction

16 Sulfate-reducing bacteria can lower the concentrations of metals in anoxic waters by 17 sequestering metals into nanoparticles (e.g., 1-3). However, these particles are 18 potentially highly mobile, due to their small size (4), and can redissolve quickly if 19 conditions change (5). Sulfide nanoparticles may be less than 2 nm in diameter, 20 comparable in size to aqueous molecular clusters (6); most are 2 to 6 nm (2, 7). 21 Aggregation can restrict nanoparticle transport by inducing settling (8, 9), and drive 22 crystal growth (leading to decreased solubility) (cf. 10, 11). Some organics can promote 23 aggregation. Amine-bearing molecules, for example, have been shown to organize

sulfide nanoparticles into semiconductor nanowires (12). In this study, we investigated the hypothesis that natural organic matter contributes to the formation of densely aggregated nanoparticulate ZnS spheroids, and is preserved in nanometer-scale pores (7). We use microanalytical and direct isolation approaches to analyze nanoparticle aggregates formed in natural sulfate-reducing bacterial biofilms (7, 13). We also experimentally evaluate the potential for various amino acids to induce rapid aggregation of metal-sulfide nanoparticles.

8 We examined sulfate-reducing bacteria-dominated biofilms collected from the 9 Piquette lead and zinc mine, a flooded system (pH ~7, T°C ~8) in southwestern 10 Ultramicrotomed biofilm sections that contain spheroidal Wisconsin, USA (13). 11 aggregates of biogenic ZnS nanoparticles (Figs. S1-S4) were imaged with transmission 12 electron microscopy (TEM), prior to in situ elemental microanalysis with secondary ion 13 mass spectrometry at a spatial resolution of ~50 nm (NanoSIMS) (14). Nitrogen in the 14 samples is detected by NanoSIMS as CN⁻, NO⁻, and NS⁻ secondary ions, and is quantified 15 by comparison to reference samples (14, 15).

16 Comparison of TEM images with NanoSIMS sulfur distribution maps 17 demonstrates that ZnS spheroids are the only structures within the biofilm that contain 18 significant S concentrations (Figs. 1A, C). The composite NanoSIMS data show the 19 intimate association of N with biofilm ZnS (Figs. 1A, C); N is present throughout these 20 aggregates at significantly higher levels than in abiotic ZnS reference materials (Figs. 1D, 21 E). Pores in the ZnS spheroids appear as low diffraction-contrast features in TEM 22 images, due to a lower concentration of sphalerite nanoparticles (Fig. S2). Porous 23 regions are associated with the highest N concentrations (Figs. 1B, C). Nitrogen concentration measurements for individual spheroids varied by 14% (relative standard
deviation, n = 134), compared to an average measurement precision of 4%, for individual
ZnS aggregates with an average diameter of 700 nm. We estimate an average nitrogen
concentration for all analyzed ZnS spheroids of 1.6 wt%, with a 95% confidence interval
of 0.8 to 3 wt% (*14*). By comparison, the average nitrogen concentration of synthetic
ZnS aggregates is approximately 100 times lower.

7 The small nitrate concentration of mine water (~3 μ g/g) is removed from the 8 biofilm during sample processing, and was therefore not expected to be the source of N in 9 ZnS. To test this prediction, we analyzed the spheroids for NO⁻ relative to CN⁻ (14). The 10 CN^{-}/NO^{-} ratio for a reference sample of KNO_{3} dissolved in graphite (14) ranges from <1 11 to 200, with a median ratio of approximately 6. The average CN⁻/NO⁻ ratio of bacterial 12 spores, an organic nitrogen reference, was 2950 ± 520 (s.d.). The average CN⁻/NO⁻ ratio 13 of the biofilm ZnS was 3300 ± 870 (s.d.). Measurement precision for CN⁻/NO⁻ in the 14 biofilm ZnS is similar to sample variability because of low NO⁻ secondary ion intensities. 15 Based on these analyses, we conclude that nitrogen in the biofilm ZnS is present neither 16 as nitrate nor nitrite, and is therefore organic in nature (14). This conclusion is further 17 supported by the presence of amide absorption features in the infrared spectra discussed 18 below. We note that from the average N content of ZnS estimated above, and taking an 19 average amino acid N concentration of approximately 11 wt%, the ZnS spheroids contain 20 approximately 14 wt% amino acids.

Areas with cell-like morphologies enriched in N (Fig. 1) and P (Fig. S8) are interpreted as being either whole or degraded microbial cells. These features are morphologically distinct compared to ZnS spheroids, arguing against spheroid formation by nanoparticle encrustation and infilling of cells. We infer that the spheroids formed by
aggregation of biogenic ZnS nanoparticles (*13*) with extracellular polypeptides or
proteins. This process may have involved adsorption of amino-acids or peptides on to
nanoparticle surfaces (e.g., *16*), or co-aggregation of protein molecules and nanoparticles.
High N concentrations along the surfaces of some aggregates suggest protein-rich regions
(Figs. 1B, C).

7 Synchrotron-based Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (SR-FTIR), with 8 roughly 10 µm spatial resolution, was used to characterize organics associated with 9 biofilm ZnS aggregates (14). SR-FTIR analysis revealed that absorptions at approximately 1580 cm⁻¹ and 1640 cm⁻¹ are only associated with ZnS spheroid-rich 10 11 regions of the biofilm (Fig. 2). These absorption features are well described for the amide 12 II and amide I vibration modes, respectively, and characteristic of polypeptide- and/or 13 protein-derived amino acids (17). Analyses of the spheroid-rich regions of biofilm varied 14 by a few percent in the relative magnitudes of amide I and II absorptions. The SR-FTIR 15 data confirm that the N detected by NanoSIMS analysis of spheroids is organic, and 16 support an origin in polypeptides or proteins.

Proteins were directly extracted from density-separated fractions dominated by either organic biofilm components or ZnS spheroids (*l4*; Fig. S6). Proteins from the biofilm fraction produce faint bands when reacted with protein-specific stains in 4-10% polyacrylamide gels at molecular weights of ~37 kDa and ~48 kDa (*l4*; Fig. 3). In contrast, the ZnS-enriched fraction yielded a strong band at ~37 kDa, suggesting that the nitrogen detected by NanoSIMS and SR-FTIR is associated with protein(s) of this molecular mass. It was not possible to characterize the protein(s) further due to their low concentration and biofilm sample accessibility (13). However, we note that the observed
 mass lies within the mass range of bacterial proteins known to bind certain metals (e.g.,
 18-20), and genes for these proteins have been reported in some sulfate-reducing bacteria
 (cf. 21-23). We speculate, therefore, that the ZnS-associated protein(s) found in this
 study may serve a metal-binding function.

6 In some aggregates, NanoSIMS data indicate overlapping N and S distributions, 7 implying the presence of fine-scale mixtures of ZnS nanoparticles and protein-rich 8 organic matter. Known bacterial metal-binding proteins bind zinc and other potentially 9 toxic metals (e.g., Cd, Cu), primarily at cysteine residues in proximity to OH groups 10 (24). Experimental evidence shows that cysteine also binds strongly to ZnS nanoparticles 11 and limits their size to < -5 nm (25), and thiol groups bind strongly with sulfur-deficient 12 surface Fe(II) atoms in pyrite (FeS₂) (16). The conditional stability constant for monoligand cysteine- Zn^{2+} complexation in low ionic strength solutions (= 0.1 M_c) at 20-25 °C 13 14 is more than 4 orders of magnitude larger than those of all the other amino acids tested 15 except for lysine, for which the constant is about 2 orders of magnitude larger (14, Table16 S1). These observations suggest that cysteine or cysteine-rich polypeptides or proteins 17 could have played a role in determining the ZnS particle size and aggregation state.

We tested the efficacy of individual amino acids (100 μ M) to promote aggregation of synthetic 3 nm or smaller ZnS (10 μ M) (*14*). The chosen amino acids (alanine, aspartate, cysteine, lysine, phenylalanine, proline, and serine) possess chemically distinct side-chain functional groups. Aggregation was monitored periodically using dynamic light scattering (DLS; *14*), and results showed that the inorganic aggregation of ZnS at first occurred rapidly to form ~100 nm-diameter aggregates, but then slowed greatly or ceased after one week (Figs. 4, S7). In contrast,
ZnS nanoparticles in the presence of cysteine exhibited more extensive and prolonged
aggregation, ultimately forming 1-10 µm-sized structures. Other amino acids had little
(e.g., serine) to no (e.g., proline) detectable effect on nanoparticle aggregation relative to
controls (Fig. S7). Cysteine in the absence of ZnS formed no measurable aggregates
(Fig. 4), and humic compounds added to ZnS nanoparticle suspensions did not accelerate

8 The DLS results correlate with prior studies of the adsorption of amino acids, 9 other organic ligands, and inorganic ions to the surfaces of metal chalcogenides (16, 26, 26)10 27). For example, the sulfhydryl group present in cysteine and mercapto- compounds 11 exhibits strong specific binding to the surfaces of sulfide minerals and nanoparticles. 12 Similarly, serine with a terminal hydroxyl group causes somewhat more aggregation than 13 observed in control samples, as was expected from both the weaker chemical interaction 14 of this group with sulfide surfaces and the higher pK_a relative to cysteine (9.15 vs. 8.33). 15 Thus, we conclude that strong specific chemical binding is a necessary prelude to amino 16 acid- or protein-driven ZnS nanoparticle aggregation.

17 Mineral-protein mixtures with internal organization are typically considered 18 biominerals, and biominerals normally form within organisms. The structures reported 19 here represent an exception to this pattern. Proteins, peptides, and amino acids could be 20 released after cell death and scavenged by hydrophobic ZnS surfaces. Alternatively, 21 bacteria may export Zn-binding proteins for a physiological reason. Most known 22 bacterial metal-binding proteins are produced for intracellular binding and subsequent 23 export of toxic metals (24). In the case reported here, biofilm proteins may bind excess

| 1 | aqueous Zn ²⁺ , or interact with bound Zn(II) and other proteins subsequent to ZnS |
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| | |
| 2 | precipitation. In either scenario, the aggregation of metal-sulfide nanoparticles was |
| 3 | promoted, preventing incidental uptake by (e.g., 28, 29) or entombment of cells. From |
| 4 | the dense, spheroidal morphologies, the rate of aggregation appears to be reaction-limited |
| 5 | (30). Similar densely packed aggregates of biogenic metal-bearing nanoparticles have |
| 6 | been reported from other metal-contaminated systems (e.g., 31). Such aggregates in |
| 7 | sediments could trap and possibly preserve organic molecules or their degradation |
| 8 | products in sediments or rocks. |
| 9 | Microbial and chemical redox transformations of metals can result in the |
| 10 | precipitation of metal-bearing nanoparticles across a range of environmental conditions |
| 11 | (32). The aggregation state of these particles may have a strong impact on metal mobility |
| 12 | and water quality (33) . Our results suggest that aggregation induced by extracellular |
| 13 | metal-binding polypeptides and proteins plays an important role in limiting nanoparticle |
| 14 | dispersal in natural environments. |
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| |

1 **Figure Captions:**

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3 Figure 1: NanoSIMS secondary ion images showing C, N and S distributions in an ultramicrotomed TEM section of biofilm. (A) Composite element distribution map 4 (~10 μ m x 10 μ m) of ¹²C (blue), ¹²C¹⁴N for N (green), and ³²S (red). Colors reflect the 5 proportion each species. For example, uniformly red regions represent relatively pure ³²S 6 7 (as ZnS), while orange or yellow regions indicate the presence of increased levels of nitrogen. Cyan regions indicate the presence of both carbon and nitrogen, with little to 8 9 no sulfur (no ZnS). (B) TEM image of several conjoined ZnS spheroidal aggregates. (C) 10 NanoSIMS composite element distribution map of (B). (D) NanoSIMS composite element distribution map of ultramicrotomed Balmat ZnS. (E) NanoSIMS composite 11 element distribution map of synthetic nanoparticulate ZnS. (F) Color box plots of the 12 13 relative ion abundances displayed in (A, C, D and E). Primary colors and maximum ion 14 counts are noted for each species along each axis; all axes are linear with respect to ion 15 counts. In the left box ("binary"), only binary ion compositions (one or two species) are 16 shown; in the right box ("ternary"), only primary (the species corresponding to each axis) 17 and ternary ion compositions (three species) are shown. Black and white "corners" 18 correspond to points of minimum and maximum ion counts, respectively, for all three 19 species. All scale bars are 1 μ m. Figs. S8-S10 (14) present grayscale versions of Figs. 20 1A, C, and D, respectively.

21

Figure 2. SR-FTIR transmission spectra of biogenic ZnS aggregates (black) and background biofilm (gray). Amide I (~1640 cm⁻¹) and II (~1580 cm⁻¹) absorption features are diagnostic of amino-acid associated bond vibrations in polypeptides and/or proteins.

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Figure 3: Composite SDS-PAGE gel electrophoresis image of biofilm and ZnS protein extractions. SyproOrange and colloidal silver molecular weight standards (far left and right lanes, respectively). (A) Extraction from the biofilm organic fraction stained with SyproOrange. (B) Extraction of the ZnS spheroid fraction stained with SyproOrange. (C and D) Replicate extractions of biofilm organic fraction stained with silver. (E and F) Replicate extractions of ZnS spheroids fraction stained with silver. Numbers are molecular masses in kilodaltons (kDa).

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35 Size distribution curves from dynamic light scattering (DLS) data Figure 4: 36 acquired in ZnS nanoparticles aggregation experiments. (A) Control experiments. 10 37 uM ZnS nanoparticles alone (solid lines) aggregate within 1 day to form ~100 nm radius clusters that exhibit little further growth over the 5 day period. 100 µM cysteine alone 38 39 (dashed lines) gives a very weak DLS signal with is no consistent trend in size 40 distribution. (B) In the presence of both 10 μ M ZnS and 100 μ M cysteine, sustained 41 aggregation occurs over the 7 day period, resulting in aggregates that are more than 1 42 order of magnitude larger than the initial clusters. DLS correlation functions from which 43 size distributions were derived are shown in Fig. S7.

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1 Supplementary Materials and Methods:

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Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)/Secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS)

4 biofilm sample preparation:5

Samples of biofilm were fixed with 4% glutaraldehyde, as described previously (*S1*).
TEM images (Fig. S4) confirm that, because the sectioning resin neither displaces nor
damages fine-scale biofilm features, ultramicrotomed samples of biofilm used for TEM
imaging were also suitable for SIMS analyses.

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11 Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry (SIMS):

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13 SIMS was performed using the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory NanoSIMS 50 14 (Cameca, Gennevilliers Cedex, France). The measurements were made with a 0.2 to 0.7 15 pA, 16 keV ¹³³Cs⁺ primary ion beam focused into a 50 to 100 nm diameter spot, rastered over sample areas of $\sim 10 \times 10 \ \mu m^2$. The isotope imaging measurements consist of 15 to 16 100 replicate scans of 256 x 256 or 512 x 512 pixels with dwell times of 1-2 ms/pixel 17 Secondary ion intensities were collected simultaneously in multi-collection mode using three different collector configurations, [¹²C⁻, ¹²C¹⁴N⁻, ³¹P⁻, ³²S⁻], [¹²C⁻, ¹²C¹⁴N⁻, ¹⁴N¹⁶O⁻, 18 19 32 S⁻, 14 N³²S⁻] and $[{}^{12}$ C⁻, 12 C¹⁴N⁻, 32 S⁻, 14 N³²S⁻]. A mass resolving power of ~4000 was 20 used. Samples were also simultaneously imaged using secondary electrons. The ${}^{12}C^{14}N^{-1}$ 21 22 $/^{14}N^{16}O^{-1}$ ratio in the biofilm and ZnS spheroids was compared to this ratio in a sample of 23 KNO_3 dissolved in graphite as a nitrate reference (~0.3 wt% KNO_3), and bacterial spores 24 as an organic nitrogen reference, to test for significant levels of nitrate in the ZnS 25 spheroids. Nitrogen concentration in the ZnS aggregates was estimated based on a relative sensitivity factor for NS⁻ (RSF_{NS}) of 4.2 x 10^{24} cm⁻³ for NS⁻ relative to S⁻ in ZnS 26 (S2). The ZnS standard was produced by implanting N into a ZnS crystal with 150-keV 27 at a fluence of 1 x 10^{14} atoms/cm². The abundance of N (atoms per cm³) in ZnS (C_N) is 28 estimated from: 29

30 31 $C_{\rm N} = RSF_{\rm NS} * I_{\rm NS}/I_{\rm S},$

where I_{NS} and I_{S} are ion count rates for NS⁻ and S⁻ corrected for the abundances of ¹⁴N 32 and ³²S relative to total N and S (S3). The abundance of N in ZnS (wt%) is calculated 33 from C_N, Avogadro's number, the atomic mass of N, and the density of ZnS. The 34 35 estimate of absolute abundance of N in the ZnS aggregates is given a factor of two uncertainty to allow for the RSF_{NS} being generated on a different SIMS instrument; 36 37 actual accuracy is likely higher. Data for CN⁻ are used in the figures because CN⁻ has 38 approximately 100 times higher intensity than NS⁻ (Fig. S11) and therefore provides 39 higher clarity images.

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41 Composite multi-element images were constructed using Photoshop (Adobe) and the 42 NanoSIMS data analysis software, *L'image* (developed by L. Nittler, Carnegie Institution 43 of Washington, Washington, D.C., USA). Grey-scale ${}^{12}C^{-}$, ${}^{12}C^{14}N^{-}$ and ${}^{32}S^{-}$ intensity 44 images generated by *L'image* (e.g. Figs. S8-S10) were assigned to blue, green and red 45 channels, respectively, in Photoshop RGB (red/green/blue) image files. Therefore,

1 primary colors in the images represent the presence of only one of the elements, whereas 2 "binary" or "ternary" colors represent mixtures of two or three elemental components, 3 respectively. Black indicates areas of no data (i.e. holes in the TEM section). The color 4 box plot "key" to Fig. 1 (F) represents in three-dimensional space the surfaces of possible 5 binary and ternary mixtures of the three colors (i.e. elements). The significance of 6 measurements obtained via NanoSIMS analyses of biofilm ZnS, for >1,000 regions-ofinterest (ROIs) of approximately 180 nm² each, was determined by comparison to 7 8 NanoSIMS analyses of natural and synthetic ZnS reference materials (Figs. 1D, E). In 9 addition to a natural single-crystal ZnS standard (Balmat sphalerite, NBS123) (Fig. 1D), 10 nanoparticulate ZnS synthesized (S4) by H. Zhang (UC Berkeley) (Fig. 1E) was used to 11 represent a similarly structured (i.e., nanocrystalline) pure ZnS reference material for 12 comparison.

13

14 In the course of analysis by dynamic SIMS methods such as NanoSIMS, the high energy 15 primary ion beam breaks chemical bonds in the sample. Dimers produced in the course 16 of primary beam sputtering originate from atoms in the sample, and therefore, at a 17 minimum, it is possible to determine if elements are associated with each other at the 18 scale of the primary beam. To some extent, dimers will come from bonded atoms or be 19 affected by chemical bonding in the sample (S5). Therefore, we analyze organic and 20 nitrate reference materials for CN⁻ and NO⁻ to determine empirically if the relative yield 21 of these two dimers can be used to constrain the nature of N in the ZnS aggregates. The ¹²C¹⁴N^{-/14}N¹⁶O⁻ data for the organic standard and the biofilm ZnS are well constrained 22 around 3000, within the range of counting statistics. The ${}^{12}C^{14}N^{-/14}N^{16}O^{-}$ data for the 23 24 inorganic reference material, KNO₃ dissolved in graphite, is more scattered and highly 25 skewed (skewness = 3.2), with over 75% of the data below a ratio of 20 and less than 10% over 50 (Fig. S5A). These data are from two 10 x 10 μ m² fields, subdivided into 26 169 ROIs each, and provide a reference for NO_3^- associated with carbon. The NO_3^- 27 28 abundance in the graphite is heterogeneous (mean of ~0.3 wt.%), providing a range of 29 concentrations for comparison to other samples. The experiment shows that even in the 30 case of intimate association of NO_3^- with carbon at low concentrations at sputtering 31 equilibrium, the relative yield of CN⁻ to NO⁻ is at least a factor of 10 lower than observed 32 in the organic sample and the biofilm ZnS aggregates (Fig. S5B). At higher 33 concentrations relative to C, the CN/NO ratio is below 1. We take this experiment as 34 evidence that the N in the ZnS aggregates is not present as nitrate or nitrite, and therefore 35 is organic in nature.

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37 Synchrotron-radiation Fourier transform infra-red spectroscopy (SR-FTIR):

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39 SR-FTIR is capable of detecting and differentiating amongst nucleic acids, lipids, amino 40 acids, and polysaccharides (*S6*). The spatial resolution of SR-FTIR, coupled with optical 41 microscopy, is diffraction limited, or between 2 and 10 µm in the mid-infrared (*S7*). SR-42 FTIR analyses were conducted on uncoated ultramicrotomed sections of the same biofilm 43 samples used for NanoSIMS analyses. The location of the synchrotron probe relative to 44 targets selected with optical microscopy was calibrated using IR-sensitive targets on

1 standards. Background spectra were obtained and used as reference spectra for both 2 samples and standards to remove atmospheric H_2O and CO_2 absorptions.

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Biofilm/ZnS separation and total protein extraction:

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6 Biofilm samples were homogenized by repeated pipetting action through a series of 7 sterile syringe needles of increasingly smaller inner-bore diameter (18-, 21- and 22-8 gauge, respectively, for approximately 20 minutes each). Homogenized biofilm slurries 9 were then pelleted by centrifugation, re-suspended in lithium polytungstate solution (LST) of density $\sim 2.8 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ (Geoliquids, Prospect Heights, IL, USA), and then subjected 10 to further low-speed centrifugation (~5 mins at 1000 rpm) in autoclaved microcentrifuge 11 12 tubes (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). ZnS-rich biofilm fragments ($r \sim 4.1 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$) were 13 easily pelleted at the bottom of LST-filled tubes during centrifugation, while ZnS-poor 14 biofilm fragments rose to the top of the LST solution to be re-pipetted into new tubes. 15 This process of low-speed centrifugation, density-based fractionation, collection and re-16 suspension was repeated several times, until no further separation of ZnS-rich and ZnS-17 poor biofilm fractions was observed. Both fractions were transferred a final time by pipette to clean tubes of nuclease-free water, and then pelleted, washed and re-suspended 18 19 6-8 times, to remove all traces of LST. Each resulting fraction represents a subsample of 20 biofilm or ZnS spheroids with greatly increased relative concentrations of organic matter 21 or ZnS, respectively. This method avoids the use of surfactants or solvents that might 22 solubilize and destroy organic biomolecules, including nucleic acids and proteins. Each 23 "density fraction" from the separation process was pelleted and re-suspended a final time 24 in 2% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) solution for one hour at room temperature with 25 gentle mixing to denature any proteins (S8).

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27 Protein gel electrophoresis:

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29 Molecular weight standard "ladders" were run on both sides of all sample gel lanes to 30 correct for horizontal distortions commonly produced during gel electrophoresis. Protein 31 extractions were analyzed using two different molecular weight ladders and two different 32 staining methods, for comparison of sample protein size/weights and staining 33 efficiencies. One set of gels was reacted with a silver-based stain (BioRad, Hercules, 34 CA, USA) (S9), and Kaleidoscope (BioRad) pre-stained molecular weight ladders were 35 used to calibrate the weight/size of protein bands. These gels were imaged using a standard Epson scanner. The second set of gels was stained with SyproOrange (BioRad), 36 37 a UV-fluorescent dye that specifically binds to proteins (S10), and protein bands were 38 calibrated to broad-range SyproOrange molecular weight ladders. These gels were 39 imaged using a UV-VIS light gel documentation system (BioRad). Both SyproOrange 40 and silver staining can be used to detect =10 ng of protein.

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42 ZnS nanoparticle synthesis:

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44 Nano-ZnS was synthesized by the reaction of 150 mM ZnC_b and aqueous sulfide, which 45 were dissolved separately into 200 ml of ultra-pure (0.1 μ m pore-size double-filtered 1 MilliQ; Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) DI water and reacted drop wise under constant 2 stirring for 1.5 hr (*S5*).

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4 ZnS nanoparticle/amino acid aggregation experiments:

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6 The initial size of ZnS precipitates was determined to be = 3 nm diameter using a UV-vis 7 spectrometer (Ocean Optics, Dunedin, FL, USA) calibrated for ZnS particle size using 8 published TEM observations (S11). The following experimental conditions were 9 established in separate glass flasks: (a) "blanks" (ultrapure water only), (b) ZnS nanoparticles only, (c) a single amino acid only and (d) ZnS nanoparticles plus a single 10 11 amino acid. All incubation flasks were (in the following order) detergent-washed, rinsed 12 with MilliQ water three times, acid-washed in 0.1N HCl overnight, rinsed five times with 13 MilliQ water, and sealed with parafilm, prior to the experiment. After the addition of any 14 reagents, flasks were resealed with parafilm and kept sealed during the experiment 15 between sampling times. All flasks were gently stirred throughout the experiment by 16 acid-washed Teflon-coated magnetic stirrer bars. 1 ml aliquots from each experimental 17 condition were taken at 0, 0.5, 1, 3, 5, and 7 days of reaction progress. Between sample 18 measurements, 0.5 ml of 0.1 N HCl was flushed through the sample line and chamber, 19 followed by 3 ml of ultrapure water, to avoid cross-contamination of samples. Three 20 measurements of 40 - 60 accumulations each were obtained per analysis at each 21 sampling time point.

The amino acids chosen for these aggregation experiments represent the following classes of structures and functional groups: alanine (nonpolar, aliphatic), aspartate (acidic, negatively charged), cysteine (polar, uncharged, thiol-bearing), lysine (basic, positively charged), phenylalanine (aromatic), proline (polar, uncharged, imine-bearing), and serine (polar, uncharged, hydroxyl-bearing). Their conditional stability constants for mono-ligand complexation of aqueous Zn^{2+} are given in Table S1, from data collected by Martell and Smith (*S12*).

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30 Dynamic light scattering (DLS) analysis:

31 DLS analysis was performed with a PD-Expert Workstation (Precision Detectors, 32 Bellingham, MA, USA) fitted with a quartz flow-through cell maintained at 25 °C. Laser 33 light (685 nm wavelength) scattered through 135° was sent via glass fiber to an optical 34 correlator. The DLS correlation function is a direct measurement of the diffusion 35 coefficient(s) of objects suspended in a solvent. For specific values of solvent viscosity 36 and refractive index, an effective hydrodynamic radius, R_H , of the object(s) can be 37 calculated (S13). In the present case, we observed light scattering from aggregates of 38 ZnS nanoparticles. Because the exact shape and hydrodynamic properties of 39 nanoparticulate aggregates are not well known, there may be systematic differences 40 between the calculated R_H and spatial dimensions observed by alternative techniques 41 (such as electron microscopy). Determination of the distribution of ZnS aggregate sizes 42 was performed using proprietary Precision Detectors software (PrecisionDeconvolve) 43 that employs a regularization algorithm (S14) to seek a smooth, non-negative size 44 distribution function that provides the best fit to the data. Low noise DLS data analyzed

1 with this method can resolve multimodal distributions, provided the diffusion coefficients

2 differ by greater than a factor of ~ 2.5 .

3 Supplementary Figure Captions:

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Figure S1: Field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) secondary electron image of micron-scale spheroidal aggregates of nanocrystalline biogenic ZnS formed in the biofilm.

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9 Figure S2: HRTEM image of cross-section through spheroidal biogenic ZnS aggregate in the biofilm. Multiple concentric rings (3-5 nm wide, shown by white arrows) of low electron density attributed to porous regions separate bands of densely aggregated nanoparticulate ZnS.

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14 Figure S3: HRTEM images of biogenic ZnS nanoparticles formed in a biofilm of 15 sulfate-reducing bacteria. (A) The smallest ZnS nanoparticles are crystalline, as shown 16 by $\{111\}$ lattice fringes in [02-2] projection, and <2 nm-diameter. (B) Several 17 aggregated nanoparticles with boundaries indicated by dashed lines. (C) Disordered ZnS aggregates contain multiple stacking faults (interpolated along pairs of white lines) that 18 19 give rise to wurtzite subdomains (across white line pairs) in sphalerite. (D) Example of 20 aggregation producing faceted surfaces and negative crystals (dashed white triangle). All 21 scale bars are 2 nm.

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Figure S4: TEM image of biofilm organic matter, cells and ZnS aggregates. Stained ultramicrotomed sections of biofilm show abundant ZnS spheroidal aggregates (black spheroidal features with strong diffraction contrast) surrounded by biofilm organic matter (white arrows), and in close proximity to cells (black arrows). Dark grey spheroidal features with lighter grey cores (grey arrows) are cells surrounded by capsular organic matter that has been stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate. Scale bars are 1 μm.

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Figure S5: ${}^{12}C^{14}N^{-/14}N^{16}O^{-}$ ratios of KNO₃ dissolved in graphite. (A) Histogram of the number versus ${}^{12}C^{14}N^{-/14}N^{16}O^{-}$ ratio for each of 338 10 x 10 μ m² regions analyzed. The distribution is highly skewed (skewness = 3.2), with over 75% below a ratio of 20 and less than 10% over 50. (B) Plot of ${}^{12}C^{14}N^{-/14}N^{16}O^{-}$ versus ${}^{12}C^{14}N^{-/12}C$ ratios for the same regions in (A). ${}^{12}C^{14}N^{-/14}N^{16}O^{-}$ ratios are, for all analyses, at least one order of magnitude less than those observed in biofilm ZnS spheroids.

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Figure S6: Microcentrifuge tubes of lithium-polytungstate solution (LST), biofilm and ZnS. The left-hand tube shows the color of pure LST. Homogenized biofilm is introduced and subjected to low speed centrifugation to separate lower and higher density fractions (middle tube). Density-driven separation is iteratively repeated until no further separation is achieved (right-hand tube). Material at the top of the LST solution consists predominantly of biofilm organic matter, while the pellet at the bottom is concentrated in ZnS spheroids.

1 Figure S7: Dynamic light scattering (DLS) data acquired during ZnS nanoparticle 2 aggregation experiments. Top row: size distribution histograms. Bottom row: DLS 3 correlation functions. The first column shows the data for the control experiment in 4 which ZnS nanoparticle aggregation was observed without any amino acid added. 5 Subsequent columns are labeled with the name of the added amino acid. We investigated 6 the ability of the amino acids to drive nanoparticle aggregation by comparing the time-7 dependent cluster size with the no-amino acid control. The aggregation behavior in the 8 presence of proline was indistinguishable from the control, and similar results were 9 obtained for alanine and phenylalanine. Serine appeared to drive some additional 10 aggregation relative to the control, and similar results were obtained for aspartate and 11 lysine. Only experiments in the presence of cysteine showed extensive and prolonged 12 aggregate formation.

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14 Figure S8: NanoSIMS secondary ion images of biofilm with ZnS aggregates. 15 Grayscale version of Fig. 1A in which each component element (i.e. color) is here shown 16 separately as total counts. One additional frame has been added (*lower right*) to 17 demonstrate the strong degree of phosphorus co-localization with only features exhibiting 18 both increased carbon and nitrogen counts (*upper row*). Scale bars are 500 nm.

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Figure S9: NanoSIMS secondary ion images of biofilm with ZnS aggregates. Grayscale version of Fig. 1C in which each component element (i.e. color) is here shown separately as total counts. One additional frame has been added *(lower right)* to again demonstrate the absence of phosphorus in ZnS spheroids. Scale bars are 500 nm.

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Figure S10: NanoSIMS secondary ion images of ultramicrotomed Balmat ZnS reference standard. Grayscale version of Fig. 1D in which each component element (i.e. color) is here shown separately as total counts. Scale bars are 500 nm.

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Figure S11: NanoSIMS secondary ion images of biofilm with ZnS aggregates. Grayscale version of a different region of biofilm from the same sample shown in Fig. 1A. In addition to the same component elements shown in Fig. 1, the species ${}^{32}S^{14}N$ is shown. Based on the significantly higher counts for ${}^{12}C^{14}N$ than for ${}^{32}S^{14}N$, the former species was used to measure the nitrogen content of ZnS spheroids and other biofilm components.

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Table S1: Stability constants for various amino acids. Data are taken from (12), for the reaction $M + L \rightarrow ML$, where $M = Zn^{2+}$ and L = amino acid. I = ionic strength.

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