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**Quantifying carbon fixation in microbial dark matter  
from low-temperature hydrothermal settings:  
experimental validation using quantitative stable  
isotope probing**

**Ömer Kürşat Coşkun**

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**München 2022**



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# **Quantifying carbon fixation in microbial dark matter from low-temperature hydrothermal settings: experimental validation using quantitative stable isotope probing**

**Ömer Kürşat Coşkun**

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Dissertation zur Erlangung des Doktorgrades  
an der Fakultät für Geowissenschaften  
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München

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# List of published articles and papers in preparation.

**Ömer K Coskun**, Aurèle Vuillemin, Florence Schubotz, Frieder Klein, Susanna E Sichel, Wolfgang Eisenreich, William D Orsi (2021). Quantifying the effects of hydrogen on carbon assimilation in a seafloor microbial community associated with ultramafic rocks.

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**Ömer K Coskun**, Volkan Özen, Scott D Wankel, William D Orsi (2019). Quantifying population-specific growth in benthic bacterial communities under low oxygen using H<sub>2</sub><sup>18</sup>O.

Published in: *The ISME journal*, Volume 13, Issue 6, June 2019, Pages 1546-1559, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41396-019-0373-4> (**Chapter 3**)

**Ömer K Coskun**, Murat Beren, Doğacan Özcan, Suna D. Günay, Viktor Elkin, Hakan Hoşgörmez, Florian Einsiedl and William D Orsi. Bicarbonate concentrations drive primary production by microbial dark matter in a subsurface hydrothermal aquifer.

This manuscript is in preparation for standalone publication (**Chapter 4**)

**Ömer K Coskun**, Murat Beren, Doğacan Özcan, Hakan Hoşgörmez, Florian Einsiedl and William D. Orsi. Wood-Ljungdahl pathway in *Candidatus Bipolaricaulota* thriving in thermal waters in Biga Peninsula.

This manuscript is in preparation for standalone publication (**Chapter 5**)

# APPENDIX

Valentine Puzenat, Javier Escartin, Jean-Emmanuel Martelat, Thibaut Barreyre, Sven Le Moine Bauer, Paraskevi Nomikou, Nuno Gracias, Pascal Allemand, Varvara Antoniou, **Ömer Coskun**, Rafael Garcia, Philippe Grandjean, Steffen Leth Jørgensen, Lluís Magí, Manolis Mandalakis, William Orsi, Paraskevi Polymenakou, Anders Schouw, Guillem Vallicrosa, Othonas Vlasopoulos (2021). Shallow-water hydrothermalism at Milos (Greece): Nature, distribution, heat fluxes and impact on ecosystems. Published in: *Marine Geology*, Volume 438, August 2021, Pages 106521, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.margeo.2021.106521> (**Paper 1**)

William D Orsi, Aurèle Vuillemin, Paula Rodriguez, **Ömer K Coskun**, Gonzalo V Gomez-Saez, Gaute Lavik, Volker Mohrholz, Timothy G Ferdelman (2020). Metabolic activity analyses demonstrate that Lokiarchaeon exhibits homoacetogenesis in sulfidic marine sediments. Published in: *Nature Microbiology*, Volume 5, Issue 2, February 2020, Pages 248-255, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41564-019-0630-3> (**Paper 2**)

Florian Einsiedl, Anja Wunderlich, Mathieu Sebilo, **Ömer K Coskun**, William D Orsi, Bernhard Mayer (2020). Biogeochemical evidence of anaerobic methane oxidation and anaerobic ammonium oxidation in a stratified lake using stable isotopes. Published in: *Biogeosciences*, Volume 17, Issue 20, October 2020, Pages 5149-5161 <https://bg.copernicus.org/articles/17/5149/2020/> (**Paper 3**)

Aurèle Vuillemin, Sergio Vargas, **Ömer K Coskun**, Robert Pockalny, Richard W Murray, David C Smith, Steven D'Hondt, William D Orsi (2020). Atribacteria Reproducing over Millions of Years in the Atlantic Abyssal Subseafloor. Published in: *mBio*, Volume 11, Issue 5, October 2020, Pages e01927-20, <https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01937-20> (**Paper 4**)

Aurèle Vuillemin, Scott D Wankel, **Ömer K Coskun**, Tobias Magritsch, Sergio Vargas, Emily R Estes, Arthur J Spivack, David C Smith, Robert Pockalny, Richard W Murray, Steven D'Hondt, William D Orsi (2019). Archaea dominate oxic subseafloor communities over multi million-year time scales. Published in: *Science Advances*, Volume 5, Issue 6, June 2019, Pages eaaw4108, doi:10.1126/sciadv.aaw4108 (**Paper 5**)

William D Orsi, Aurèle Vuillemin, **Ömer K Coskun**, Paula Rodriguez, Yanik Oertel, Jutta Niggemann, Volker Mohrholz, Gonzalo V Gomez-Saez (2021). Carbon assimilating fungi from surface ocean to subseafloor revealed by coupled phylogenetic and stable isotope analysis. Published in: *The ISME Journal*, December 2021, Pages 1751-7370, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41396-021-01169-5> (**Paper 6**)

# Authors Contributions

Chapter 2: WDO, WE, FK, and FS conceived the idea for the study. FS, WDO and OKC designed the experiments. FS conducted the experiments. OKC performed DNA extraction, DNA-SIP analysis. AV and OKC prepared metagenomic analysis. OKC performed quantitative stable isotope probing analysis and phylogenetic analyses. OKC and WDO, FK, and FS prepared the figures. OKC, WDO, FK, and FS wrote the paper. OKC, AV, FS, FK, SES, WE, and WDO revised the manuscript. WDO, FS, and FK secured the funding.

Chapter 3: SDW and WDO designed the study. SDW, WDO, and OKC conducted the experiments. OKC and VO worked on the statistical calculations and generated the first figures. OKC, VO, SDW, and WDO drafted the manuscript and figures. All authors revised the manuscript. SDW and WDO secured the funding.

Chapter 4: OKC and WDO designed the study. OKC, MB, DÖ conducted the field trip and the experiments. OKC performed DNA extraction, DNA-SIP analysis and metagenomic analysis. OKC performed quantitative stable isotope probing and the metagenomic workflow. OKC performed the bioinformatic analyses. SDG and VE partially helped with the laboratory work to generate the data. FE performed water chemistry analyses and isotope measurements. OKC, WDO drafted the manuscript and figures. OKC, MB, DÖ, SDG, VE, FE, and WDO revised the manuscript. WDO secured the funding.

Chapter 5: OKC and WDO designed the study. OKC, MB, DÖ conducted the field trip and the experiments. OKC performed DNA extraction, DNA-SIP analysis and metagenomic analysis. OKC performed quantitative stable isotope probing, metagenomic workflow and pangenome analysis. OKC performed the bioinformatic analyses. FE performed water chemistry analyses and isotope measurements. OKC, WDO drafted the manuscript and figures. OKC, MB, DÖ, FE, and WDO revised the manuscript. WDO secured the funding.

# SUMMARY

Last common universal ancestor of all cells (LUCA or progenote) is in the center of Origin-of-life related studies. Phylogenetic and genetic analysis indicate that LUCA was an anaerobic single celled thermophile which was able to fix carbon-dioxide using hydrogen-dependent reductive acetyl-CoA (Wood-Ljungdahl pathway; abbreviated as WL pathway hereon). Besides WL pathway, reductive tricarboxylic acid pathway (rTCA) was also proposed as a candidate primordial carbon fixation mechanism at the dawn of the origin of life. Apart from proposed metabolisms, it has been hypothesized that serpentinization-driven hydrothermal vents and hot springs could be the possible birthplace where life could have originated and evolved. The data also supports this idea that LUCA might have existed in a hydrothermal setting. However, quantitative experimental data to better understand the ecology of the modern-day microbes utilizing rTCA and WLP in hydrothermal vents, deep-subsurface and hot springs is lacking.

In this project we sampled the environments where the first functional cellular life could have proliferated. We conducted for the first time quantitative stable isotope probing experiments (qSIP) on the samples taken from a possible serpentinization-driven setting, hot springs and shallow water hydrothermal systems using  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled carbon sources. Main objectives of this study were [1] to better understand the controlling parameters underlying the function of proposed ancestral pathways and [2] potentially other mechanisms hypothesized to be rooted from prebiotic mechanisms, [3] to gain understanding of carbon cycling performed by indigenous microbes dwelling in hydrothermal systems, [4] to elucidate the microbial interactions under different conditions by changing the substrate additions and concentrations, and [5] to find out novel microbes which are relevant to origin-of-life studies. In the introduction section (**Chapter 1**) the background information, terminology, and the relevant concepts for the origin of life are provided.

In **Chapter 2**, the effect of hydrogen on microbial carbon assimilation dynamics in a partially serpentinized peridotite-associated environment is described. Serpentinization is a natural process that results in production of hydrogen and methane as the main products and hypothesized to be modern analogue for origin-of-life related studies.  $\text{H}_2$  utilization is a favorable energy source for microbial life and this chapter addresses how the hydrogen affects the anabolic processes in seafloor associated communities. By applying quantitative stable isotope probing experiments using  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate -acetate and -formate in the presence/absence of molecular hydrogen, increase in bicarbonate and acetate assimilation was observed with the addition hydrogen and correlated with increase in NiFe-hydrogenases. Hydrogen decreased the assimilation of formate by rock-associated microbes. Because ultramafic rocks are widespread in oceanic lithosphere, continental margins, and subduction zones where  $\text{H}_2$  is formed in copious amounts, the link between  $\text{H}_2$  and carbon assimilation demonstrated here may be widespread in geological settings around the globe and may shed light on earliest biochemical pathways driven by  $\text{H}_2$  in serpentinization-driven ecosystems.

**Chapter 3** aimed to comprehend the growth dynamics of microbes in marine sediments using qSIP with  $\text{H}_2^{18}\text{O}$ . It closely focuses on how the oxygen depletion in benthos shapes growth, mortality, and

reproduction rates of uncultivated microbial populations, which a huge gap is present in our current understanding. The oxygen-labeling helped us categorize the microbial population based on their growth characteristics, i.e., spanning from aerobic to anaerobic lifestyle. Further investigation on the genes encoding dissimilatory sulfite reductase  $\beta$ -subunit (*dsrB*) revealed novel Acidobacteria, highlighting their importance for sulfur cycling in estuarine sediments. This chapter helped me improve my skills on qSIP and understand the importance of the effect of oxygen on microbial communities, which is mostly overlooked in closed incubational setups.

**Chapter 4** aimed to better understand how different bicarbonate concentrations affect the microbial carbon fixation in deep subsurface geothermal aquifer systems. Continental deep subsurface environments provide an analogous environment for any crustal subsurface in rocky or icy planetary bodies as lithogenic substrates produced through the water-rock interactions may provide an energy source for first microbial life away from the pre-ozone early Earth. The  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate qSIP incubations using 750-meter-deep thermal water pumped to a private hotel showed novel bicarbonate-utilizing bacteria and archaea. Interestingly, the incubations receiving low bicarbonate addition revealed higher utilization rate of bicarbonate performed by higher biodiversity compared to the incubations amended with those of higher concentrations. Metagenomic data uncovered taxonomically unassigned taxa, reflecting the uniqueness of the studied area with metabolic capacity to fix carbon through WL pathway, rTCA and CBB cycles. Our data may shed light onto how life may emerge and evolve in geothermal systems by underlying the diverse microbial metabolic capacities in modern, deep, and hot subsurface environments.

**Chapter 5** targets to reveal metabolic potentials of reconstructed metagenome-assembled-genomes (MAGs) affiliated to *Candidatus* Bipolaricaulota (Formerly, *Candidatus* OP1, Acetothermia) by applying a pangenome approach. We reconstructed 5 high to medium quality MAGs and compared them to 19 publicly available (complete to incomplete) MAGs. The pangenomic approach has uncovered complete – nearly complete WL pathway in more than half of the MAGs of *Ca.* Bipolaricaulota studied here, which was in line with the literature. It has been shown and predicted that WL pathway in this deeply branching phylum is versatile and mainly used in homoacetogenic fermentation and syntrophic acetate oxidation. The lack of representative cultures and isolates makes it difficult to assess which way WL pathway is working; however, the results from quantitative stable isotope probing (qSIP) experiment in **Chapter 4** helped us to unearth carbon fixing OTUs affiliated with *Ca.* Bipolaricaulota. Furthermore, 3 actively carbon fixing OTUs associated with *Ca.* Bipolaricaulota, found in all the sampled hydrothermal spots except Entur, were the major taxa in Tuzla sample, which is a hypersaline geothermal brine, suggesting halotolerant ecophysiology of this phylum.

## Summary of the papers published during my Ph.D.

This study (**Paper 1**) aimed to comprehend the hydrothermal outflow at shallow-water hydrothermal system of Milos, Greece where an underwater survey coupled with drone imagery was conducted. Shallow-water hydrothermal systems may provide the necessary ingredients for life- carbon sources, chemical energy from thermodynamic disequilibrium, mineral surfaces, and compositional gradients. Although U-V light might be a problem for life to exist in the emergence of life, seabed may be a protecting area for life to thrive. Therefore, a field work was conducted in Paleochori Bay in Milos to investigate the microbial carbon cycling. Aside from the published paper, DNA-SIP experiments were conducted in the field using sediment samples exhibiting  $>60$  °C, but none of them showed a clear shift due to low amount of biomass and experimental setup. However, this helped us change our experimental setup for the future experiments.

This study (**Paper 2**) focuses on metabolic capability of representatives of Lokiarchaeon using metatranscriptomics coupled with quantitative stable isotope probing technique. *Candidatus* Lokiarchaeota is at the heart of studies investigating the eukaryotic evolution as it has been hypothesized that a Lokiarchaeon was the host cell acquiring the mitochondrion which led to eukaryotic dispersion around the globe. Our data has expanded our knowledge on the metabolic capacity of *Candidatus* Lokiarchaeota. It has been revealed that homoacetogenesis was performed by representatives of *Candidatus* Lokiarchaeota.

**Papers 3-6** consist of the publications that I have contributed on but are also irrespective of origin of life-related studies. **Paper 3** presents vertical concentration and stable isotope profiles of  $\text{CH}_4$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in the water column of Fohnsee (Bavaria, Germany) using geochemical data coupled with 16S rRNA gene sequencing. Nitrate pollution of freshwater systems and methane emissions to the atmosphere are two important factors in lowering the quality of drinking water and in increasing global warming. This chapter linked geochemical data to microbial populations driving nitrite-dependent anaerobic methane oxidation (n-damo), nitrate-dependent anaerobic methane oxidation and the anaerobic oxidation of ammonium (anammox). In **Paper 4**, the metabolism of *Candidatus* Atribacteria was discussed. The members of this phylum were found to be dominant microorganism in an anoxic energy-limited abyssal clay in North Atlantic Ocean that are million years old. These microbes exhibited increased transcription of genes associated with acetogenic fermentation and reproduction. **Paper 5** was a complementary study of **Paper 4** and provided a better understanding of how microbial communities thrived in the oxic, but energy-starved abyssal clay of North Atlantic Ocean. Ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) dominated the microbial community in which their abundance showed a positive correlation with the rates of nitrification. This chapter shed light on how AOA could subsist in larger abundance under constant energetic stress in oxic subseafloor sediment. Lastly, in **Paper 6**, qSIP, metagenomic and metatranscriptomic approaches were coupled to unravel carbon cycling mediated by Fungi in marine ecosystems.  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeling of Fungi utilizing diatom extracellular polymeric substances correlated with the expression of fungal genes encoding carbohydrate-active enzymes. This paper

showed how marine fungi play an important role in the cycling of marine organic matter in the water column and sediment.

This dissertation contributes to our understanding of microbial carbon cycling in environmental setting associated with origin of life by specifically focusing on the proposed primordial carbon fixation mechanisms, namely rTCA and WL pathways. This thesis has three main objectives. First objective is to investigate microbial carbon assimilation dynamics under varying conditions such as addition of H<sub>2</sub> (**Chapter 2**), or differential bicarbonate concentrations (**Chapter 4**). Secondly, it targets to find novel microbes mediating carbon fixation in hydrothermal environments which exhibits variable geochemical characteristics (**Chapter 5**). Finally, it aims to better understand the microbial growth dynamic in an environment which is subjected to perturbations in chemical gradients (**Chapter 3**). The latter objective was not directly related to origin-of-life studies, but the early environments where life has emerged was not different than today's environments (except especially O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> levels) where chemical gradients are disturbed regularly. Therefore, organisms should adapt to these conditions by employing genetic capability to withstand. These perturbations likely played an important role in microbial diversification in the Early Earth, and I have shown that some microbial populations in Estuarine sediments can grow in both anoxic and oxic conditions which bolsters survivability in the nature (**Chapter 3**). In conclusion, at least 4 billion years of evolution in microbes has tremendously shaped microbial metabolism, leading to a huge diversification in the microbial world. However, ancient imprints may still be present in the modern microbial world and this dissertation seeks microbes carrying ancient genes that have survived since the origin of life in the environmental ecosystems where life could have emerged and evolved.

# **Chapter 1**

## **Introduction**



# Chapter 1

## Introduction

In 1929, John Burdon Sanderson Haldane published an article titled “The Origin of Life”, explaining the concept of “prebiotic soup” in the Early Earth conditions (Haldane 1929). According to this scenario, first organic molecules were assembled from methane, ammonia and water by UV radiation and these molecules started to accumulate to produce even larger molecules. Without an existing life consuming these organics, first anaerobic fermenters emerged and started utilizing the rest of the concentrated prebiotic soup as an energy source. This led to the diversification of the first organism until the prebiotic soup had been used up. Prebiotic soup theory received support from a well-known experiment, Miller’s experiment, which showed that organic molecules could be synthesized with a simulated lightning from  $\text{CH}_4$ ,  $\text{H}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  which was thought to be Early Earth’s atmospheric composition (Miller 1953). This hypothesis was assuming life’s creation out of an homologous soup which had already reached a thermodynamic equilibrium; therefore, no further reactions could have taken place (Lane et al. 2010). His theory was missing an energy flux which life requires.

In the late 1970s, submarine hydrothermal vents, known as black smokers, were discovered in the deep ocean waters near Galapagos Island (Corliss et al. 1979; Baross and Hoffman 1985). Although the thermodynamic non-equilibrium conditions were governing in the vents where emanating mineral-rich fluid meets with oceanic cold water, the environment itself was too hot for life’s emergence. However, this discovery led to an origin of life hypotheses since the vent system was chemically reactive environments that would have created suitable conditions for prebiotic synthesis (Baross and Hoffman 1985; Martin et al. 2008).

In the late 1980’s novel geochemical evidence from deep-sea hydrothermal vents led to the hypothesis that warm, alkaline (basic) springs at the bottom of the acidic Hadean Ocean could have provided the conditions that were suitable for the emergence of the life (Russell et al. 1989; Martin et al. 2008; Russell et al. 2010).

### 1.1 The Alkaline hydrothermal vents (AHVs) theory

The gradients of temperature and pH around alkaline hydrothermal vents (AHVs) would have provided potential energy for proto-life and dissolved compounds are proposed to have fallen out of solution and formed insoluble solids when mixed with the chemicals in the cooler Hadean seawater, thereby generating towering mounds of precipitated carbonate, silica, clays, and iron-

nickel sulfides that surrounded such springs. Particularly, continuous supply of hydrogen, methane, formate and acetate through serpentinization to carbonic Hadean ocean are speculated to have fueled anaerobic ecosystems in the Early Earth (Russell et al. 2010). This submarine AHV theory for the emergence of life postulates that reactive Ni-Fe-S mineral surfaces formed across eH-pH gradients and served as catalytic sites for abiotic organic synthesis reactions (Martin et al. 2008; Sojo et al. 2016). New laboratory experiments are able to simulate AHV models under simulated Hadean Ocean conditions identified the growth of catalytic mineral membranes and chambers inside of the chimneys that catalyze CO<sub>2</sub> reduction and thus provide a constant source of energy for proto-cells and reduced carbon to sustain early life in submarine AHVs (Herschy et al. 2014; Barge et al. 2019; Barge et al. 2020). Furthermore, the serpentinization has potentially significant implications for the other planets as it may be presently going on in “ocean worlds” such as Europa and Enceladus (Glein et al. 2015; Waite et al. 2017).

### 1.1.1 Low-temperature serpentinization

In 2000, The Lost City hydrothermal vent field (LCHF) was discovered 15 km away from Mid Atlantic Ocean ridge (MAR) at a water depth of 750-900 meters which was away from the maximum depth the sunlight could penetrate (Kelley et al. 2001). It became one of the most extensively studied sites for active serpentinization since its discovery. The temperature of emanating fluids from hydrothermal vents at LCHF ranged from 41 - 91 °C and was rich in hydrogen and methane (Kelley et al. 2005). It has been estimated that hydrothermal activity has been active for at least >30,000 years as shown by <sup>14</sup>C and U/Th dating of calcium carbonate chimney deposits (Früh-Green et al. 2003). The hydrothermal fluid had pH from 9 to 11, providing a highly reduced alkaline condition driven by active serpentinization.

Serpentinization is the aqueous alteration of ultramafic rocks (high Fe<sup>+2</sup>, Mg<sup>+2</sup> and low silica) which generates H<sub>2</sub>, methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), alkaline fluids (only at low temperature serpentinization) and low-molecular-weight organic compounds (Bach et al. 2006) (reaction 1). The interaction of produced H<sub>2</sub> with carbon produces the methane via Fischer-Tropsch Type reaction and other carbons such as formate and released to the environment through fractures (McCollom and Seewald 2007; Etiope 2017). The source of carbon dioxide may be ocean water infiltrating through the cracks, or the mantle beneath (Russell et al. 2010). Recently, it has been also shown that serpentinization occurs in fluid inclusions trapped in olivine systems when the temperatures are lower than 340 °C and a significant amount H<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> can be stored until extracted by dissolution and fracturing (Klein et al. 2019). It has been estimated that the rate of H<sub>2</sub> production through serpentinization within the oceanic lithosphere is ~10<sup>12</sup> mol H<sub>2</sub>/yr (2 Tg/yr), which exceeds continental production by an order of magnitude (Worman et al. 2016).

*Reaction 1:* The overall process of serpentinization taken from (McCollom and Seewald 2013)



### 1.1.2 Microbial communities in serpentinization-driven ecosystems

Alkaline fluids emanating from serpentinization process are rich in electron donors  $H_2$ ,  $CH_4$ , short-chain hydrocarbons and in some cases formate that can fuel the microbial communities, although the electron acceptors and dissolved carbon are often limited (Schrenk et al. 2013). It is usually observed that alkaline fluids at many sites demonstrates low cell abundances and low taxonomic diversity; however, surface-attached habitats where the ambient water mixes with those fluids may exhibit greater biomass such as the biofilms on carbonate chimneys of Lost-City low-temperature hydrothermal vent field (Kelley et al. 2005; Schrenk et al. 2013). Diverse metabolic strategies possessed by microorganisms could be found in the extremely basic serpentinite systems due to the high concentrations of electron donors but coping with the electron acceptors seems to be the reason which keeps the biodiversity at low levels. In those systems, methane, hydrogen, sulfur and fermentative processes (see table 1) are the main metabolic capabilities activities that shape the biological cycling of important elements such as hydrogen, carbon and sulfur (Schrenk et al. 2013). One of the features of serpentinization-fueled chimneys is that the transition of microbial communities from hot chimney interior where anoxic conditions prevail to cold oxic conditions where the diffusing water is mixed with the ambient water. The chimney interior is mainly dominated by thermophilic anaerobes such as methanogens and sulfate-reducers while the exterior favors for meso- and psychrophilic aerobes such as methanotrophs and  $H_2$ -oxidizing microorganisms (McCollom and Seewald 2013).

TABLE 1: Main metabolic energy sources for chemosynthetic microorganisms in serpentinite-fueled environments (taken and modified from (McCollom and Seewald 2013)).

Metabolic energy source	Overall chemical reaction
Hydrogen oxidation	$H_2 + \frac{1}{2} O_2 \rightarrow H_2O$
Methanotrophy	$CH_4 + 2 O_2 \rightarrow HCO_3^- + H^+ + H_2O$
Methanogenesis	$CO_2 + 4 H_2 \rightarrow CH_4 + 2H_2O$
Sulfate reduction	$SO_4^{2-} + 2 H^+ + 4 H_2 \rightarrow H_2S + 4H_2O$
Anaerobic methane oxidation (AMO)	$SO_4^{2-} + 2 H^+ + CH_4 \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2S + 4H_2O$

## 1.2 The hot, deep biosphere and hot spring theory of origin of life

The deep biosphere is defined as the permanently dark environments that organisms can sustain themselves using geochemical sources (Gold 1992). Thomas Gold in his famous paper argued that life might have emerged and evolved at the deep depth in the pores spaces between rock grains and in the cracks, where Earth's dynamic interior and host rock supplied sources needed for life at temperatures exceeding known limits of life (Gold 1992; Colman et al. 2017). It was also hypothesized that deep rock bodies containing  $H_2$ ,  $CH_4$  and other chemicals important to life can be

the most plausible starting point for the emergence of life. Life's evolution later on must have been followed by lateral expansion in the deep and eventually upward progression where it met with lower temperatures. Besides, it has been suggested that subsurfaces must play an important role in the origin of life by preventing devastating effects of meteorites and high radiation of the early solar system (Edwards et al. 2012; Stevens 2018).

Hot spring hypothesis of the origin of life is one of the famous concepts put forth by Darwin in a letter which he wrote to his friend J.D.Hooker in 1871 (Darwin 1871; Damer and Deamer 2019). He described that a "warm little pond" could provide conditions that facilitated the life's emergence. The modern hot spring theories is built upon this first idea and states the hydrothermal fields with multiple hot spring spots on volcanic islands above the sea level (Van Kranendonk 2010; Bada and Korenaga 2018) would provide sources of heat and geochemical energy to stimulate the accumulation, concentration and synthesis of organic polymers on the mineral surfaces driven by intense and fast wet-dry cycles (Damer and Deamer 2019).

### **1.3 Relevance of carbon fixation in origin of life: Implications for metabolism of Last Universal Common Ancestor (LUCA)**

All life on Earth builds itself from CO<sub>2</sub> (Fuchs 2011), and we agree with the argument that this was no different at the emergence of life (Martin et al. 2008; Russell et al. 2014). The evolutionary metabolic analysis of all available genomic data indicates the last universal common ancestor (LUCA) was likely an H<sub>2</sub>-utilizing autotroph (Wimmer et al. 2021). Related to this important point, it was recently shown that the iron-sulfur mineral greigite (Fe<sub>3</sub>S<sub>4</sub>) can catalyze abiotic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> from H<sub>2</sub>, forming pyruvate and a series of other reduced carbon compounds (Preiner et al. 2020). Moreover, it was shown that native transition metals (Fe<sup>0</sup>, Ni<sup>0</sup>, Co<sup>0</sup>) can reduce CO<sub>2</sub> into intermediates and end products of the acetyl-CoA fixation pathway (Varma et al. 2018; Muchowska et al. 2019b). High CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressures, which were present during Hadean, were also shown to stimulate carbon fixation in an otherwise heterotrophic organism thus driving the TCA cycle backwards towards autotrophy (Steffens et al. 2021). These recent results provide strong support for the hypothesis that emergence of life occurred in a CO<sub>2</sub> environment enriched with metals and iron sulfide minerals and was characterized by H<sub>2</sub> dependent CO<sub>2</sub> reduction (Martin et al. 2008). Two of carbon fixation pathways, the reductive tricarboxylic acid (rTCA) and reductive acetyl-CoA pathways, are present in modern hydrothermal microbes and thought to be the most ancient primordial metabolism (Wächtershäuser 1990; Smith and Morowitz 2004; Braakman and Smith 2012, 2013).

#### **1.3.1 Wood-Ljungdahl pathway**

Among the seven known pathways (Fuchs 2011; Sánchez-Andrea et al. 2020), the only carbon fixation pathway found in both archaea and bacteria is reductive acetyl-CoA pathway, known as Wood-Ljungdahl pathway. In this pathway, ATP is generated simultaneously by converting acetyl-

CoA to acetate while fixing CO<sub>2</sub>, making the WL pathway unique among the others (Fuchs 2011) (Figure 1b-c). It is also surprising finding that the chemistry facilitated by WL pathway, i.e., the reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> to organic one-carbon moieties, is similar to spontaneous geochemical reactions occurring in hydrothermal systems (Seewald et al. 2006; Schrenk et al. 2013; McCollom 2016) (Figure 1a). The WL pathway consists of O<sub>2</sub> sensitive catalysts, as its enzymes containing iron, nickel and sulfur in their center performs electron transfer and catalysis (Russell and Martin 2004; Ragsdale and Pierce 2008). Interestingly, the atomic structure of these enzymes are very similar to minerals found in hydrothermal vents such as greigite (Fe<sub>3</sub>S<sub>4</sub>), highlighting the importance of the catalytic activity of naturally occurring minerals in the presence of proteins (Russell and Martin 2004). Phylogenetic reconstruction of LUCA has shown that it might have deployed this pathway to fix inorganic carbon into biomass (Weiss et al. 2016). Thus, these findings strongly present a plausible starting point for metabolic evolution.

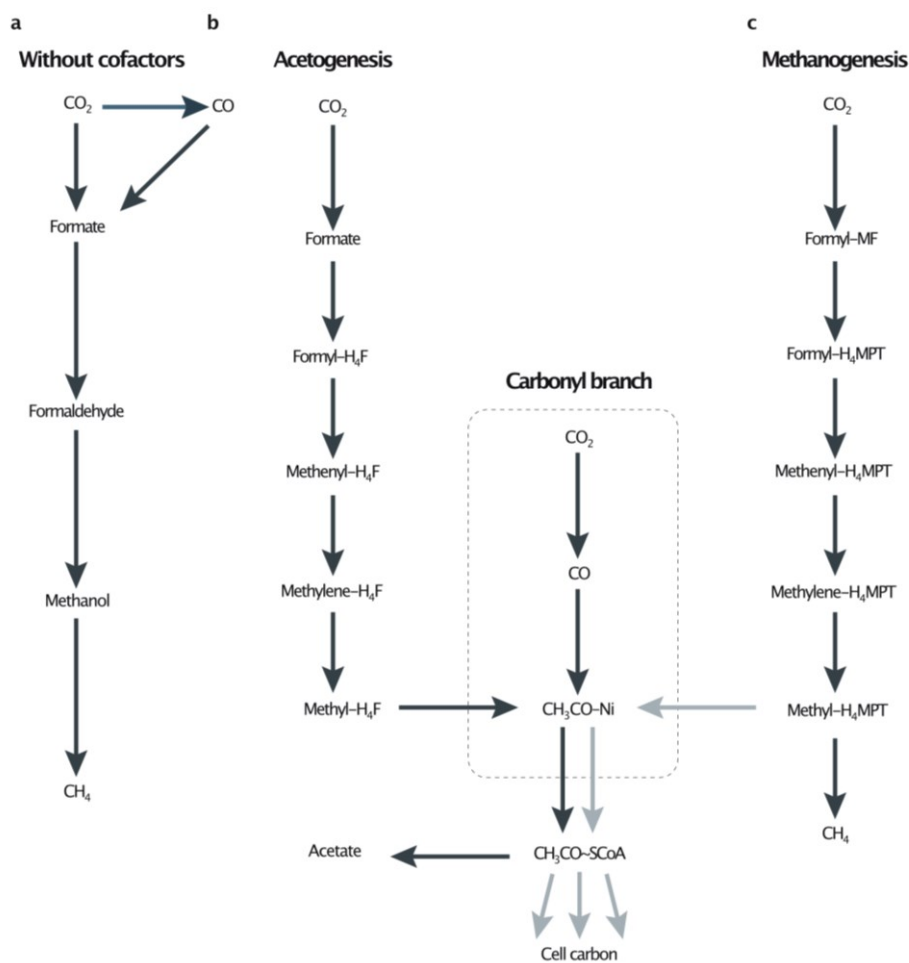


Figure 1. Figure is deciphering the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to methane without cofactors (a) and with enzymes in acetogens (b and c). Figure is taken from (Martin et al. 2008).

### 1.3.2 Reductive tricarboxylic acid cycle (rTCA)

The other carbon fixation pathway associated with the origin of life is the rTCA cycle, known also as reverse Krebs cycle or Arnon-Buchanan cycle (Mall et al. 2018; Kitadai et al. 2017; Wächtershäuser 1990). It has been shown that 6 reactions in the rTCA cycle (out of 11) can be promoted by metals in acidic aqueous solutions (Muchowska et al. 2017). The incomplete version of rTCA, known as horseshoe rTCA, exists in bacteria and archaea, which is performed to build up C4 and C5 intermediates for amino acid and other metabolic products (Martin and Russell 2007; Fuchs 2011; Martin 2020; Wimmer et al. 2021). Nevertheless, this work together with acetyl-CoA pathway and is non-autocatalytic although it contains all five universal metabolic precursors related to origin of life (Muchowska et al. 2019a)

#### **1.4 Nature of dark microbial matter: requirement of quantitative stable isotope probing (qSIP) to quantify carbon fixation in these complex communities**

Microbes are the most abundant living organisms on Earth. Microbes can be found in any habitable environment on Earth because they had an immense amount of time to diversify on Earth without having the third domain of life, eukaryotes. It is also the fact that eukaryotes emerged on Earth which is explained by endosymbiotic theory (please visit the paper explained in Paper 2 (Orsi et al. 2020b)). However, it is estimated that more than 99% of microbes have not been brought to the laboratory environment in pure cultures (Rappé and Giovannoni 2003; Yarza et al. 2014; Jiao et al. 2021). Thanks to the cultivation-independent technologies such as shotgun metagenomics (Quince et al. 2017), we are able to target whole microbial genomes present in a sample, including the major unexplored portion of microbial diversity, called as Microbial Dark Matter (MDM) (Marcy et al. 2007; Rinke et al. 2013). The microbes that fit into MDM classification, for example in hydrothermal settings, are phyla Thermoprotei, Thaumarchaeota, Aigarchaeota, Aenigmarchaea, Thermotogae, Feravidibacteria and many others without any cultivated representatives (Rinke et al. 2013). It should be kept in mind that MDM may indicate any understudied or uncultured or underexplored lineages which do not possess a cultivated strain in laboratory conditions.

One of the major challenges in microbial ecology is to link the identities of microorganisms to the roles they play in natural environment systems. The study of microorganisms in pure culture reveals their genomic content and potential functions but may not reflect the activities of organisms in their natural communities. Cultivation-independent studies provide community structure (such as 16S rRNA gene-targeted researches) and genomic capability of the microbes living in a particular environment (shotgun metagenomics). Metatranscriptomic and metaproteomic studies give a better understanding of microbial metabolic activity. However, linkage between community members to functional activity in natural environment is often challenging. DNA-SIP is a powerful technique which uses the labeled carbon ( $^{13}\text{C}$ ), nitrogen ( $^{15}\text{N}$ ) or oxygen ( $^{18}\text{O}$ ) substrates to identify the organisms assimilating the provided sources (Neufeld et al. 2007a) and can link the identity and functional activity of specific organisms in natural community.

The labeled substrates incorporate with DNA when cellular growth or nucleotide repair is taking

place. As a result, DNA of an incorporator gets heavier with labeled substrates and can be tracked using density-gradient ultracentrifugation coupled with sequencing of DNA (Neufeld et al. 2007b). Conventional DNA-SIP application (referred as Heavy-SIP in (Youngblut et al. 2018b)) tries to identify the “heavy” and “light” regions after an incubation period. An incorporator is determined if its SSU rRNA exists in the ‘heavy’ fractions but not in the ‘light’ fractions (Radajewski et al. 2003; Lueders et al. 2004). The position of DNA in CsCl density gradient is dependent on one main factor: its buoyant density (BD). BD of a DNA fragment is influenced by G + C content and isotopic composition of its atoms (Youngblut and Buckley 2014). Therefore, selecting ‘heavy’ and ‘light’ regions may create a G + C bias, i.e., high G + C content DNA fragment might be in the heaviest DNA fractions which might be taken into consideration for downstream analysis. Usually, when peaks are determined using DNA quantification of the fractions, the lightest and the heaviest fractions contain minimal DNA concentration; therefore, left out of the analysis. For example, unlabeled DNA with high G+C content tends to shift towards the heavier regions of DNA-SIP experiment and may cause a false positive signal (Chen and Murrell 2010). Therefore, a modification in conventional-SIP method, known as quantitative stable isotope probing (qSIP), was proposed as a robust method (Hungate et al. 2015) which calculates each microbial taxon’s density shift using labeled and unlabeled density fractions. qSIP is a method that can link the identity and functional activity of specific microorganisms in natural communities (Hungate et al. 2015) while providing how much of labeled substrate gets incorporated into a specific taxon’s DNA in terms of atom excess fraction (EAF) which ranges between 0 (no assimilation of the labeled substrate) – 1 (Fully-labeled DNA). In brief, 16S rRNA relative abundances of each taxon are transformed into gene copy number of that taxon using total bacterial 16S rRNA present in each fraction. These normalized 16S rRNA gene copies of each taxon are used to obtain weighted average buoyant densities (WAD) for each taxon in both unlabeled and labeled replicate sets. Triplicates of same experiment (biological replicates) or triplicates of DNA extraction (technical replicates) are required to apply qSIP methodology. Afterwards, the shifts in density caused by labeling incorporation are converted to isotopic enrichment. Assimilators are then determined using the WAD values of each taxon in each unlabeled and labeled dataset using the following formula:

$$A_{CARBONI} = \frac{M_{LABi} - M_{LIGHTi}}{M_{HEAVYMAXi} - M_{LIGHTi}} \cdot (1 - 0.01111233)$$

where  $M_{LABi}$  is the molecular weight of the 16S gene for taxon  $i$  in the labeled treatment,  $M_{LIGHTi}$  is the molecular weight of the 16S gene for taxon  $i$  in the unlabeled treatment, and  $M_{HEAVYMAXi}$  is the theoretical maximum molecular weight of a fully labeled 16S gene with  $^{13}C$ . If the labeled substrate is  $^{18}O$  such as in Chapter 2 of this thesis (Coskun et al. 2019), the multiplier changes to  $(1 - 0.002000429)$ . The lowest detection limit in the density shifts were proposed as 0.0034 to 0.0042  $g/ml^{-1}$  (Hungate et al. 2015). Using the triplicates of calculated excess atom fraction (EAF, A value) from labeled and unlabeled datasets, mean differences in EAFs are resampled with replacement (bootstrapping) to determine 90% confidence intervals (CI). If the lower confidence boundary of a taxon is higher than 0, then that taxon is considered as an assimilator in qSIP. This methodology ensures that density shift of each taxon due to isotopic enrichment is not occurring by chance.

qSIP is not the only methodology that combines high throughput sequencing with SIP. High resolution stable isotope probing (HR-SIP) (Pepe-Ranney et al. 2016a; Pepe-Ranney et al. 2016b) and multi window high resolution stable isotope probing (MW-HR-SIP) (Youngblut et al. 2018b; Barnett et al. 2019) have been also proposed. HR-SIP uses differential abundances between “heavy” fractions of labeled and unlabeled SIP-incubations and MW-HR-SIP considers “heavy” fractions within multiple windows such as 1.70–1.73, 1.72–1.75, 1.74–1.77 g ml<sup>-1</sup> (Youngblut et al. 2018b; Barnett et al. 2019). A simulation study has concluded that qSIP and MW-HR-SIP are more robust and accurate than conventional DNA-SIP techniques (Heavy-SIP) (Youngblut et al. 2018b). qSIP has been shown to have high sensitivity, but creating more false positives than MW-HR-SIP methodology (Youngblut et al. 2018b).

SIP studies can be expensive to apply depending on the experimental design (Angel 2019). There are multiple factors that directly affect the cost of the SIP such as number of replicates, number of fractions, molarity of isotopes used, labor and sequencing (Sieradzki et al. 2020). Number of collected fractions increase the cost, but it is an important factor on DNA-SIP accuracy. It has been also shown that increase in fraction numbers tends to improve the sensitivity in MW-HR-SIP, HR-SIP and qSIP (Youngblut et al. 2018b). In qSIP, number of fractions have been shown to reduce the variance; however, nine density fractions seem to be an optimal trade-off between cost and precision for most of the qSIP applications (Sieradzki et al. 2020). On the other hand, low-biomass samples should be treated more carefully, and 20 fractions are found to provide improved resolution detecting a clear shift in DNA buoyant density between unlabeled and labeled treatments (Unpublished Chapter 4 and 5).

To better understand the microbial ecology of a vast number of uncultured microorganisms in their natural environment, qSIP (Hungate et al. 2015) was used in this dissertation. All in all, qSIP method was selected to elucidate taxon-specific activities driving important cycling of elements in nearly intact communities (Hungate et al. 2015).

## 1.5 Aims of the study

The main goal of this project was to provide experimental and field constraints on ancestral carbon fixation pathways postulated to be remnants of the “Ur-Metabolism” in hypothesized settings where emergence of life might have taken place. To achieve this goal, this dissertation aimed to answer the following specific research questions using the natural samples taken from a possible serpentinization-driven ecosystem in St. Paul’s and St. Peter’s Rocks, shallow-water hydrothermal system in Milos, Greece and tectonically driven thermal waters in Biga peninsula, Turkey:

1. Which organisms utilize the ancient reductive acetyl-CoA pathway and rTCA *in situ*?
2. Do their genomes exhibit ancestral signatures of the acetyl-CoA and rTCA pathways?
3. How does the diversity of life correlate with the surrounding chemistry of the hydrothermal



systems examined in this study?

Aside from these main questions in search of the primordial carbon metabolism utilized by microbes, we tried to unravel the carbon assimilation dynamics in natural communities:

1. What is the effect of hydrogen on the rate of acetate, formate, and bicarbonate assimilation by the microorganisms in a partially serpentinized, possibly active serpentinization-driven ecosystem?
2. What is the effect of bicarbonate concentration on the carbon cycling mediated by chemolithoautotrophs in a thermal water coming to the surface from 750 meters depth? Does bicarbonate concentration directly affect the carbon dynamics of carbon-fixing microbes and favor specific communities?
3. What are the microbial communities living in the thermal waters of the Biga peninsula, Turkey? Is there any compositional difference between the hot springs and deep subsurface wells and can they be correlated to chemical composition of the fluids?

Quantitative stable isotope was used to gain an understanding of microbial carbon cycling with a focus on the genes and pathways hypothesized to be ancient.

## Chapter 2

# Quantifying the effects of hydrogen on carbon assimilation in a seafloor microbial community associated with ultramafic rocks

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## 2.1 Abstract

Thermodynamic models predict that H<sub>2</sub> is energetically favorable for seafloor microbial life, but how H<sub>2</sub> affects anabolic processes in seafloor-associated communities is poorly understood. Here, we used quantitative <sup>13</sup>C DNA stable isotope probing (qSIP) to quantify the effect of H<sub>2</sub> on carbon assimilation by microbial taxa synthesizing <sup>13</sup>C-labeled DNA that are associated with partially serpentinized peridotite rocks from the equatorial Mid-Atlantic Ridge. The rock-hosted seafloor community was an order of magnitude more diverse compared to the seawater community directly above the rocks. With added H<sub>2</sub>, peridotite-associated taxa increased assimilation of <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate and <sup>13</sup>C-acetate into 16S rRNA genes of operational taxonomic units by 146% (±29%) and 55% (±34%), respectively, which correlated with enrichment of H<sub>2</sub>-oxidizing NiFe-hydrogenases encoded in peridotite-associated metagenomes. The effect of H<sub>2</sub> on anabolism was phylogenetically organized, with taxa affiliated with Atribacteria, *Nitrospira*, and Thaumarchaeota exhibiting the most significant increases in <sup>13</sup>C-substrate assimilation in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>. In SIP incubations with added H<sub>2</sub>, an order of magnitude higher number of peridotite rock-associated taxa assimilated <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate, <sup>13</sup>C-acetate, and <sup>13</sup>C-formate compared to taxa that were not associated with peridotites. Collectively, these findings indicate that the unique geochemical nature of the peridotite-hosted ecosystem has selected for H<sub>2</sub>-metabolizing, rock-associated taxa that can increase anabolism under high H<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Because ultramafic rocks are widespread in slow-, and ultraslow-spreading oceanic lithosphere, continental margins, and subduction zones where H<sub>2</sub> is formed in copious amounts, the link between H<sub>2</sub> and carbon assimilation demonstrated here may be widespread within these geological settings.

## 2.2 Introduction

The oxidation of molecular hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>) is an important source of bioavailable energy in anoxic environments, and H<sub>2</sub> represents a key metabolic intermediate in anaerobic syntrophy (Schink 1997; Vignais and Billoud 2007). Recently, aerobic H<sub>2</sub> oxidation was discovered to be widespread amongst microbial “dark matter” (Wolf et al. 2016; Ji et al. 2017; Islam et al. 2020), with many aerobic microbial groups being capable of scavenging trace concentrations of atmospheric H<sub>2</sub> as an energy source (Greening et al. 2016). However, the effects of H<sub>2</sub> on carbon utilization rate in marine microbial communities under low-oxygen conditions are poorly understood. The oxidation of H<sub>2</sub> with O<sub>2</sub> is predicted to be a thermodynamically favorable energy source for peridotite-associated microbial communities over a wide range of temperatures in ultramafic-hosted systems (Amend et al. 2011) and thus has the potential to provide important catabolic energy for seafloor-associated communities that live in the vicinity of a geological H<sub>2</sub> source (Amend et al. 2011; Reveillaud et al. 2016). Indeed, a linkage between H<sub>2</sub> and microbial activity has been demonstrated in several high-temperature hydrothermal settings (Reveillaud et al. 2016; Perner et al. 2013; Schubotz et al. 2015; Fortunato and Huber 2016; McNichol et al. 2018).

To better understand the effects of H<sub>2</sub> on carbon anabolism in seafloor microbial communities associated with ultramafic rocks, we used <sup>13</sup>C quantitative DNA stable isotope probing (qSIP)

(Hungate et al. 2015; Coskun et al. 2018) with  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled bicarbonate, acetate, and formate in  $\text{H}_2$  incubation experiments. The  $^{13}\text{C}$  DNA-qSIP approach identifies microbial taxa that are synthesizing new  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled DNA from the added  $^{13}\text{C}$  substrates, which occurs during genome replication (Tuorto et al. 2014). We applied this method to microbial communities associated with partially serpentinized peridotite mylonite from Saint Peter and Saint Paul Archipelago (Arquipélago de São Pedro e São Paulo, Brazil 'SPSPA') at the equatorial Mid-Atlantic Ridge.

The SPSPA is mainly composed of strongly deformed, partially serpentinized Mg- and Fe-rich (i.e. ultramafic) rocks (Maia et al. 2016). Serpentinization of ultramafic rocks involves the oxidation of ferrous iron in primary minerals to ferric iron in secondary minerals by water which generates abundant  $\text{H}_2$  that can be used to conserve energy by  $\text{H}_2$ -oxidizing microbes (Klein et al. 2020). During a recent expedition to SPSPA (AL170602) onboard the MV ALUCIA in 2017, geochemical evidence for  $\text{H}_2$  formation was found to be recorded in serpentinized rocks and  $\text{H}_2$  is likely generated today at SPSPA through low-temperature aqueous alteration of peridotite, mechanoradical  $\text{H}_2$  formation, or radiolysis (Klein et al. 2020), albeit at slow rates. Thus, we incubated partially serpentinized peridotite from SPSPA with  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate,  $^{13}\text{C}$ -acetate, and  $^{13}\text{C}$ -formate in incubations with and without  $\text{H}_2$ , and then applied qSIP (Coskun et al. 2018; Hungate et al. 2015) to quantify the effects of  $\text{H}_2$  on  $^{13}\text{C}$ -substrate assimilation by specific operational taxonomic units (OTUs) that were associated with the ultramafic rocks.

## 2.3 Material and methods

### 2.3.1 Sampling

Partially serpentinized peridotite (DR541-R3; 00°55.56'N; 29°19.70'W) and bottom seawater samples were collected from a yellowish-brown outcrop using the Deep Rover submersible in July 2017 at 327 m water depth from the northern slope east of the SPSPA, Brazil (M/V Alucia Expedition AL170602, 00°55'N; 29°21'W), a remote group of islets in the equatorial Atlantic Ocean, on the Mid-Atlantic ridge (Fig. 1A). The SPSPA belongs to the Brazilian Exclusive Economic Zone and is located within the Fernando de Noronha Environmental Protection Area. Conductivity, temperature, and density profiles were taken from several stations around the SPSPA to explore ongoing hydrothermal activity which could not be detected. The alteration mineralogy of serpentinized peridotite mylonite and fluid inclusion contents in primary minerals were determined in thin sections using a petrographic microscope and a confocal Raman spectrometer (Horiba LabRAM HR) equipped with a 20 mW 473 nm laser, astigmatic flat field spectrograph with a focal length of 800 mm, and a multichannel air-cooled ( $-70\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) CCD detector.

Seawater was collected from directly above the peridotite rocks using an isobaric gas-tight (IGT) fluid sampler (Seewald et al. 2002). In addition, seawater was collected with a Niskin rosette from three nearby sites (Fig. 1A), two from 300 to 330 m water depth to serve as a background seawater microbial community comparison to the IGT fluids and peridotite rocks collected from dive DR541. Niskin (4–8 L) and IGT (18–75 mL) seawater for the t0 comparisons were filtered onto 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$

polycarbonate filters using a peristaltic pump and frozen immediately at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

Sediments were collected from two nearby sites (Fig. 1A) using the slurp suction sampler onboard the Deep Rover submersible. Sediments were stored in 50 mL falcon tubes at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  until DNA extraction.

### **2.3.2 DNA extraction**

DNA was extracted from the seawater samples (frozen filters) using a protocol described previously (Orsi et al. 2016). In order to avoid cross-sample contamination with the rock samples, DNA was extracted from 10 to 12 g of rock samples on a separate day (Fig. 2A), in a laminar flow clean bench with pipettors that were autoclaved immediately before use (to remove contaminating DNA on the pipettors). DNA was extracted from three separate peridotite rock samples (subsamples of the same rock). These t0 rock samples were collected from the same dive (DR541-R3; Fig. 1B) where peridotite rocks were sampled for the qSIP incubations (Fig. 1A). In addition, two separate carbonate rock replicates (subsamples of the same rock) were collected from dive DR540 (DR540-R3 and R4) (Fig. 1A). All t0 rock samples were stored in 50 mL RNA/DNA clean falcon tubes (Fig. 2A), and DNA was extracted according to a previously published protocol (Vuillemin et al. 2019). The only deviation from the previous protocol was that silica glass beads from three Lysing Matrix E tubes (MP Biomedicals) were directly added to the 50 mL falcon tubes containing the rocks (Fig. 2A), which were homogenized with 10 mL C1 extraction buffer (Vuillemin et al. 2019).

The t0 peridotite rocks (DR541-R3) serve as a reference for the in situ peridotite-associated microbial community and allow comparison against the “rock-free” community from the seawater samples. Moreover, because the t0 peridotite rocks (DR541-R3) were collected from the same location as the peridotites that were used for setting up the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -SIP incubations, we could identify “rock-associated” OTUs (detected in the peridotite t0 samples) that became labeled in the qSIP incubations that were, or were not, detected in seawater. For DNA extraction from sediments, we used the same protocol that we applied for the carbonate and peridotite rock samples, with the main difference that only 0.5 g of sediment was extracted in 2 mL lysing matrix E tubes with 1 mL of C1 extraction buffer (Vuillemin et al. 2019). Such a relatively small volume was required given the orders of magnitude higher microbial abundance in the sediment samples compared to the rocks (Fig. 2B).

### **2.3.3 Experimental setup for SIP incubations**

For incubation experiments, the outermost ~3 cm of rock sample DR541-R3 was carefully removed with a sterile hammer to retrieve the rock interior. The rock interior was subsequently crushed into mm-sized fragments on a sterile surface (ethanol washed) in a fume hood for incubations. For the inocula in the SIP incubations, 2 g of crushed rock fragments from the interior of the peridotites were placed into 20 mL gas-tight glass vials which had been heated to  $450^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 10 h prior to use. In addition, 10 mL sterile-filtered seawater (using  $0.2\ \mu\text{m}$  polycarbonate filters) was added to each vial containing the crushed peridotite rocks. Therefore, the living cells in the SIP incubations should

be primarily rock-associated and derived from the interior of the peridotites, as sterile filtration should have removed cells  $>0.2 \mu\text{m}$  in size from the added seawater. However, it is possible that some ultra-small seawater cells  $<0.2 \mu\text{m}$  could have passed through and made it into the SIP incubations.

Each vial was amended with either 10 mM sodium- $^{13}\text{C}$  bicarbonate (99%  $^{13}\text{C}$ -content, Sigma-Aldrich, Darmstadt, Germany), 2 mM sodium- $^{13}\text{C}$  acetate or 10 mM sodium- $^{13}\text{C}$  formate (99%  $^{13}\text{C}$ -content, Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Andover, MA, USA) and crimp-sealed using KOH-washed butyl stoppers (Oremland et al. 1987). We acknowledge that the high concentrations of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -acetate and  $^{13}\text{C}$ -formate that were added are orders of magnitude higher compared with the measured concentrations of acetate and formate in fluids venting from the Lost City Hydrothermal field (Lang et al. 2010). All glass vials were crimp-sealed with a butyl rubber stopper creating gas-tight conditions and the atmosphere was replaced with nitrogen gas ( $\text{N}_2$ ) for 10 min to create low oxygen conditions. Afterward, one set of flasks was amended with  $\text{H}_2$  added to the headspace (1.5 bar), with a second set as a control that did not receive  $\text{H}_2$ . We acknowledge that these concentrations are higher than those at most hydrothermal systems (Amend et al. 2011).

Although the  $\text{O}_2$  was not measured in the incubations, we assume dissolved oxygen concentration was reduced down ca. 10-fold compared to the ambient concentration of ca.  $120 \mu\text{M}$  by purging the incubation medium for a minimum of 10 min with  $\text{N}_2$  (Butler et al. 1994). The resulting low  $\text{O}_2$  conditions of assumed 10–15  $\mu\text{M}$  were likely further drawn down by aerobic respiration during the course of the experiment (Ortega-Arbulú et al. 2019).

As is common practice for all DNA-SIP studies, control vials were also prepared with the same unlabeled carbon sources (referred to as “unlabeled control”) to compare the extent of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeling from the labeled incubations. The glass vials containing unlabeled control and  $^{13}\text{C}$ -substrates were incubated at room temperature (ca.  $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) terminated after 35 h and stored at  $-60 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for onshore analysis. DNA was extracted from 1 g of slurry in triplicate using the same method as described above (Vuillemin et al. 2019) and quantified fluorometrically using Qubit 3.0 fluorometer (Invitrogen, Eugene, OR, USA).

### **2.3.4 Density gradient centrifugation and gradient fraction**

DNA samples were prepared for density gradient centrifugation according to previously defined protocols for qSIP (Hungate et al. 2015; Coskun et al. 2018). DNA of density fractions was resuspended with 30  $\mu\text{l}$  molecular-grade (DEPC-treated) water and quantified fluorometrically using a Qubit fluorometer.

### **2.3.5 Quantitative PCR (qPCR)**

Universal primers targeting the V4 hypervariable region of 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes were used in qPCR to determine density shifts in the peak DNA of buoyant density (BD) for each incubation. We used a version of the 515F primer with a single-base change (in bold) to increase the

coverage of archaeal groups (515F-Y, 5'-GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA (Parada et al. 2016)). qPCR was carried out as described previously (Coskun et al. 2019). 16S rRNA gene quantities of the density fractions were plotted against their corresponding densities and 10 fractions (on average) from each replicate set were selected for sequencing (Fig. S1; gray shaded area). Two 16S rRNA gene PCR amplicons from each density fraction (technical replicates to reduce PCR bias) were pooled and subjected to dual-indexed barcoded sequencing of 16S rRNA gene amplicons on the MiniSeq (Illumina) as described previously (Pichler et al. 2018).

### 2.3.6 Bioinformatic and qSIP analysis

The MiniSeq reads were quality trimmed and assembled using USEARCH version 11.0.667 with the default parameters (Edgar 2010) resulting in 6.8 million quality checked V4 reads. Reads were then de novo clustered at 97% identity using UPARSE; OTUs represented by a single sequence were discarded (Edgar 2013). Taxonomic assignments were generated by QIIME 1.9.1 (Caporaso et al. 2010) using the implemented BLAST method against the SILVA rRNA gene database release 132 (Quast et al. 2013). The raw OTU table consisted of 10,654 OTUs which were further quality-filtered. The level of contamination in each density fraction for qSIP analysis was determined using previously sequenced DNA sequences from dust samples collected from three different laboratories in our building where the samples are processed (Pichler et al. 2018). If the total number reads per OTU in the samples was 10 times greater compared to that of contaminant sequence reads, the OTU was considered to be endemic to the sample. 1662 contaminant-related OTUs such as *Pseudomonas*, *Ralstonia*, *Variovorax*, or *Streptococcus* (Salter et al. 2014) were deleted based on comparing contaminant sample sequence reads to the samples, comprising 2.34% of the whole 16S rRNA gene dataset (188,273 sequence reads out of 8,046,165). Only OTUs having >12 sequences in total in each replicate (summed across all density fractions) were selected for further study since low abundance taxa cause artificial variations in qSIP calculations (Morrissey et al. 2016). Intermediate files in data removal of contaminants, quality filtering, and detailed explanations of the intermediate files can be found in the following data repository: <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13341443.v1>.

Excess atomic fraction  $^{13}\text{C}$  (EAF) values were calculated for the 16S rRNA genes corresponding to OTUs according to a previously described study (Hungate et al. 2015) using a qSIP workflow embedded in the HTS-SIP R package (Youngblut et al. 2018a). To calculate the bootstrap confidence intervals (CI) for significant isotope incorporation, bootstrap replicates ( $n = 1000$ ) were run with the HTS-SIP R package; an OTU was considered as a  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilator if the lower boundary of CI was above the 0% EAF cutoff (Hungate et al. 2015). Statistical analyses and plots were performed using R.Studio Version 3.3.0 (Team and Others 2015).

qSIP measurements of OTU-specific  $^{13}\text{C}$ -substrate assimilation with and without  $\text{H}_2$  allowed us to test whether the activity of microbial communities in the presence of  $\text{H}_2$  was significantly restricted to specific phylogenetic clades (e.g., “phylogenetic signal” (Morrissey et al. 2016)). Pagel’s  $\lambda$  and Blomberg’s  $K$  were calculated as two independent indices of the phylogenetic signal (Blomberg et al. 2003; Pagel 1999): shared traits (e.g.,  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilation patterns) in the context of evolutionary

history (e.g., 16S rRNA gene phylogenetic relation).

### 2.3.7 Metagenomic analysis of rock, seawater, and SIP samples

Given the shifts in buoyant density of 16S rRNA genes in the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -SIP incubations (Fig. S1), we produced metagenomes from “heavy” fractions of the density gradients that indicated  $^{13}\text{C}$  labeling (Fig. S1). The DNA contained within the density fraction for each of these “heavy” metagenomes was chosen for metagenomic shotgun sequencing based on the region of the CsCl gradient that exhibited a peak in the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -substrate incubation that had a higher CsCl density compared to the unlabeled control experiment (Fig. S1). Metagenomic libraries were prepared using Nextera XT DNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina) and following the manual provided by the manufacturer with minor modifications. The starting concentration of genomic DNA could not be set to 0.2 ng as suggested by the manufacturer’s manual due to low DNA content in the labeled SIP fractions. Instead, the PCR program in the amplification step of the fragmented DNA was increased from 12 to 15 cycles. Metagenomic libraries from the rock and seawater t0 samples were prepared from the extracted DNA (see above) with unique barcodes using the same Nextera XT kit, were diluted to 1 nM, and pooled together for sequencing on the MiniSeq (Illumina) platform.

Paired-end reads were trimmed and assembled into contigs using CLC Genomics Workbench 9.5.4 (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), using a word size of 20, bubble size of 50, and a minimum contig length of 300 nucleotides. Reads were then mapped to the contigs using the following parameters (mismatch penalty, 3; insertion penalty, 3; deletion penalty, 3; minimum alignment length, 50% of reading length; minimum percent identity, 95%). Coverage values were obtained from the number of reads mapped to a contig divided by its length (i.e., average coverage). This protocol does not assemble rRNA genes (Orsi et al. 2020a); thus, results are only discussed in terms of protein-encoding genes.

For annotating putative functions of ORFs in metagenomes from particular “higher-level” taxonomic groups of microorganisms, we applied a previously published bioinformatics pipeline (Orsi et al. 2020a). This pipeline extracts protein-encoding ORFs from de novo-assembled contigs using FragGeneScan v. 1.30 (Rho et al. 2010), and functionally annotates ORFs against a large aggregated database (“MetaProt”) (Orsi et al. 2020a) using DIAMOND version 0.9.24 (Buchfink et al. 2015). The MetaProt database contained predicted proteins from all protist, fungal, bacterial, and archaeal genomes (and MAGs) in the JGI and NCBI databases as of January 2021. The MetaProt database (Orsi et al. 2020a) also contains ORFs from all of the transcriptomes of microbial eukaryotes from the MMETS project (Keeling et al. 2014). The MetaProt database is available as a single 32 GB amino acid fasta file on the LMU Open Data website (<https://data.ub.uni-muenchen.de/183/>). Cutoff values for assigning hits to specific taxa were performed at a minimum bit score of 50, the minimum amino acid similarity of 60, and an alignment length of 50 residues. All scripts and code used to produce the analysis have been posted on GitHub (<https://github.com/williamorsi/MetaProt-database>). This approach assigns ORFs to higher-level taxonomic groups (Orsi et al. 2020a). As is the case in all metagenomic studies, the incomplete nature of genomes in databases, together with the lower representation of sequenced genomes from candidate clades than from cultured ones, makes



it likely that our pipeline misses annotation of ORFs that are derived from as-yet-unsequenced genomes.

The 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequences and metagenomic sequence data were entered in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive under BioProject ID PRJNA679196. The CTD data, metagenomic dataset, and intermediate files to produce qSIP results were deposited under [https://figshare.com/authors/\\_mer\\_Coskun/9725927](https://figshare.com/authors/_mer_Coskun/9725927).

### 2.3.8 Assessing biases in metagenomes from density fractions containing $^{13}\text{C}$ -enriched DNA

Sequencing metagenomic DNA from only a single  $^{13}\text{C}$ -enriched fraction (Fig. S1) may be biased due to (Schink 1997) low GC genomes that might not be detected in  $^{13}\text{C}$ -enriched fraction even though they highly incorporate the labeled source, and (Vignais and Billoud 2007) abundant organisms can sometimes be found in all fractions irrespectively of labeling (Sieradzki et al. 2020; Youngblut et al. 2018a). However, many abundant  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled OTUs were determined with statistical significance via qSIP related to *Marinobacter*, *Alteromonas*, *Thaumarchaeota*, 'Ca. Rokubacteria', or Nitrospinae, were represented in the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -metagenomes. The overlapping taxa labeled in qSIP and metagenomes from  $^{13}\text{C}$ -enriched SIP fractions indicate that the metagenomic sequences obtained from the selected SIP fractions are derived to a large extent from taxa that were  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled.

### 2.3.9 Phylogenetic analyses

For phylogenetic analyses of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled 16S rRNA genes, OTUs which were at least occurring in one of the experiments were selected for alignment with MUSCLE (Edgar 2004) using SeaView (Gouy et al. 2010). The resulting fasta file was imported into W-IQ-TREE (Trifinopoulos et al. 2016) with an option to select the best phylogenetic model using Bayesian criterion, which resulted in TIM3e + R10 algorithm using ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al. 2017). The phylogenetic tree was visualized and edited using iTOL (Letunic and Bork 2016). Statistical analyses and plots were performed using R.Studio Version 3.3.0 (Team and Others 2015). Pagel's  $\lambda$  (Pagel 1999) and Blomberg's K (Blomberg et al. 2003) tests for significantly non-random phylogenetic distributions of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -utilizers from qSIP were calculated using the phylosignal R package (Keck et al. 2016).

For phylogenetic analyses of ORFs from metagenomes with similarity to *HypE*, *nirS*, and *coxL* based on BLASTp searches against the MetaProt database (Orsi et al. 2020a), ORFs were aligned against their top BLASTp hits using MUSCLE (Edgar 2004). Phylogenetic analysis of the resulting amino acid alignments of the predicted proteins was conducted in SeaView using RAxML (Stamatakis 2006) with BLOSUM62 as the evolutionary model and 100 bootstrap replicates. The resulting phylogenetic trees were displayed as unrooted cladograms using FigTree (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>).

## 2.4 Results

### 2.4.1 Rock description

Thin section petrography and Raman analysis revealed that rock sample DR541-R3 (used as the inoculum for the qSIP incubations) is a partially serpentinized peridotite mylonite that is chiefly composed of olivine and orthopyroxene, minor amounts of clinopyroxene, and traces of Cr-spinel (Fig. 1D). Primary minerals are partially altered to serpentine, magnetite, tremolite, calcite, and aragonite which chiefly occur in veins cutting across the mylonite matrix. We observed methane-rich fluid inclusions at other locations at SPSPA but not at the sampling location (Fig. 1D). For comparison, we obtained thin sections of two additional samples from the same dive (samples DR541-R1 and DR541-R4) which revealed structural and alteration patterns similar to those of DR541-R3 suggesting all three samples experienced extensive ductile and brittle deformation followed by serpentinization.

#### Microbial abundance and diversity of the ultramafic-rock associated community

The concentration of 16S rRNA genes from the peridotite rock samples was  $2.6 (\pm 2) \times 10^4$  copies per g of rock, compared to  $7 (\pm 1) \times 10^4$  and  $0.5 (\pm 0.06) \times 10^4$  16S rRNA gene copies per mL seawater collected with the IGT fluid samplers and Niskin rosette, respectively (Fig. 2B). qPCR quantification of 16S rRNA gene copies from the frozen peridotite rock samples showed cycle threshold (Ct) values ranging between 25 and 30 cycles, which strongly indicates that our amplified 16S rRNA genes are derived from in situ microbes associated with the rocks as opposed to contamination because all contamination controls (extraction blanks and qPCR no template controls) consistently had Ct values >35. The Chao diversity index based on the 16S rRNA gene data shows that the rock-associated community is significantly more diverse (two-sided T-test:  $P < 0.0001$ ) compared to the seawater communities (Fig. 3B). 16S rRNA gene data also shows that the microbial community composition between the peridotite-associated and the seawater communities was significantly different (Analysis of Similarity [ANOSIM]  $R: 0.87$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ), with approximately two-thirds of all detected OTUs being found on the peridotite rock samples and not in any seawater samples (Fig. 3C). The peridotite-associated communities included taxa that are common to hydrothermal (Meier et al. 2019) and ultramafic rock habitats (Lecoeuvre et al. 2021; Mason et al. 2009) including Nitrospirae, Rokubacteria, Entotheonellaeota, Gemmatimonadetes, and Alphaproteobacteria (Fig. 3A). These comparisons reveal a unique microbial community inhabiting the peridotite rocks compared to the seawater that was collected directly above these rocks with the IGT fluid samplers.

### 2.4.2 Identifying $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeling for qSIP

$^{13}\text{C}$ -labeling of 16S rRNA genes (defined by a shift in peak DNA buoyant density) was observed in all incubations, with average shifts in the peak  $^{13}\text{C}$ -DNA buoyant densities compared to control-incubations between  $0.0018 \pm 0.0037$  and  $0.0279 \pm 0.0076$  g ml $^{-1}$  (Fig. S1). This highlights biological variability in  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilation in our replicate treatments, but despite this variability, the average density shift in the replicate treatments shows a clear trend of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -enriched DNA from 16S rRNA genes compared to the unlabeled controls (Fig. S1). Therefore,  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeling of microbes synthesizing new DNA occurred in all incubations. The use of replicates in qSIP allows for statistically constrained estimations of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilation in all detectable OTUs (Hungate et al. 2015). Namely,  $^{13}\text{C}$ -qSIP allows

for the calculation of the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -excess atomic fraction (EAF) for all detectable OTUs within a microbial community, together with a confidence interval (CI) that provides to test statistical significance for OTU-specific  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilation (Hungate et al. 2015). We thus applied the qSIP protocol to estimate the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -EAF (with CI) for all detected OTUs within each experimental treatment.

#### **2.4.3 Significance of $\text{H}_2$ on the phylogenetic organization of $^{13}\text{C}$ -utilizing taxa**

Phylogenetic signal analyses showed that  $\text{H}_2$  had a statistically significant (non-random) effect on the phylogenetic organization of the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilating taxa in each of the three substrates tested (Table 1). Thus, the effect of  $\text{H}_2$  on increased  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeling of clades with  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate and  $^{13}\text{C}$ -acetate, and to a lesser extent  $^{13}\text{C}$ -formate, was statistically significant in terms of the non-random distribution of specific taxa that increased their anabolism with added  $\text{H}_2$ .

With added  $\text{H}_2$ , OTUs increased assimilation of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate and  $^{13}\text{C}$ -acetate on average by 146% ( $\pm 29\%$ ) and 55% ( $\pm 34\%$ ), respectively (Fig. 4). Moreover, within the peridotite rock-associated OTUs, 54 genus-level taxonomic groups were  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled in qSIP incubations containing added  $\text{H}_2$  (Fig. 5). This was more than an order of magnitude higher compared to seawater-specific  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled taxa, as well as seafloor-associated  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled taxa not detected on peridotite rocks (only detected on carbonate rocks and sediments) (Fig. 5).

#### **2.4.4 The effects of $\text{H}_2$ on bicarbonate assimilation**

Compared to controls ( $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate incubations that did not receive  $\text{H}_2$ )  $\text{H}_2$  addition was correlated with an overall increase in  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilation by OTUs with EAF values increasing on average from  $0.13 \pm 0.009$  to  $0.32 \pm 0.051$  ( $146 \pm 29\%$  increase) (Fig. 4). Most of these OTUs were rock-associated (Fig. 5).  $\text{H}_2$  addition coincided with a two-fold drop in  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled Gammaproteobacterial OTUs (Fig. 4). In contrast, the abundance and  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate assimilation (EAF) of Thaumarchaeal OTUs in the presence of  $\text{H}_2$  increased to 7.79% and  $0.38 \pm 0.34$ , respectively (Fig. 4), which were associated with the peridotite rocks (Fig. 5).  $\text{H}_2$  addition coincided with a  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate assimilating peridotite-associated OTU affiliated with the Atribacteria (JS1 clade) having the highest EAF of all OTUs in the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate incubations amended with  $\text{H}_2$  (EAF: 0.87) (Fig. 4). In total, 85% of the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate assimilating taxa were associated with the peridotite rocks (Fig. 5).

#### **2.4.5 Effects of $\text{H}_2$ on acetate assimilation**

In  $^{13}\text{C}$ -acetate incubations with added  $\text{H}_2$ , the EAF value per OTU increased from  $0.27 \pm 0.010$  to  $0.42 \pm 0.011$  ( $55 \pm 34\%$  increase) relative to control incubations that did not receive  $\text{H}_2$  (Fig. 4). Gammaproteobacteria and Thaumarchaeota had the highest number of OTUs that increased  $^{13}\text{C}$ -acetate assimilation in the presence of  $\text{H}_2$  (Fig. 4). The genera showing the highest  $^{13}\text{C}$ -acetate assimilation in the presence of  $\text{H}_2$  were *Arcobacter* (0.91 EAF), *Marinobacterium* (0.54 EAF), *Nitrosomonas* (0.49 EAF), *Alteromonas* (0.42 EAF), Nitrosopumilaceae (0.4 EAF), and *Nitrospira* (0.14 EAF) (Fig. 4). All of the acetate assimilating Nitrosopumilaceae (Thaumarchaeota) and *Nitrospira* taxa were peridotite-associated (Fig. 5).

#### 2.4.6 Effects of H<sub>2</sub> on formate assimilation

In contrast to acetate and bicarbonate incubations, OTUs assimilating <sup>13</sup>C-formate in the presence of H<sub>2</sub> had on average lower EAF values compared to the control <sup>13</sup>C-formate qSIP incubations that did not receive H<sub>2</sub> (Figs. 4 and 5) (average  $0.32 \pm 0.01$ – $0.14 \pm 0.02$  EAF;  $139 \pm 11\%$  decrease). This shows that the utilization of formate by most microbial groups was reduced in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>. The composition of the community in the H<sub>2</sub>-supplemented formate incubation changed substantially, with OTUs belonging to the Planctomycetes (Family Pirellulaceae) and Entotheonellaeota exhibiting the highest EAF values from <sup>13</sup>C-formate (up to 0.89 EAF) (Figs. 4 and 5). All of the Planctomycetes and Entotheonellaeota formate assimilating taxa were associated with the peridotite rocks (Fig. 5).

#### 2.4.7 Functional gene diversity in peridotite-associated clades assimilating <sup>13</sup>C-substrates

In the heavy metagenomes, approximately one-third of ORFs were associated with peridotite rocks and not with seawater (Fig. 6A). This is evidence of a rock-associated community with unique protein-encoding gene content that was assimilating <sup>13</sup>C. Within the heavy metagenomes, diversity of carbon monoxide dehydrogenase (*coxL*: Fig. 6B), H<sub>2</sub>-oxidizing NiFe-hydrogenase assembly proteins (*HypE*: Fig. 7A), and dissimilatory nitrite reductase (*nirS*: Fig. 7B) all show bootstrap supported clades that contained ORFs from the heavy metagenomes and peridotite metagenomes. The majority (>75%) of these clades did not include any ORFs from seawater metagenomes (Figs. 6 and 7). This indicates that most of the *coxL*, *HypE* and *nirS* encoding organisms that assimilated the <sup>13</sup>C-substrates in the SIP incubations were associated primarily with the peridotites.

In the peridotite rock metagenomes, there was an increased relative abundance of ORFs encoding *nirS* and NiFe-hydrogenase assembly proteins involved in H<sub>2</sub> oxidation (*HypABCDEF*) (Koch et al. 2014) compared to Niskins and IGT collected water, which was consistent across biological replicates (Fig. 7C and D). Relative abundance of *HypABCDEF* and *nirS* encoding ORFs in heavy metagenomes from SIP-incubations were also higher compared to seawater metagenomes (Fig. 7C and D).

Phylogenetic analysis of the carbon monoxide dehydrogenase large subunit (*coxL*) encoding ORFs reveals nine major bootstrap-supported *coxL* clades that include ORFs from heavy metagenomes and peridotite rock metagenomes but did not contain any *coxL* ORFs from seawater metagenomes (Fig. 6B). The peridotite-associated *coxL* clades contain a four-fold higher number (6 compared to 25) of heavy ORFs compared to seawater-associated *coxL* clades, and were affiliated with *Labrenzia*, *Pelomicrobium*, *Denitrobaculum*, *Nitrolancetus*, *Litorilnea*, uncultivated Actinobacteria, SAR116 clade, and 'Ca. Rokubacteria' (Fig. 6B).

## 2.5 Discussion

The increased diversity of the peridotite-associated community compared to seawater microbial communities (Fig. 3B) is consistent with prior studies of seafloor communities associated with

basaltic rocks (Santelli et al. 2008). The majority of taxa that assimilated  $^{13}\text{C}$  in the presence of  $\text{H}_2$  were derived from this diverse peridotite-associated community as opposed to being specific to seawater (Fig. 5). Therefore, the peridotite-associated communities are enriched with the capability to utilize  $\text{H}_2$  to increase their carbon assimilation from  $\text{CO}_2$ , acetate, and formate. Since  $\text{H}_2$ , acetate, and formate are formed during serpentinization (Schrenk et al. 2013), our results highlight the importance of  $\text{H}_2$  in influencing carbon cycling in rock-hosted microbial communities.

The presence of magnetite in the serpentinized rock matrix suggests that temperatures exceeded  $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  when rocks underwent serpentinization (Klein et al. 2014). Because its formation requires the oxidation of ferrous iron originally contained in primary minerals to ferric iron in magnetite with water as the oxidizing agent,  $\text{H}_2$  was generated during serpentinization of mylonite at St. Paul's Rocks. Because the mylonite was only partially serpentinized, it is likely that low-temperature aqueous alteration at SPSPA is currently ongoing—albeit at slow rates—which would be a source of  $\text{H}_2$  for the peridotite-hosted communities. Unlike peridotite-hosted alkaline hydrothermal vents with a focused flow such as the Atlantis Massif (Kelley et al. 2005), we found no firm evidence of  $\text{H}_2$  anomalies in the water column at SPSPA indicating that any  $\text{H}_2$  had already been oxidized in the water column that has ca.  $100\text{ }\mu\text{M O}_2$  (Fig. 1C). However,  $\text{H}_2$  in diffuse fluids emanating from the seafloor of SPSPA could be oxidized by the rock-associated seafloor microbes (Figs. 3C, 5) before diffusing into the oxidized water column, as indicated previously by geochemical evidence in diffuse vents from the Juan de Fuca Ridge (Wankel et al. 2011).

### **2.5.1 Carbon assimilation in an ultramafic rock-associated community**

The observation that most  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilating taxa were peridotite-associated (Fig. 5), indicates that many taxa within this relatively diverse community (Fig. 3B) have a high affinity for the added substrates compared to the seawater microbes living directly above the rocks. Gammaproteobacteria dominate the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled taxa that were detected in seawater, but the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilating taxa detected only in the seafloor samples were by comparison more diverse and instead consist of Thaumarchaea, Rokubacteria, Planctomycetes, Acidobacteria, Entotheonellaeota, Deltaproteobacteria, and Gemmatimonadaceae (Fig. 5). The qSIP results show that the effect of  $\text{H}_2$  on increased carbon assimilation is phylogenetically organized in this unique rock-associated community, with specific peridotite-associated taxa assimilating more carbon in the presence of  $\text{H}_2$  compared to seawater-associated taxa (Fig. 5).

The phylogenetic signal analysis based on Blomberg's  $K$  (Blomberg et al. 2003) reveals  $\text{H}_2$  utilization as a shared trait in  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilating taxa, compared to the incubations that did not receive  $\text{H}_2$  (Table 1, Fig. S2). This significant phylogenetic signal within  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilating taxa in the presence of added  $\text{H}_2$  coincides with an order of magnitude higher number of peridotite rock associated taxa having an increased anabolism in the presence of added  $\text{H}_2$ , compared to taxa not detected on the ultramafic rocks (Fig. 5). These relations point to ongoing  $\text{H}_2$  production via low-temperature aqueous alteration of peridotite (Fig. 1D) which supports a unique peridotite-associated community with higher diversity (Fig. 3B) that is relatively enriched with the ability to metabolize  $\text{H}_2$  compared to the overlying seawater communities (Fig. 7C).

### 2.5.2 Differential effects of H<sub>2</sub> on the assimilation of acetate, bicarbonate, and formate

The increased <sup>13</sup>C-assimilation with added H<sub>2</sub> (Figs. 4 and 5) is supported by a higher relative abundance of the *HypABCDEF* [NiFe]-hydrogenase locus in heavy metagenomes from H<sub>2</sub>-amended incubations (Fig. 7C). The *HypABCDEF* locus is responsible for the maturation of NiFe-hydrogenase in bacteria and aerobic H<sub>2</sub> oxidation [54]. The *HypE* ORFs within clades exhibiting <sup>13</sup>C assimilation were affiliated with uncultured Nitrospinae bacteria, *Nitrosococcus*, '*Ca. Entotheonella*', and *Alteromonas* (Fig. 7A), which were all groups identified in qSIP as being rock-associated with increased carbon assimilation in the presence of H<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 5). The higher carbon assimilation in the presence of added H<sub>2</sub> in several rock-associated groups (Fig. 5) are consistent with H<sub>2</sub> oxidation via *HypABCDEF*, and could be related to higher H<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the peridotite ecosystem.

The correlation of added H<sub>2</sub> with a decreased formate assimilation by most OTUs (Fig. 4) is possibly due to inhibition of the hydrogenase unit of formate hydrogen lyase that is caused by high H<sub>2</sub> concentrations (McDowall et al. 2014). This has been observed in previous SIP studies, where H<sub>2</sub> had an inhibitory effect on formate assimilation in hot springs (Schubotz et al. 2015). However, microcosm experiments with H<sub>2</sub> and formate in terrestrial alkaline fluids in the Samail Ophiolite showed that under high H<sub>2</sub> concentrations (20%, excess atmospheric pressure) certain methanogens increase methane production from formate, presumably via formate dehydrogenase (Fones et al. 2021). Therefore, in serpentinization settings the inhibition or stimulation of formate metabolism by increased H<sub>2</sub> concentrations is likely to be dependent on the redox potential of the environment.

### 2.5.3 Atribacteria exhibit H<sub>2</sub>-dependent carbon fixation

Of the all OTUs that had enhanced carbon assimilation in H<sub>2</sub>-amended <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate incubations, a single rock-associated OTU affiliated with Atribacteria had the highest EAF value (0.87; Fig. 4). This fits with the presence of an H<sub>2</sub>-dependent CO<sub>2</sub> fixation pathway (Wood–Ljungdahl pathway) encoded in Atribacteria genomes (Carr et al. 2015; Nobu et al. 2016). The labeling of the Atribacteria OTU with <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate was not observed in the absence of H<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 4), indicating that H<sub>2</sub> is needed to fix bicarbonate by this taxon.

The same rock-associated Atribacteria OTU also incorporated <sup>13</sup>C-acetate, but only in the absence of H<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 4). However, the amount of <sup>13</sup>C-acetate assimilated by this OTU was ca. 50% less compared to its assimilation of <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>. These results possibly reflect the reversibility of the Wood–Ljungdahl pathway encoded in the Atribacteria genomes (Carr et al. 2015; Nobu et al. 2016). For example, when H<sub>2</sub> is present Atribacteria use the Wood–Ljungdahl pathway in the forward direction to fix CO<sub>2</sub> and produce either acetyl-CoA or acetate (Schuchmann and Müller 2016). However, when H<sub>2</sub> is not present the activity of acetate kinase may be reversed and acetate is assimilated (Schuchmann and Müller 2016). In line with our finding, it has been recently discussed that Atribacteria could use WLP either in catabolic or anabolic directions in deep seafloor sediments (Vuillemin et al. 2020).

Atribacteria typically dominates CH<sub>4</sub>-rich anoxic environments such as gas hydrate-containing sediments, and methanogenic meromictic lakes (Rinke et al. 2013). Since our sampled environment was oxic at the time of sampling (Fig. 1C), it seems that some Atribacteria is able to persist under these conditions and increase their carbon fixation activity upon the addition of H<sub>2</sub>.

#### 2.5.4 Effects of H<sub>2</sub> on carbon assimilation by nitrogen-cycling Bacteria and Archaea

OTUs belonging to the ammonia-oxidizing Thaumarchaeota (Nitrosopumilaceae) had a significant increase in EAF values in the presence of added H<sub>2</sub> in the <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate and <sup>13</sup>C-acetate incubations (Fig. 4). All of these OTUs were peridotite-associated (Fig. 5). To our knowledge, there are no experimental studies with pure cultures demonstrating that Thaumarchaea catabolize H<sub>2</sub>. However, the genomes of some ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) encode NiFe hydrogenase genes that may potentially be involved in H<sub>2</sub> oxidation (Bryant and Adams 1989; Berney et al. 2014; Kwan et al. 2015; Daebeler et al. 2018) which might explain the increased <sup>13</sup>C-assimilation of Thaumarchaea in the presence of H<sub>2</sub> seen here.

The increased assimilation of <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate and <sup>13</sup>C-acetate by rock-associated Thaumarchaeal OTUs in H<sub>2</sub> amended incubations with (Figs. 4, 5) indicates many of the AOA used H<sub>2</sub> to increase their mixotrophic activity. Mixotrophy by AOA is a well-known feature (Qin et al. 2014; Seyler et al. 2018), and our data indicate it can be increased in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>. However, some AOA have higher ammonia oxidation rates at lower oxygen concentrations (Bristow et al. 2016), and the H<sub>2</sub> amended incubations should have promoted lower oxygen conditions. It is thus possible that higher activity in some rock-associated Thaumarchaeota was further stimulated by reduced oxygen concentrations. Additional experiments are required to determine whether the increased <sup>13</sup>C assimilation of mixotrophic AOA seen here is due to H<sub>2</sub> oxidation, low oxygen, or a combination of both.

Nitrospirae are nitrite-oxidizing bacteria (NOB) and were found to be enriched in peridotite rock samples (Figs. 3 and 5) and also exhibited a <sup>13</sup>C-labeling pattern consistent with a H<sub>2</sub> catabolism. Namely, Nitrospira-affiliated OTUs increased their assimilation of acetate in the H<sub>2</sub>-amended incubations by 64.6% (±36%) (Figs. 4 and 5). This is in line with H<sub>2</sub> oxidation demonstrated for NOB in pure culture experiments (Koch et al. 2014).

The higher relative abundance of *nirS* encoding ORFs in peridotite rock and IGT metagenomes compared to the Niskin seawater metagenomes (Fig. 7D) could be explained by low-oxygen levels commonly experienced at the benthic-seawater interface selecting for anaerobic, nitrite respiring bacteria (Díaz and Rosenberg 1995). The relative abundance of heavy *nirS* ORFs was higher in the presence of added H<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 7D), which indicates that the H<sub>2</sub> was selected for nitrite respiring bacteria. Most of the heavy *nirS* ORFs were affiliated with *Marinobacter* and *Amphritea* (Fig. 7B), which rock-associated and exhibited some of the highest levels of <sup>13</sup>C-assimilation with added H<sub>2</sub> (Figs. 4 and 5). Taken together, these results indicate that the addition of H<sub>2</sub> promoted increased assimilation of <sup>13</sup>C via anaerobic nitrate-reducing bacteria, including peridotite-associated *Marinobacter* and

*Amphritea*.

The addition of H<sub>2</sub> affected increased carbon assimilation of peridotite-associated ammonia and nitrite-oxidizing consortia (Fig. 5) that are responsible for nitrification. Together with the activity of rock-associated nitrite reducing bacteria (Fig. 7), our results show the potential for H<sub>2</sub> to effect coupled nitrification and denitrification in the rock-associated community. Coupled nitrification and denitrification influence the loss of fixed nitrogen from benthic ecosystems (Jenkins and Kemp 1984). Our findings raise the possibility that serpentinization derived H<sub>2</sub> may influence fixed nitrogen loss (as N<sub>2</sub> gas) from the peridotite-rock associated ecosystem, by stimulating the activity of nitrifiers and denitrifiers. Nitrogen cycling consortia have been found in terrestrial serpentinization systems as well, such as the Somali Ophiolite system in Oman (Rempfert et al. 2017). The possibility for abiotically produced H<sub>2</sub> from serpentinization reactions to influence fixed nitrogen loss via coupled nitrification and denitrification in ultramafic rock ecosystems is a topic worthy of future study.

### 2.5.5 Carbon assimilation by CO oxidizers in the rock-associated community

Carbon monoxide can serve as the sole source of carbon and energy for life in environments that are low in an organic matter (Ragsdale 2004), including terrestrial serpentinization settings (Fones et al. 2021; Morrill et al. 2014). The *coxMSL* enzyme (carbon monoxide dehydrogenase) catalyzes the oxidation of CO (carbon monoxide) to CO<sub>2</sub> in bacteria (Wilcoxon et al. 2011), and is a widespread mechanism supporting microbial survival (Cordero et al. 2019; Seewald et al. 2006), particularly in extreme habitats experiencing low levels of productivity (Ji et al. 2017). The bootstrap-supported separation of seawater and rock-associated *coxL* clades indicate a unique rock-associated community capable of using CO as an energy source. The substrate utilization within these peridotite-rock-associated clades of *coxL* encoding organisms appears to have been affected by H<sub>2</sub> amendments. For example, heavy *coxL* ORFs from SIP incubations amended with H<sub>2</sub> were detected within bootstrap-supported peridotite-associated clades affiliated with the '*Ca. Rokubacteria*', Gemmatimonadales, and SAR202 clade (Fig. 6B). This raises the possibility that CO oxidation might be related to anabolism at relatively high H<sub>2</sub> concentrations by some taxa within these groups.

The carbon assimilation by CO-oxidizing bacteria associated with ultramafic rocks seen here could be explained by the water–gas shift reaction ( $\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2 = \text{CO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) (Can et al. 2014). Our data shows that in seafloor ultramafic rock settings where O<sub>2</sub> is above detection and H<sub>2</sub> is likely produced via serpentinization or related low-temperature alteration processes, aerobic CO-oxidizing organisms become stimulated by CO that is produced via the abiotic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> with H<sub>2</sub>. All of the CO-dehydrogenases that we detected were the molybdenum–copper-containing form which functions in aerobic CO-oxidation to CO<sub>2</sub>, as opposed to the NiFe CO-dehydrogenases that function in anaerobic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CO (Can et al. 2014). Our results from peridotite-associated communities at SPSPA are similar to terrestrial serpentinization settings, where aerobic CO oxidation supports life that survives under alkaline conditions (Fones et al. 2021; Morrill et al. 2014).

Taken together, the phylogenetic analysis of *coxL*, *HypE*, and *nirS* show a similar pattern: the



majority of heavy ORFs cluster together in bootstrap supported clades of peridotite rock-associated taxa. This trend suggests that the oxidation of H<sub>2</sub> and carbon monoxide, as well as dissimilatory nitrite reduction, are widespread and important physiological features for taxa that were assimilating <sup>13</sup>C within the peridotite-associated microbial community.

### 2.5.6 Assessing effects of the qSIP incubation conditions

A comparison of effects of the substrates (acetate, formate, bicarbonate) is problematic due to the extraordinarily high concentrations of acetate and formate added relative to the in situ conditions, and potential substrate inhibition, toxicity, and pH alterations. Therefore, we do not compare the effects of the substrates to one another (e.g., we do not claim that bicarbonate is a more important carbon source compared to formate, despite the clear differences in qSIP results) but rather compare assimilation of a particular substrate with, and without, added H<sub>2</sub>. While the added concentrations in our incubations are higher than the in situ abundances (no H<sub>2</sub> above background was detected in the water column), our experimental approach provides initial boundary conditions on the stimulation of carbon assimilation by H<sub>2</sub> for specific substrates, by specific peridotite-associated taxa in an ultramafic seafloor setting undergoing low-temperature aqueous alteration.

An increased temperature of the incubations (room temperature) relative to the in situ temperature (10–12 °C), probably led to elevated microbial activity and rates of <sup>13</sup>C substrate assimilation as shown previously for benthic microbes (Gudasz et al. 2010). Moreover, purging of the incubation flasks with N<sub>2</sub> created dissolved O<sub>2</sub> concentrations at low oxygen levels (see the “Methods” section), and the labeling of known strictly anaerobic taxa indicates that anoxic regions were established during the incubation. Because O<sub>2</sub> was available at low concentrations in the flasks (ca. 10 μM), this explains why many of the most highly <sup>13</sup>C-enriched taxa in the qSIP are known aerobic or facultatively anaerobic taxa (Figs. 4 and 5). However, at the flask bottom below the 3 cm column of crushed peridotite rock, anoxic conditions likely established due to a vertical O<sub>2</sub> gradient in the flask that commonly occurs in this experimental setup due to increased rates of aerobic respiration at the benthic–water interface (Ortega-Arbulú et al. 2019). Anoxic conditions in the crushed rocks at the bottom of the flasks likely promoted carbon assimilation by rock-associated strict anaerobes that also were using H<sub>2</sub> to increase their anabolism from the added <sup>13</sup>C-labeled substrates. For example, this is seen in the Atribacteria that are strict anaerobes (Katayama et al. 2020) that exhibited the highest <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate assimilation in the presence of H<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 4). Moreover, the <sup>13</sup>C-labeling of a peridotite-associated taxon affiliated with the Firmicute *Paramaledivibacter* (Fig. 5) indicates anoxic conditions, as this is a strictly anaerobic organism originally isolated from a deep-sea hydrothermal vent from the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (Brisbarre et al. 2003).

### 2.5.7 Assessing cross-feeding of <sup>13</sup>C-labeled substrates

Cross feeding is an issue inherent to all SIP studies. It is possible that some of the <sup>13</sup>C was fixed from bicarbonate into organic molecules and subsequently assimilated by heterotrophs. The labeling of heterotrophic taxa with <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate indicates that some of the <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate was taken up by autotrophs and assimilated by heterotrophs as DOM or POM. Alternatively, heterotrophic carbon fixation occurs through anaplerotic carbon fixation reactions in heterotrophs that can account for

2–8% of cell carbon (Roslev et al. 2004; Spona-Friedl et al. 2020) and could explain a portion of the  $^{13}\text{C}$  labeling in heterotrophs seen here. It is not possible that the  $^{13}\text{C}$  from the organic substrates would be remineralized and be taken up as bicarbonate because the natural bicarbonate concentration in seawater is ~2.3 mM and will dilute the remineralized  $^{13}\text{C}$  label to undetectable levels (Orsi et al. 2016). Therefore, the results in bicarbonate incubations not only show the primary utilizers but underpin complex ecological interactions in the microbial food web. We also note that formate can rapidly interconvert with  $\text{CO}_2$  and therefore some of the formate may have been taken up as  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate (Jansen et al. 1984). These results support the hypothesis that anaerobic carbon fixation reactions in heterotrophs represent an important, yet underappreciated, component of the global marine carbon cycle (Braun et al. 2021).

## 2.6 Conclusions

Our findings demonstrate that  $\text{H}_2$  has a quantitatively significant impact on microbial carbon assimilation in seafloor ultramafic rock microbial ecosystems (Fig. 8). The qSIP results show that this effect of  $\text{H}_2$  on increased carbon assimilation is phylogenetically organized, and the distribution of the carbon assimilating taxa shows a higher diversity of peridotite-associated taxa assimilating carbon in the presence of  $\text{H}_2$  compared to taxa that were not detected on the ultramafic rocks. The data support thermodynamic predictions that oxidation of  $\text{H}_2$  is energetically favorable for seafloor-associated microbial life in settings where  $\text{H}_2$ -containing aqueous solutions mix with seawater (Amend et al. 2011), including those where  $\text{H}_2$  is formed via high-temperature or low-temperature aqueous alteration (Russell et al. 2010; Martin et al. 2008), rock comminution in fault zones, and radiolysis.



## FIGURES AND TABLES

**Table 1** The result of phylogenetic signal tests (Blomberg's  $K$  and Pagel's  $\lambda$ ) analysis on the effect of  $H_2$  on carbon assimilation.

	$K$	$\lambda$	Labeled OTUs	Unlabeled OTUs	Labeled OTUs (%)
Bicarbonate	0.13	0	81	58	58.3
Bicarbonate + $H_2$	0.26*	0.64	26	61	29.9
Acetate	0.11	0	73	79	48
Acetate + $H_2$	0.25*	0.82	81	17	82.7
Formate	0.16	0	59	6	90.8
Formate + $H_2$	0.25*	0.64	37	129	22.3
Total number of OTUs	–	–	107	203	34.5

\* $p \leq 0.05$ .

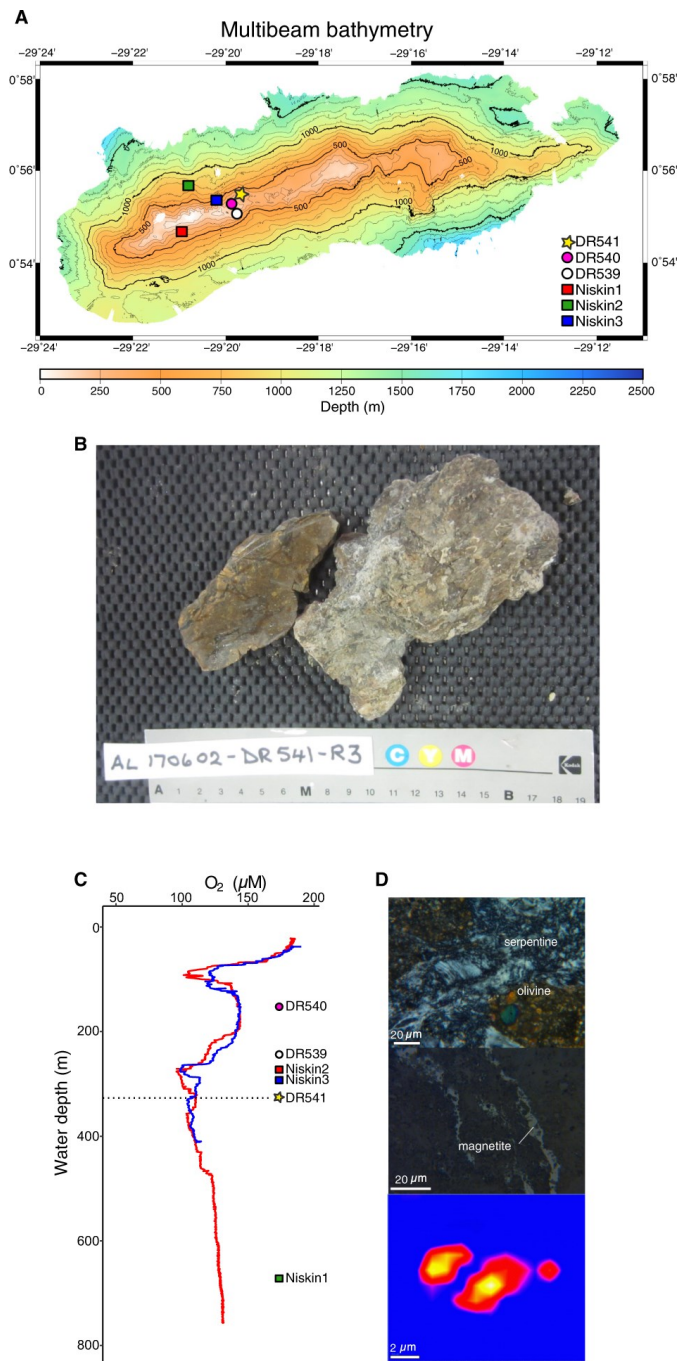


Figure 1: **A** Bathymetry of SPSPA and sampling locations for Niskin, IGT fluids, sediments, and rocks. The location for the qSIP experiment (D541) is shown with a yellow star. **B** Photo of partially serpentinized peridotite collected from St. Pauls Rocks, the interior of the rock was used for the qSIP incubations. **C** Dissolved oxygen vertical profiles from two sites (Niskin2, Niskin3) in close proximity to the location for qSIP (D541). The horizontal dashed line represents the depth where samples were taken for qSIP (327 meters). The other labels indicate the water depths at which those samples were taken (see map in panel A). **D** Thin section photomicrographs of sheared peridotite from SPSPA. The presence of serpentine and magnetite (top two panels) is indicative of  $H_2$  generation. Hyperspectral Raman map (bottom panel) showing a  $CH_4$ -rich inclusion in amphibole sampled from the close vicinity of the studied area.

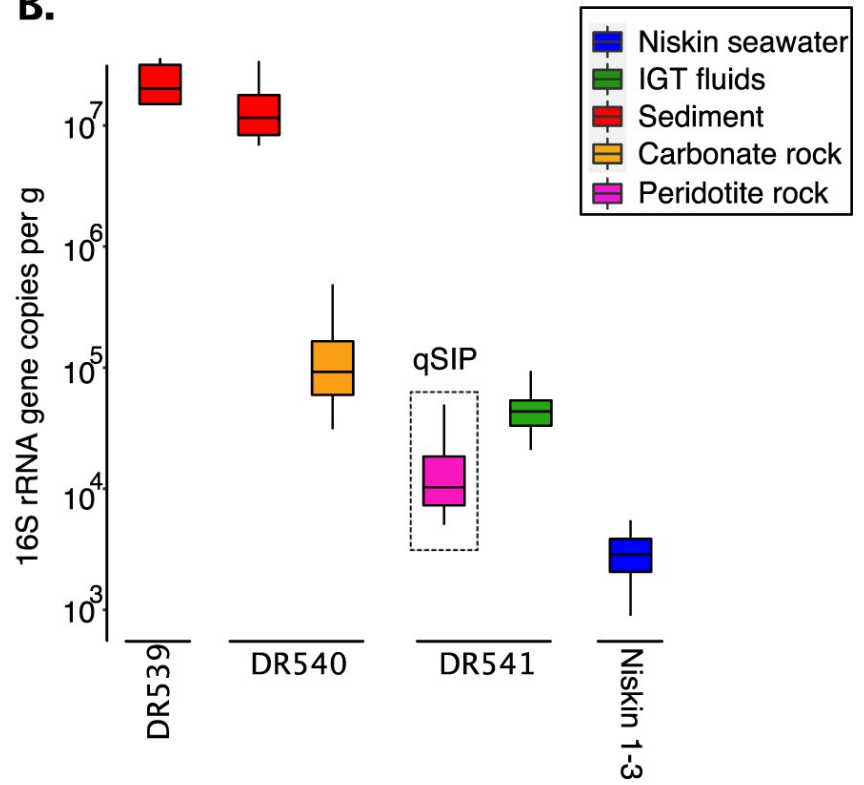
**A.****B.**

Figure 2: **A** Photograph of peridotite rock samples (dive D541) prior to DNA extraction. **B** Concentration of 16S rRNA genes from sediments, rocks, IGT fluids, and Niskin collected seawater. Concentrations are normalized to per gram for sediment and rock samples, and per mL for seawater samples (IGT fluids and Niskins).

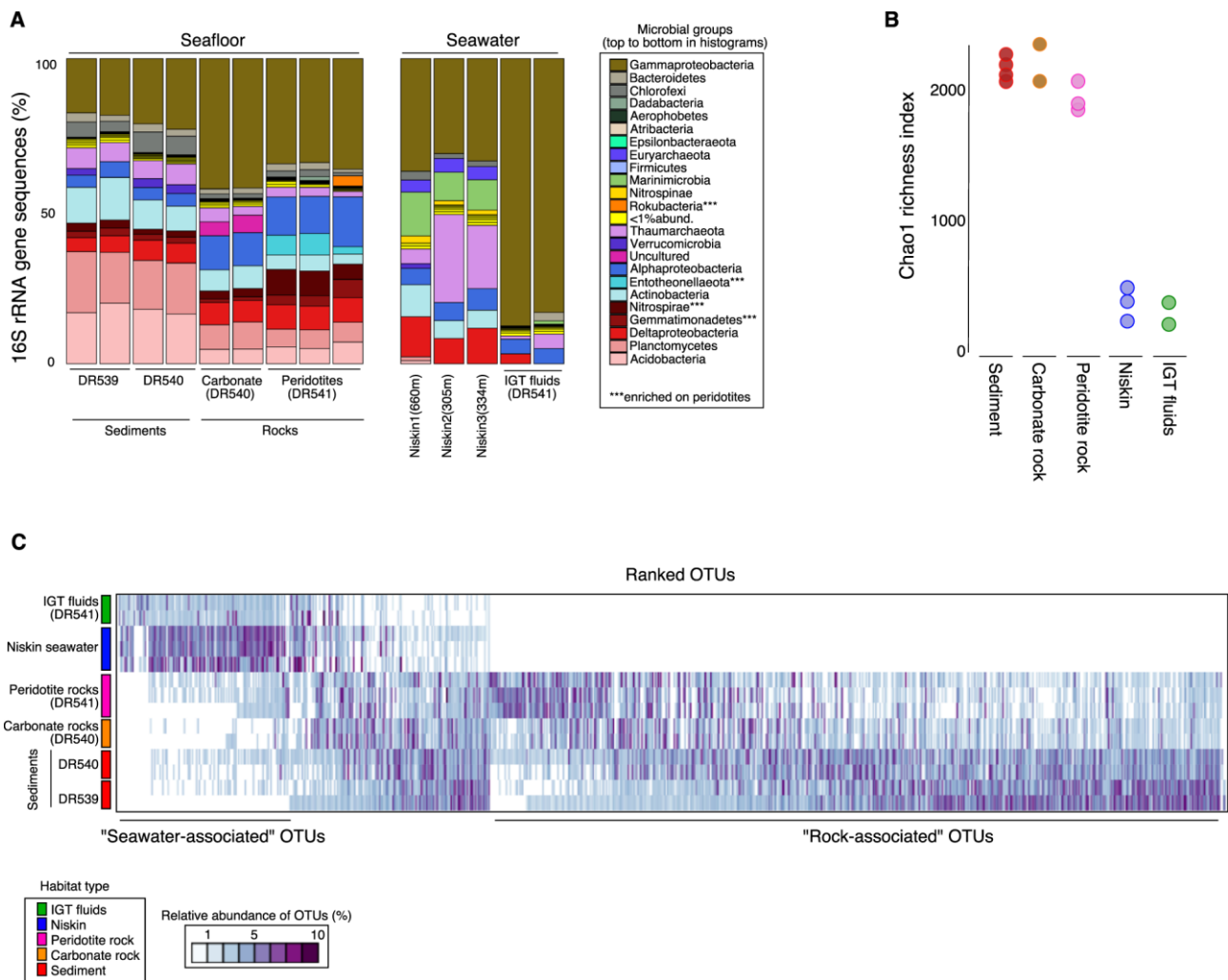


Figure 3: **A** The taxonomic composition of sediment, rock, and seawater communities. **B** Chao1 estimated microbial richness, showing a significantly higher richness in the rock and sediments samples, compared to the seawater communities (two-sided  $T$ -test:  $P = e^{-8}$ ). **C** Heatmap showing the relative abundance of OTUs (columns) per sample (rows) and their distribution across sample types. The community detected on the ultramafic rocks was significantly different compared to the seawater communities (ANOSIM:  $P = 0.001$ ). More than half of the total OTUs detected were found only in the seafloor samples (rocks and sediments).

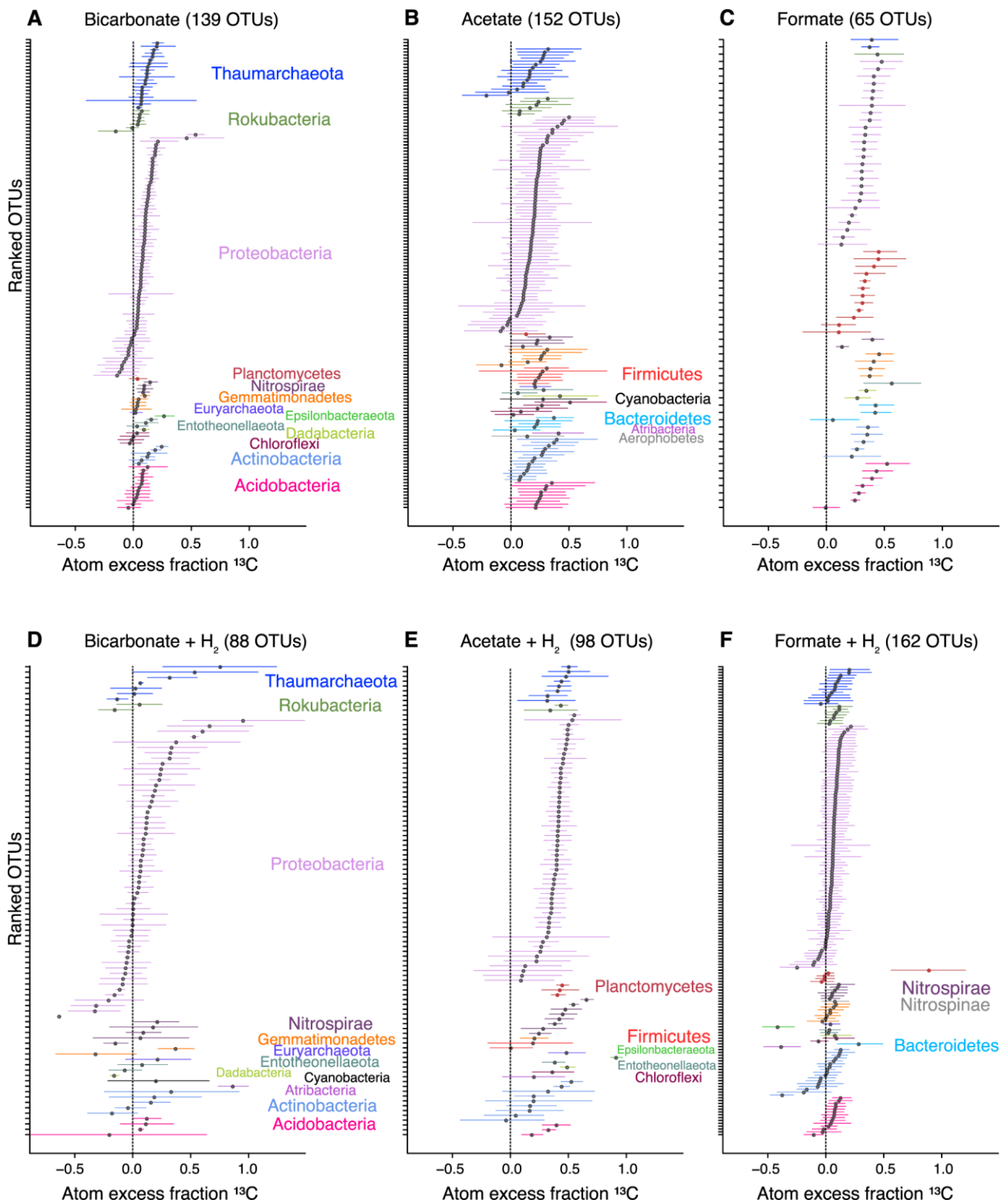


Figure 4: Individual points represent EAF values of specific OTUs, which are colored by Phylum for qSIP incubations that did not (A–C), or did (D–F), receive H<sub>2</sub>. The error bars correspond to 90% CI across three biological replicates. OTUs that do not have a 90% CI overlapping with 0 are considered to be <sup>13</sup>C labeled.



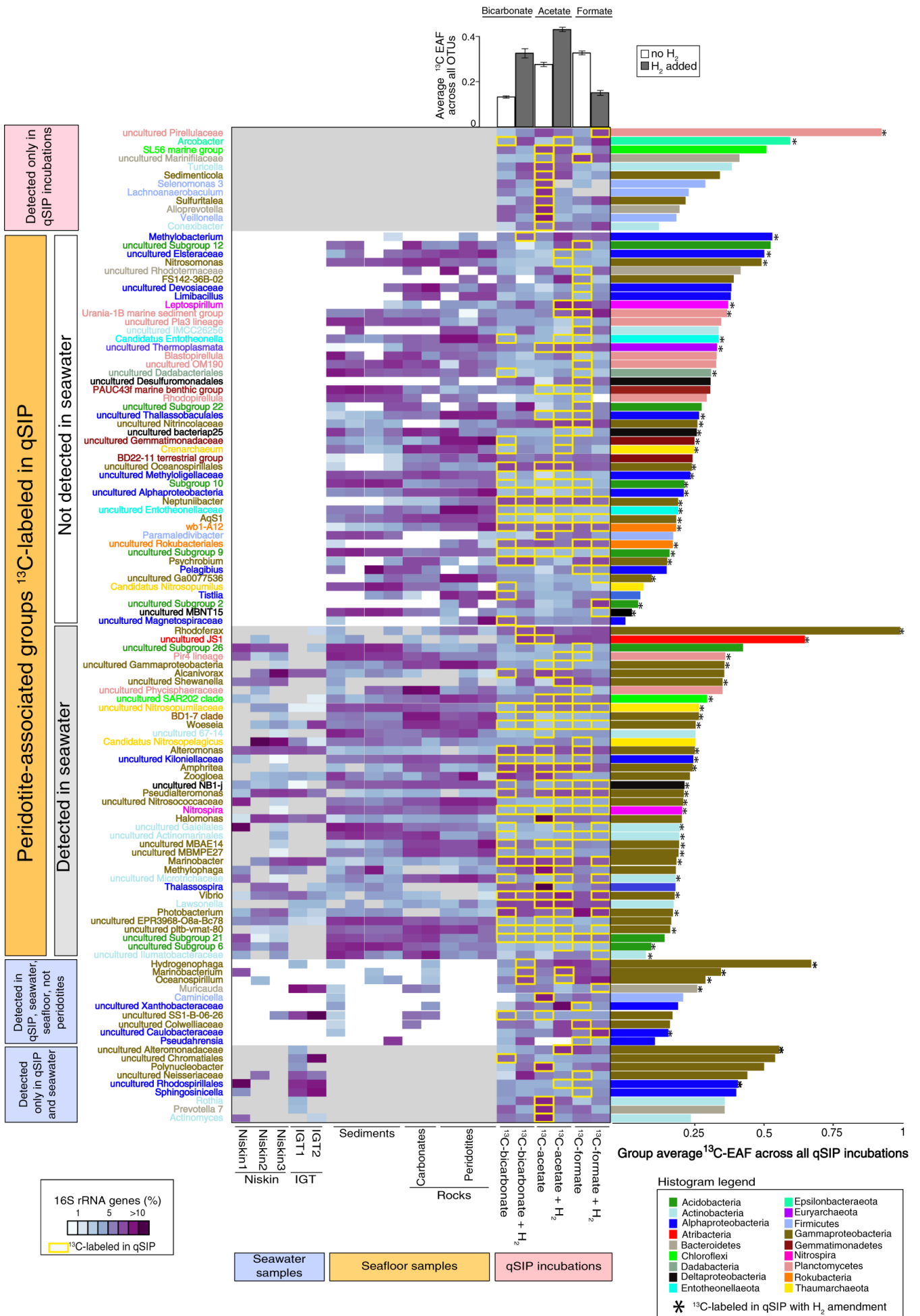
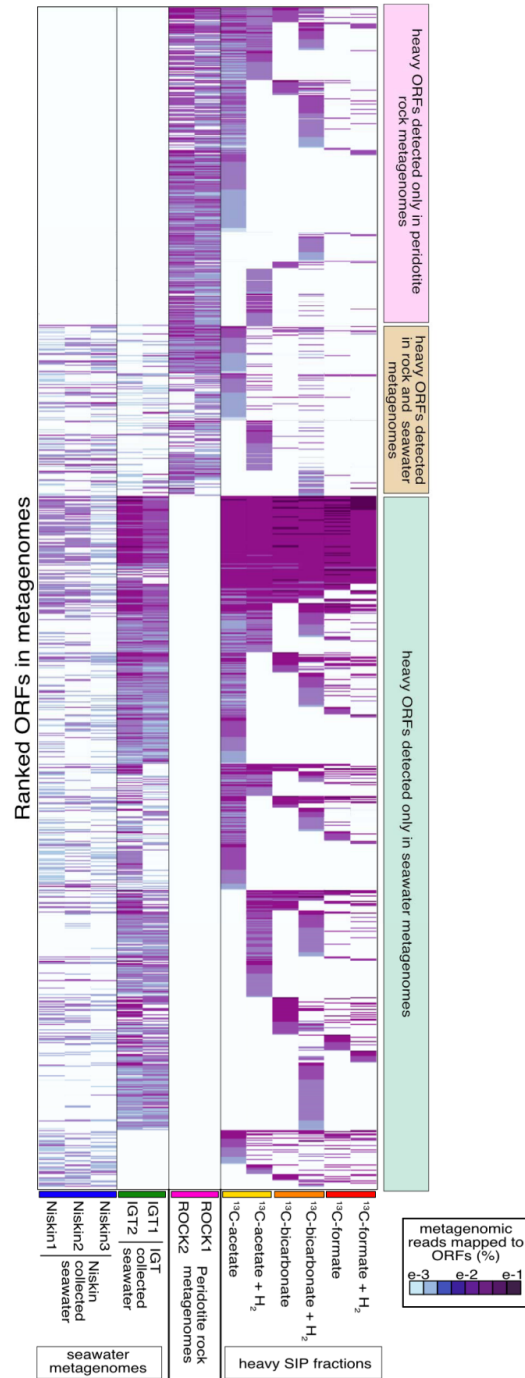
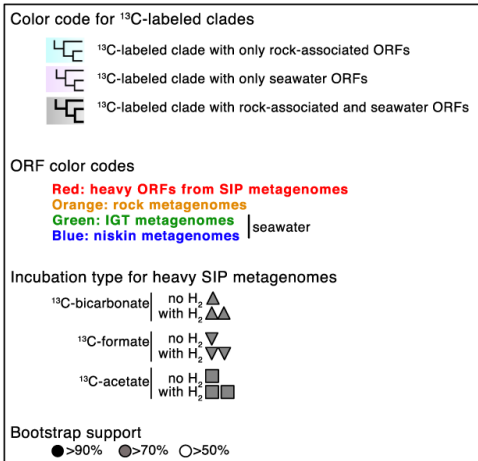


Figure 5: The heatmap shows the relative abundance of 16S rRNA gene sequences per group per sample (purple = more, light blue = less). Within the qSIP incubations (right-hand side), groups that had OTUs with statistically significant  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilation in qSIP are surrounded by a yellow box. The histograms on the right side of the plot show the average  $^{13}\text{C}$ -EAF across all qSIP incubations per group. An asterisk indicates that this group had a significant  $^{13}\text{C}$ -EAF within a qSIP incubation with added  $\text{H}_2$  (no asterisk means labeling occurred only in qSIP incubations without  $\text{H}_2$ ). The histograms at the top of the heatmap show the average  $^{13}\text{C}$ -EAF across all OTUs within each qSIP incubation, error bars represent standard deviations. The analysis shows that the majority of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilating groups were rock-associated and that more rock-associated groups became labeled in the presence of  $\text{H}_2$  (middle of the heatmap), compared to the seawater-associated groups (at the bottom of the heatmap).

### A ORF distribution across metagenomes



### Phylogenetic tree legends



### B Carbon monoxide dehydrogenase (coxL) phylogeny

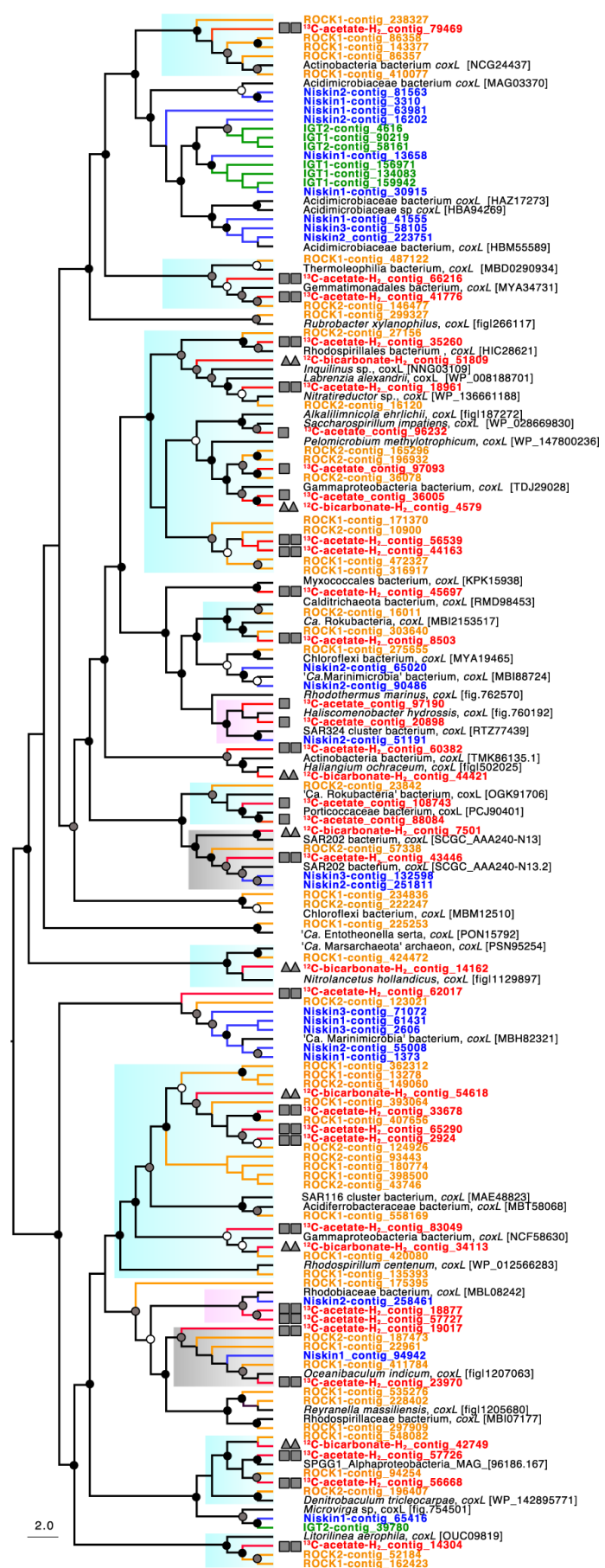


Figure 6: **A** Heatmap displaying all ORFs detected from heavy SIP metagenomes and the distribution of these heavy ORFs in the rock and seawater metagenomes. Heatmap rows represent predicted proteins from the MetaProt database (Orsi et al. 2020a) having best BLASTp similarity to peptides encoded in ORFs from the metagenomes (columns). Colors represent length normalized read coverage from metagenomes to the ORFs. **B** Phylogenetic analysis (RAxML) of all detected *coxL* ORFs based on an alignment length of 968 amino acids. Note that most of the *coxL* clades were rock-specific and that these also contain the majority of heavy *coxL* ORFs.

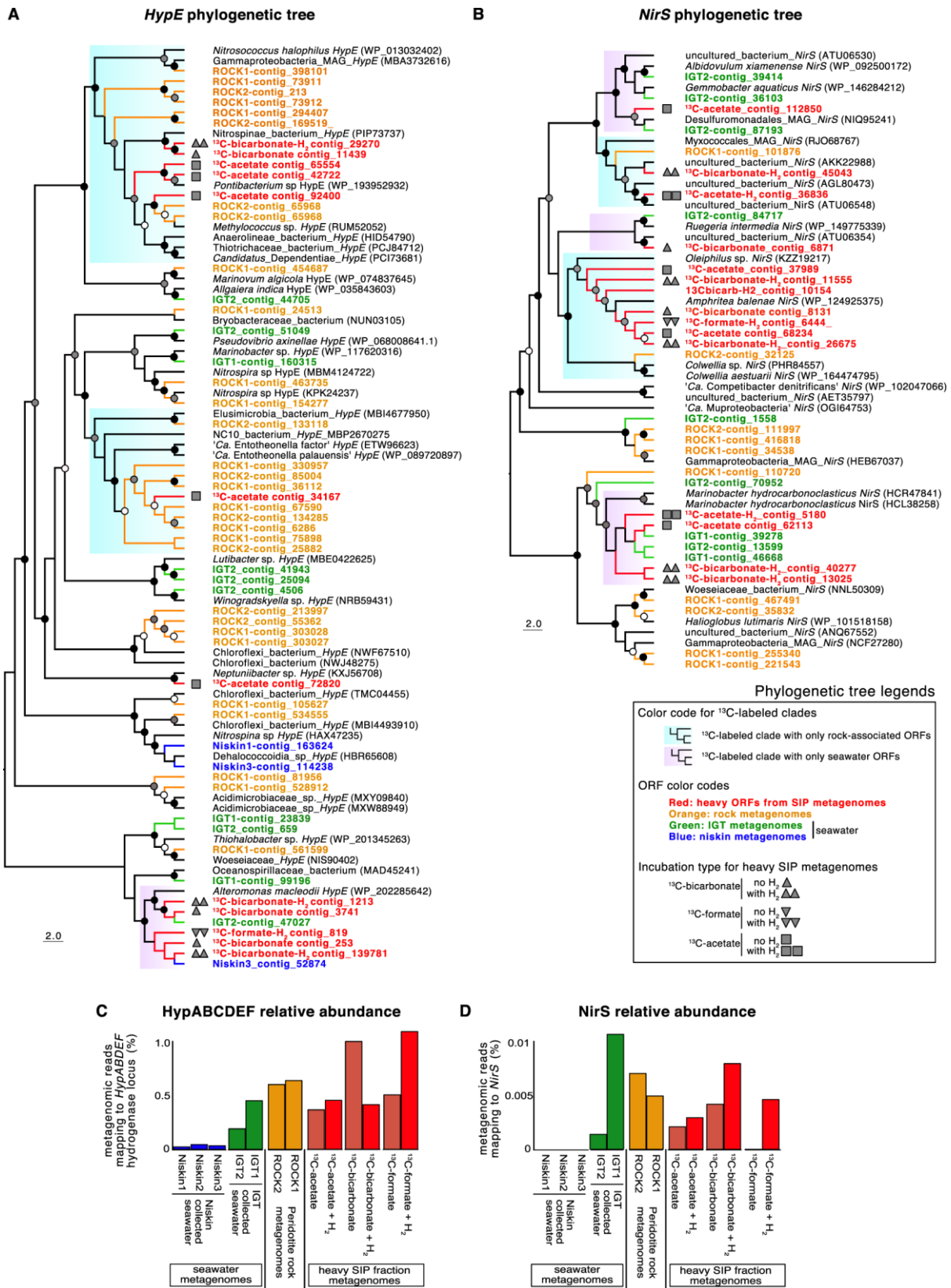


Figure 7: Phylogenetic analyses (RAxML) of all detected *HypE* (A) and *nirS* (B) ORFs based on alignment lengths of 442 and 638 amino acids, respectively. Note that the separation of seawater (pink highlighted) and rock-associated (light blue highlighted) clades. Panels (C) and (D) show the relative abundance (% reads mapping, length normalized) within the different metagenomes to ORFs with best BLASTp similarity to the NiFe-hydrogenase assembly locus *HypABCDEF* (C) and *nirS* (D), respectively. Circles on nodes represent bootstrap values (black > 90%, gray > 70%, white > 50%).

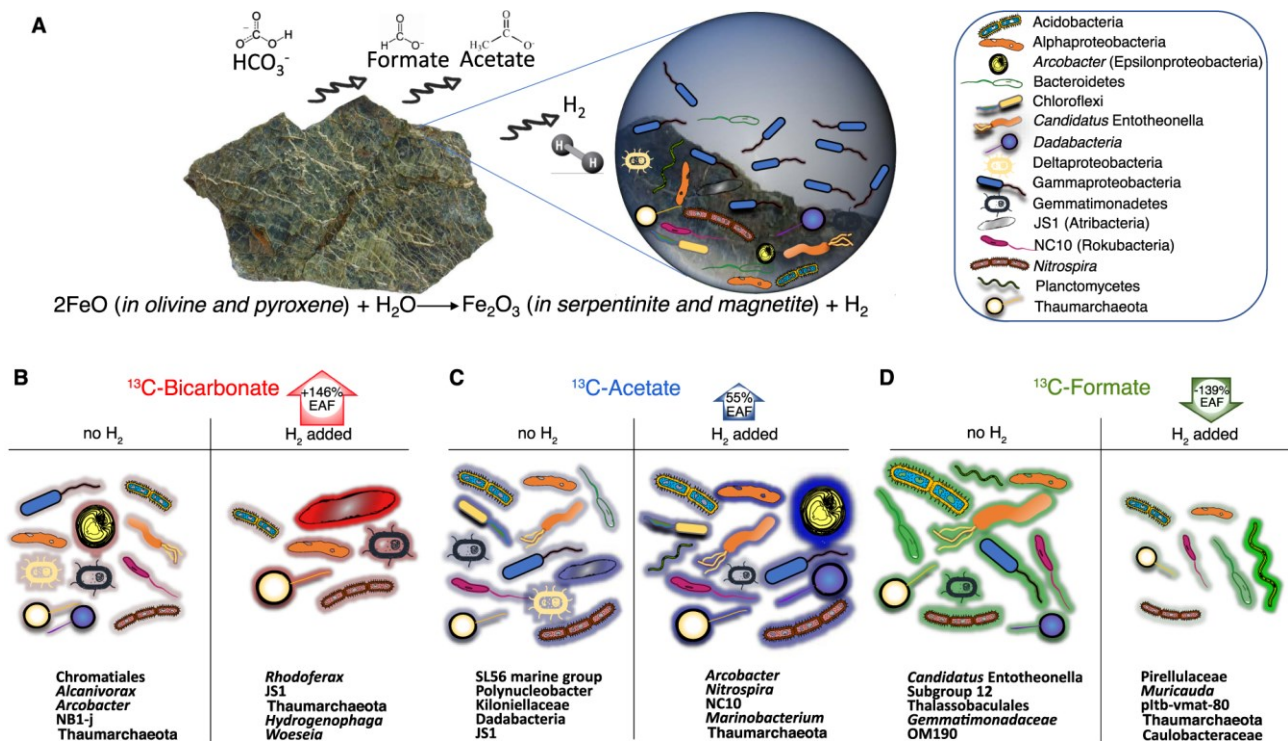
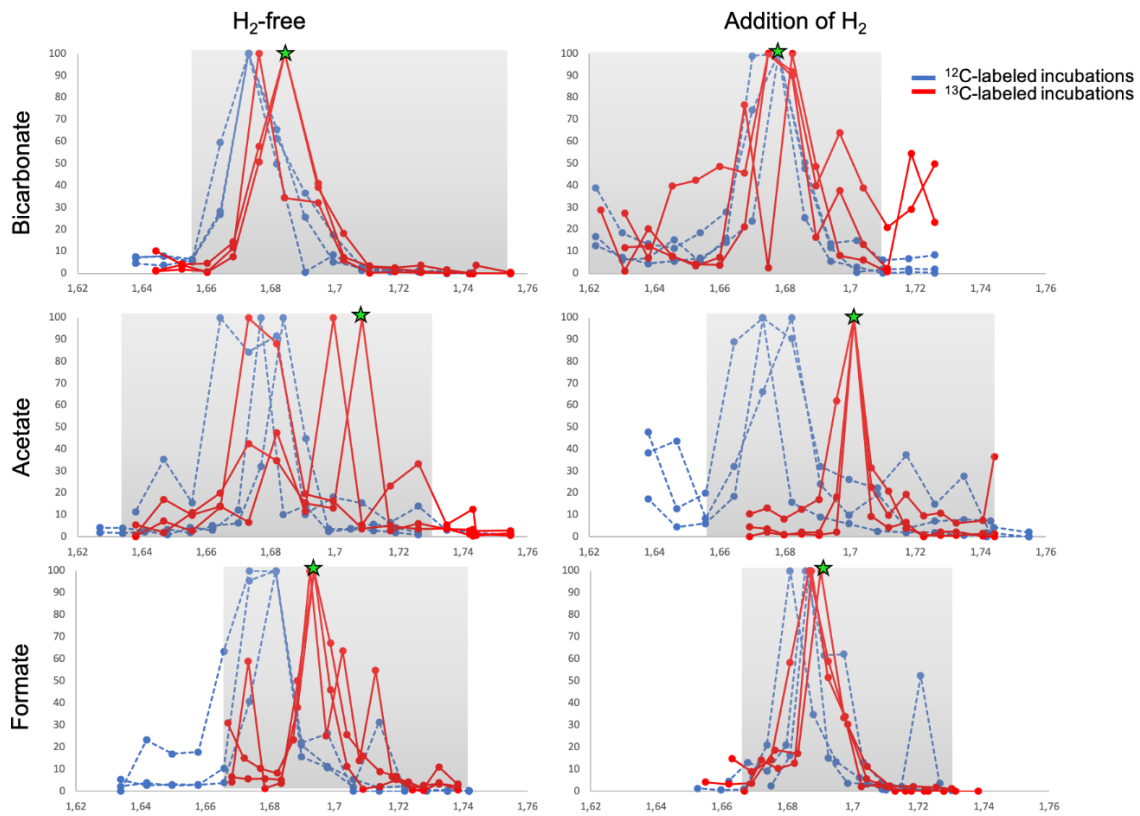
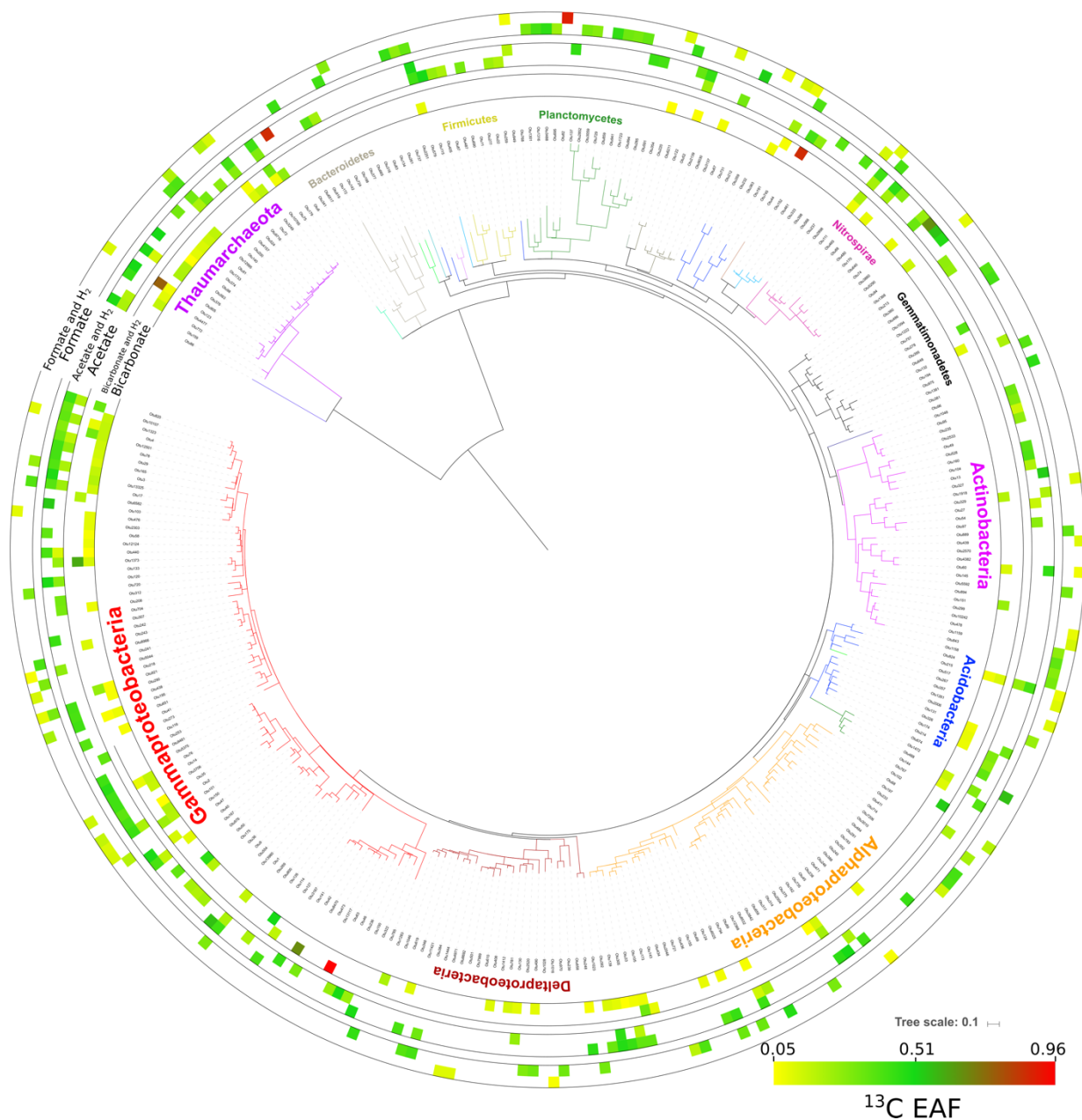


Figure 8: **A** The photograph is a piece of rock from partially serpentinized peridotite that was taken from SPSPA for the qSIP incubations. The cartoon diagram in the upper right shows the corresponding groups that assimilated carbon in the presence (or absence) of  $\text{H}_2$ . **B–D** The plots below show the main groups that were responsible for carbon assimilation of different substrates with, and without  $\text{H}_2$ . The extent of red/blue/green shading on the outside of the cells corresponds to  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeling from  $\text{CO}_2$ /acetate/formate. The percentage number (inside the arrows) indicates the average increase or decrease in  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilation (EAF) in the community with the addition of  $\text{H}_2$ .

## SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES



**Figure S1:** Quantification of 16S rRNA gene copies across CsCl density gradient fractions fractionated from incubations amended with bicarbonate, acetate and formate in the presence or absence of molecular H<sub>2</sub>. <sup>13</sup>C-substrates are represented by red solid lines and unlabeled replicates (control) are represented by blue dashed lines. The y axis represents the relative abundance of 16S rRNA genes quantified with qPCR, normalized to maximal abundance across all density fractions. The green stars show the fractions that were used for metagenomic library preparation.



**Figure S2: Phylogeny of bacterial and archaeal 16S rRNA genes and their <sup>13</sup>C-labeling with and without hydrogen.** The heat blocks correspond to excess atom fraction (EAF) of <sup>13</sup>C-labeled OTUs and represent the following incubations from inner circle to outer: bicarbonate, bicarbonate amended with H<sub>2</sub>, acetate, acetate amended with H<sub>2</sub>, formate and formate amended with H<sub>2</sub>.



## Chapter 3

# Quantifying population-specific growth in benthic bacterial communities under low oxygen using H<sub>2</sub><sup>18</sup>O

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### 3.1 Abstract

The benthos in estuarine environments often experiences periods of regularly occurring hypoxic and anoxic conditions, dramatically impacting biogeochemical cycles. How oxygen depletion affects the growth of specific uncultivated microbial populations within these diverse benthic communities, however, remains poorly understood. Here, we applied  $\text{H}_2^{18}\text{O}$  quantitative stable isotope probing (qSIP) in order to quantify the growth of diverse, uncultured bacterial populations in response to low oxygen concentrations in estuarine sediments. Over the course of 7- and 28-day incubations with redox conditions spanning from hypoxia to euxinia (sulfidic),  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeling of bacterial populations exhibited different patterns consistent with micro-aerophilic, anaerobic, facultative anaerobic, and aerotolerant anaerobic growth.  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled populations displaying anaerobic growth had a significantly non-random phylogenetic distribution, exhibited by numerous clades currently lacking cultured representatives within the Planctomycetes, Actinobacteria, Latescibacteria, Verrucomicrobia, and Acidobacteria. Genes encoding the beta-subunit of the dissimilatory sulfate reductase (*dsrB*) became  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeled only during euxinic conditions. Sequencing of these  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled *dsrB* genes showed that Acidobacteria were the dominant group of growing sulfate-reducing bacteria, highlighting their importance for sulfur cycling in estuarine sediments. Our findings provide the first experimental constraints on the redox conditions underlying increased growth in several groups of “microbial dark matter”, validating hypotheses put forth by earlier metagenomic studies.

### 3.2 Introduction

Benthic microbial communities living in estuarine ecosystems play an important role in global biogeochemical cycles, because they drive organic matter decomposition, nutrient regeneration, and influence water column dissolved  $\text{O}_2$  concentrations (Boynton and Kemp 1985; Nixon 1981). Benthic oxygen depletion is typical in estuarine habitats, where degradation of organic matter is 100–1000 times higher than corresponding values in the water column (Glud 2008). The resulting hypoxia impacts both fisheries by increasing fish mortality (Diaz and Rosenberg 2008), as well as climate by facilitating increased fluxes of the greenhouse gas nitrous oxide (Middelburg et al. 1995).

Estuarine sediments have complex microbial communities composed primarily of uncultured lineages catalyzing aerobic, micro-aerophilic, and anaerobic metabolic pathways that impact carbon, nitrogen, and sulfur cycling (Baker et al. 2015). Quantifying growth of specific bacterial populations is challenging, yet critical for understanding of ecosystem resilience and response to change (Luna et al. 2002). The structure of microbial communities in estuarine habitats can exhibit resistance to environmental perturbation (Bowen et al. 2011), but the levels of activity within populations can change dramatically in response to changing nutrients and oxygen levels, with clear impacts on biogeochemical cycles (Kearns et al. 2016).

The activity of growing microbial populations in environmental samples can be quantified using quantitative DNA-stable isotope probing (qSIP) with  $\text{H}_2^{18}\text{O}$  as a passive tracer (Schwartz 2007).

Oxygen atoms from  $\text{H}_2^{18}\text{O}$  are incorporated into DNA during genome replication, which when combined with quantitative PCR (qPCR) and high-throughput sequencing of 16S rRNA genes can be used to quantify activity of growing populations within complex microbial communities from environmental samples (Blazewicz et al. 2014; Schwartz et al. 2016). Relative to energy-rich  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled carbon substrates, labeled water is a passive tracer of cell growth, whereby DNA replication generates a new DNA strand that will contain  $^{18}\text{O}$  atoms in the presence of labeled water (Schwartz et al. 2016). The amount of  $^{18}\text{O}$  incorporated into the total DNA pool is correlated with growth rates (Blazewicz et al. 2014; Schwartz et al. 2016; Hungate et al. 2015), showing that  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeling occurs primarily during growth via DNA replication (Schwartz et al. 2016). The degree of atomic incorporation can then be used as a quantitative proxy for growth (Hungate et al. 2015). qSIP with  $\text{H}_2^{18}\text{O}$  has been applied to terrestrial habitats (Woods et al. 2011; Schwartz et al. 2014; Papp et al. 2018), including freshwater sediments (Hayer et al. 2016). But, to our knowledge,  $\text{H}_2^{18}\text{O}$  qSIP has not yet been applied to quantify growth in estuarine sediments or under anoxic conditions.

We used  $\text{H}_2^{18}\text{O}$  qSIP (Hungate et al. 2015) to quantify for the first time population-specific growth dynamics in benthic bacterial communities in response to changing redox conditions. This allowed us to test hypotheses regarding the potential physiology of several groups of uncultivated microbial groups put forth by earlier metagenomics studies, which suggested an adaptation to low oxygen and anoxic aquatic environments (Baker et al. 2015; Rinke et al. 2013). Our results showed that hypoxia and euxinia selected for specific phylogenetic groups of uncultivated bacteria whose metabolic activity was increased, providing evidence of their optimal redox conditions for growth. Notably, establishment of benthic anoxia coincided with increased growth from numerous uncultivated groups of sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) that were dominated by the Acidobacteria, which should thus be more closely considered as an important SRB group impacting sulfur cycling in estuarine sediments. Our experimental findings validate prior hypotheses put forth by metagenomics studies indicating micro-aerophilic and anaerobic lifestyles for many groups of “microbial dark matter (MDM)”.

### **3.3 Materials and methods**

#### **3.3.1 Sampling**

Surface sediment samples were collected in July 2016 from 1 m water depth in Sage Lot pond, a coastal lagoon connected as a sub-estuary to Waquoit Bay (Cape Cod, Massachusetts). Sage Lot pond is a small (surface area  $0.17 \text{ km}^2$ ) shallow (ca. 2 m maximum depth) lagoon surrounded by dense vegetation including salt marshes and seagrasses (Valiela et al. 1992; Wang et al. 2016). Sage Lot pond exhibits phytoplankton chlorophyll concentration up to  $90 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  when nitrogen inputs increase (Valiela et al. 1992). These eutrophic conditions lead to frequent benthic anoxic events (Valiela et al. 1992).

#### **3.3.2 Experimental setup**

We added sea salts (30 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> · 6H<sub>2</sub>O, 16 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub> · 7H<sub>2</sub>O, 2 mM NaCO<sub>3</sub>, 10 mM KCl, 9 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 450 mM NaCl) to 99% H<sub>2</sub><sup>18</sup>O (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) in order to create <sup>18</sup>O-labeled artificial seawater (ASW). As a control, ASW was also created using diethyl pyrocarbonate (DEPC)-treated (sterile, nuclease free) water. Both waters were filter sterilized (0.2 μm). One milliliter of either <sup>18</sup>O-labeled or -unlabeled (control) ASW was added to 2 g of wet surface sediment from Sage Lot Pond in 20 mL sterile glass vials containing sterile oxygen sensor spots (PreSens Precision Sensing). The oxygen sensor spot was positioned at the sediment-seawater interface to measure benthic O<sub>2</sub> concentrations, and additional sensor spots were placed in the headspace of two flasks to measure gaseous O<sub>2</sub> levels throughout the incubation. Incubations were set up in biological triplicate for each timepoint (7 day and 28 day). The water content of the sediments was 15% (±1%), and thus the final concentration of H<sub>2</sub><sup>18</sup>O in the H<sub>2</sub><sup>18</sup>O incubations was roughly 66%. After addition of labeled and unlabeled ASW, flasks were crimp sealed with gas tight gray butyl rubber stoppers. All flasks contained ca. 15 cm of oxygenated headspace and were incubated in the dark for 7 and 28 days at 8 °C. Dissolved oxygen was measured noninvasively using a fiber optic oxygen sensor (PreSens, Regensburg Germany) ca. 0.5 cm above the sediment-water interface as described previously (Ortega-Arbulú et al. 2019). Oxygen measurements were also performed on autoclaved sediments as a killed control. DNA from the samples was extracted and quantified from the replicate incubations at the beginning (T<sub>0</sub>), 7 days, and 28-day timepoints as described previously (Orsi et al. 2018).

### 3.3.3 Density gradient centrifugation and gradient fraction

DNA samples were prepared for density gradient centrifugation according to previously defined protocol for qSIP (Coskun et al. 2018). In brief, density gradient centrifugations were carried out in a TLN-100 Optima MAX-TL ultracentrifuge (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA) near-vertical rotor at 18 °C for 72 h at 165,000 × g. In all, 50 μl of DNA spanning from 0.5 to 1.5 μg (Dunford and Neufeld 2010) was added to a solution of cesium chloride (CsCl) and gradient buffer (0.1 M Tris, 0.1 M KCl and 1 mM EDTA) in order to achieve a starting density of 1.70 g mL<sup>-1</sup> in a 3.3-mL polyallomer OptiSeal tubes (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA). After ultracentrifugation, the density gradients were fractionated into 15 equal fractions of 200 μl from the bottom of polyallomer OptiSeal tubes by using a syringe pump and fraction recovery system (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA). The density of these fractions was measured with an AR200 digital refractometer (Reichert Analytical Instruments, Depew, NY, USA). DNA was precipitated from the fractions using two volumes of polyethylene glycol with 2 μl (10 mg mL<sup>-1</sup>) glycogen and precipitated overnight at room temperature. DNA was pelleted by centrifugation (13,000 × g; 40 min), washed with 70% ethanol, and resuspended with 30 μl molecular-grade (DEPC-treated) water. DNA was quantified fluorometrically using a Qubit 4 fluorometer (Thermo Scientific).

### 3.3.4 qPCR, 16S rRNA gene, and *dsrB* gene sequencing

Universal primers targeting the V4 hypervariable region of 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes were used in qPCR to determine density shifts of key genes (16S and *dsrB*) for each incubation. We used a version of the 16S rRNA gene 515F primer with a single-base change (in bold) to increase the

coverage of archaea (515F-Y, 5'-GTGYCAGCMGCC GCGGTAA-3'; (Parada et al. 2016)). All qPCR reactions were carried out as described previously using the Eppendorf EpMotion 5070 pipetting robot that has <5% technical variation (Coskun et al. 2018). Each density fraction was also screened using qPCR for SRB with primer pairs targeting the dissimilatory sulfite reductase  $\beta$ -subunit genes (*dsrB*) according to a previously published assay (Jochum et al. 2017; Rotthauwe et al. 1997; Geets et al. 2006). We chose to focus on the *dsrB* gene because a large database exists for *dsrB* sequences recovered from environmental samples that we could compare our data against (Müller et al. 2015) ([www.microbial-ecology.net/download](http://www.microbial-ecology.net/download)). qPCR standards consisted of 10-fold dilution series of the genes of interest that were PCR amplified from the sample at 40 cycles using the same primers. Prior to creating the dilution series, the correct size of amplified standard was confirmed via gel electrophoresis, gel extracted, and quantified with a Qubit. Reaction efficiencies in all qPCR assays were between 90 and 110% with  $r^2 > 0.98$  for the standards. *dsrB* amplicons were cloned and sequenced via sanger sequencing from density fractions at the 28-day incubation timepoint that exhibited  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeling, in the density range 1.70–1.71 g mL<sup>-1</sup>.

Two 16S PCR amplicons from each density fraction (technical replicates to reduce PCR bias) were pooled and sequenced on the Illumina MiniSeq as described previously (Pichler et al. 2018). To account for the influence of contamination, we included barcoded aerosol (laboratory dust) and kit reagents (DNA extraction blanks) samples.

*dsrB* amplicons were gel extracted and cloned using the TOPO TA cloning kit (Invitrogen, Life Sciences) according to the manufacturer instructions. A total of 132 clones were picked, the insert size confirmed via PCR, and those clones having the correct *dsrB* size (89 clones) were Sanger sequenced bidirectionally. The forward and reverse Sanger reads were used to create *dsrB* contig sequences in CodonCode Aligner version 8.0.2 (CodonCode Corporation, MA, USA).

### 3.3.5 Bioinformatic analysis

The Illumina reads were quality trimmed and assembled using USEARCH version 10.0.240 with the default parameters (Edgar 2010) resulting in 6.8 million quality checked V4 reads. Reads were then de novo clustered at 97% identity using UPARSE; OTUs represented by a single sequence were discarded (Edgar 2013). Taxonomic assignments were generated by QIIME 1.9.1 (Caporaso et al. 2010) using the implemented BLAST method against the SILVA rRNA gene database release 132 [34]. After that, only operational taxonomic units (OTUs) >12 sequences in total in each replicate for the control and SIP-labeled fractions were selected for further study (Coskun et al. 2018; Orsi et al. 2016). OTUs detected in the contaminant datasets were removed from all downstream analysis if the total number of sequences in the contaminant sample was greater than the experimental sample. Working with this “cleaned” dataset, 598 OTUs and 523 OTUs from 7 days and 28 days incubations were used for downstream analyses.

Observed excess atom  $^{18}\text{O}$  fractions (EAFs) were calculated for each taxon as described previously (Hungate et al. 2015) using a qSIP workflow embedded in the HTS-SIP R package (Youngblut et al.

2018a). To calculate the bootstrap confidence intervals (CI) for significant isotopic incorporation, bootstrap replicates ( $n = 1000$ ) were run with the HTS-SIP R package (Youngblut et al. 2018a); an OTU was considered as having isotopic incorporation (true positive) if the lower CI was  $>0$  (Hungate et al. 2015).

Phylogenetic analyses were performed in SeaView (Gouy et al. 2010) following alignment with MUSCLE (Edgar 2004). Maximum likelihood (ML) with selected substitution model as general time reversible (GTR) was performed with PhyML version 3.0 (Guindon et al. 2010). *dsrB* gene translation was performed using EMBOSS Transeq (Rice et al. 2000). W-IQ-TREE (<http://iqtree.cibiv.univie.ac.at>) was used to find the best model using Model Finder (Trifinopoulos et al. 2016; Kalyaanamoorthy et al. 2017), which resulted in LG + G4 model. Trees were visualized and edited using iTOL (Letunic and Bork 2016). Statistical analyses and plots were performed using R.Studio Version 3.3.0 (Team and Others 2015). Blomberg's  $K$  (Blomberg et al. 2003) and Pagel's  $\lambda$  (Pagel 1999) tests for significantly nonrandom phylogenetic distributions of growing patterns from qSIP were calculated on all OTUs (labeled and unlabeled) using the phylosignal R package (Keck et al. 2016). Both indices test species' traits under a Brownian motion model (BM) of trait evolution; that is whether or not the distribution of traits across different phylogenetic groups is random or nonrandom. The BM assigns a 0 value to indicate phylogenetic independence (random phylogenetic distribution of traits) and values close to 1 for a strong phylogenetic signal (nonrandom phylogenetic distribution of traits) (Morrissey et al. 2016; Morrissey et al. 2018; Morrissey et al. 2017).

The sizes of the growing and dying fractions of each population, and their rates of change, was calculated using a model developed to determine population growth and mortality rates from  $^{18}\text{O}$ -qSIP data (Koch et al. 2018). For all calculations, bootstrap resampling of replicates within each treatment was used to reproduce the uncertainty and 90% CIs were estimated. These calculations were performed in R using the code at [https://bitbucket.org/QuantitativeSIP/qsip\\_repo](https://bitbucket.org/QuantitativeSIP/qsip_repo) (Koch et al. 2018). Sequence data were entered in the NCBI Short Read Archive under BioProject ID PRJNA498588.

## 3.4 Results

### 3.4.1 Dissolved oxygen measurements

The sediment-water interface was well-oxygenated at the beginning of the incubation (70% atm. saturation), which declined exponentially during the first week until reaching 0% atm. saturation after day 5 (Fig. 1a). This was not observed in the killed control, showing that the rapid drawdown of benthic  $\text{O}_2$  was due to respiration. Small fluctuations in the oxygen measurements in the killed control were likely due to temperature fluctuations of the incubator itself ( $\pm 1$  °C), since the non-invasive fiber optic oxygen sensor spots are temperature sensitive (Ortega-Arbulú et al. 2019). By the end of the experiment (28 days), the sediments had turned from a gray-brown color to black, indicating the presence of iron-sulfur minerals (e.g., FeS and  $\text{FeS}_2$ ), and upon opening the vials

sulfide could be smelled. Thus, while the headspace contained oxygen at the beginning of the experiment, the sediments had become anoxic and sulfidic (euxinic) by the end of the incubation period.

### 3.4.2 qSIP of 16S rRNA genes

$^{18}\text{O}$  labeling of 16S rRNA genes was observed at 7 and 28 days, with 16S rRNA genes at 28 days exhibiting a higher degree of labeling compared with 7 days (Figs. 1b, c). The decrease in oxygen (Fig. 1a) was mirrored by a decrease in 16S rRNA gene copies: the total number of 16S rRNA gene copies per gram wet sediment decreased during the first week, from  $2.5 (\pm 0.12) \times 10^8$  at  $T_0$  to  $1.4 (\pm 0.09) \times 10^8$  at 7 days, and then decreased further after 28 days to  $1.1 (\pm 0.04) \times 10^8$ . This indicated net microbial death with a fraction of the community maintaining growth during the incubation.

The composition of microbial populations at 7 and 28 days were markedly different (analysis of variance;  $F = 3991$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), but dominated by the same phyla in nearly equal proportion (Figure S1). In total, 443 OTUs were detected at both timepoints, whereas 235 OTUs were detected at only a single timepoint (Figure S1). In all, 128 OTUs were  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeled after 7 days, which increased to 395 OTUs after 28 days (Figure S1). Of the  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs at day 7, Bacteroidetes were the most abundant taxa with 67 OTUs (49.4% of the  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs), followed by 39 OTUs affiliated with Proteobacteria (42.1% of the  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs) (Fig. 2 and S1). On the other hand, the 395  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs at day 28 were comprised mostly of Proteobacteria (157 OTUs, 61.4% of  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs), followed by Bacteroidetes (94 OTUs; 18.1% of  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs) and Planctomycetes (53 OTUs; 8.71% of  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs) (Fig. 2 and S1).

Although the scope of this study is to determine the growing microorganisms, non-growing cells due to dormancy and or slow growing cells are represented in our results as those OTUs that did not become labeled. Accordingly, a total of 248 OTUs constituted non-growing microbes (unlabeled) in both incubations (Fig. 3). The nongrowing or slow growing bacterial groups were dominated by OTUs affiliated with sulfate-reducing lineages in the Deltaproteobacteria (42 OTUs), Planctomycetes (38 OTUs), Epsilonbacteraeota (7 OTUs), and Spirochaetes (9 OTUs) (Fig. 3).

Growing bacterial OTUs affiliated with MDM (Rinke et al. 2013) candidate phyla Aegiribacteria (1 OTU, 0.08 EAF) and Patescibacteria (1 OTU, 0.04 EAF) were detected only in the 7-day incubations (Fig. 2 and Table 1). Labeled OTUs affiliated with MDM groups after 28 days included Latescibacteria (10 OTUs,  $0.24 \pm 0.04$  EAF) and Calditrichaeota (1 OTU, 0.24 EAF). The only MDM group that was  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeled at both 7- and 28-day timepoints was the candidate phylum WPS-2 (Fig. 2 and Table 1).

The change in oxygen concentrations over the course of the experiment allowed us to group OTU growth into five categories based on the pattern of  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeling at 7 days (micro-oxic conditions) and 28 days (anoxic conditions) (Fig. 3) [1]. Micro-aerophilic growth was defined as  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs detected only at day 7, and not at 28 days [2]. Anaerobic growth was defined as  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs detected only after establishment of euxinic conditions at day 28, and not at 7 days [3]. Facultative anaerobic growth was defined as  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs overlapping between both timepoints [4].

Aerotolerant anaerobic growth was defined as OTUs detected at both timepoints, but only  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeled during anoxic and sulfidic conditions [5]. Dormant or slow growing microorganisms were defined as OTUs that were not  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeled at either timepoint.

### 3.4.3 $^{18}\text{O}$ labeling of *dsrB* genes

Bacterial *dsrB* genes exhibited  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeling only after development of euxinic conditions sampled at 28 days of incubation, with peak DNA buoyant density (BD) of  $1.71 (\pm 0.008) \text{ g mL}^{-1}$ , which was greater than the control where the peak was  $1.686 (\pm 0.003)$  (Fig. 4a). This corresponds to an increase in the atomic enrichment percentage of  $>20\%$ , which is typically regarded as the threshold for significant isotopic labeling (Lueders 2015). In total, 89 *dsrB* sequences were obtained by molecular cloning from the density fractions that exhibited peak  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeling (Fig. 4a). Most of the  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled *dsrB* sequences were affiliated with novel groups of uncultivated Acidobacteria SRB (61 sequences, 82% of total), whereas the remainder of  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled *dsrB* sequences (13 sequences, 18% of total) were related to Deltaproteobacteria SRB (Fig. 4b). The  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled Acidobacteria *dsrB* genes include a clade of four *dsrB* sequences with close relation to a novel clade of SRB originally described as “novel *dsrB* Group IV” from the Guaymas hydrothermal vent (Dhillon et al. 2003), raising the possibility that this group of Acidobacteria contains both thermophilic and mesophilic SRB.

### 3.4.4 Growth and death dynamics of $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled populations

After 7 days, most genera exhibited gross reproduction and three OTUs exhibited significant net production (defined as 90% CI in the growth/death model not overlapping 0), affiliated with Sva0081 sediment group (Desulfobacteraceae), *Desulfobacterium catecholicum*, and SB-5 family of Bacteroidetes (Fig. 5). The rate of mortality per genus was higher at day 28 than day 7, indicating that establishment of euxinic conditions caused the majority of cells per genus to die faster than they grew (Fig. 5). However, despite the higher net mortality rates, many exhibited relatively low positive gross reproduction rates (Fig. 5) indicating that a smaller proportion of individuals per population were actively growing. This is consistent with the result that most of the OTUs were  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeled at this timepoint. We also calculated the whole-assembly turnover estimated via qSIP using the developed model of Koch *et al.* (Koch et al. 2018). The seven-day incubation had an average community turnover value of  $0.28 \text{ d}^{-1}$  (90% CI:  $0.219\text{--}0.36 \text{ d}^{-1}$ ), whereas 28 days of incubation had an average community turnover value of  $0.371 \text{ d}^{-1}$  (90% CI:  $0.315\text{--}0.476 \text{ d}^{-1}$ ).

## 3.5 Discussion

Dissolved oxygen has declined in ocean water in the past five decades due to the increase in global temperature (Schmidtke et al. 2017), resulting in the expansion of oxygen minimum zones (OMZs) in the oceans (Wright et al. 2012). In coastal settings, increased human activity such as high fertilizer use has caused widespread eutrophication and recurrent bottom water anoxia that influences the benthos (Valiela et al. 1992; D’Avanzo and Kremer 1994; Kemp et al. 2005). The effects of such benthic anoxia on the growth of diverse bacterial populations driving elemental cycles is poorly understood. We used  $^{18}\text{O}$ -qSIP to quantify for the first time to quantify the growing bacterial



populations in response to benthic oxygen depletion, including many groups for which there currently exists no cultured representatives.

### 3.5.1 Assessing effects of incubation conditions

Although the sediment surface became oxygen depleted after 5 days of incubation, there was an oxygenated headspace, and O<sub>2</sub> measurements of the headspace confirmed oxygen throughout the 28-day incubations at concentrations of 90–80% atmospheric saturation (data not shown). The gradual depletion of oxygen at the benthic interface during the first week thus indicates a shoaling of the oxic–anoxic transition zone within the sediments into the overlying ASW. Benthic anoxia is a common feature of the sampled environment in Waquoit Bay (Cape Cod, USA), where increased nitrogen input to the watershed through atmospheric deposition, fertilizer, and wastewater has led to an increase in primary productivity and recurrent bottom water anoxia (Valiela et al. 1992; D’Avanzo and Kremer 1994). This phenomenon is also known to occur in the marine environment, for example, in the Benguela upwelling system where summer time water column stratification results in a shoaling of the sediment oxic–anoxic transition zone several meters upwards into the bottom waters and where sulfide accumulates to high levels on the continental shelf (Lavik et al. 2009). Thus, our experimental conditions are relevant to naturally occurring benthic habitats in estuaries and continental shelf settings that are especially prone to the development of anoxia. Dormancy by anaerobic bacteria during periods of oxygenation at the sediment surface may explain how they survive until favorable anoxic conditions are re-established, for example, after burial deep below the seafloor in anoxic sediments (Orsi 2018).

Given the detection limit of the fiber optic oxygen measurements (ca. 0.5 % atmospheric saturation), we cannot rule out the presence of trace amounts of dissolved oxygen within the overlying seawater or sediment. Nevertheless, the appearance of black color throughout the sediments and the strong smell of sulfide at the end of the 28-day incubation strongly indicated anoxic conditions in the sediments by the end of the experiment. The strong smell of sulfide suggests that the black color reflected formation of amorphous iron–sulfur compounds, caused by a reaction between oxidized Fe (III) with HS<sup>-</sup> (Rickard and Luther 2007). As we sampled the entire sediment slurry for our qSIP analysis, we likely sampled a mixture of both anoxic and micro-aerophilic habitats that were present as a steep redox gradient within the flasks. Therefore, the active microbes detected at 7 days probably represent microaerophilic bacteria, whereas active microbes sampled at 28 days were living under predominantly anoxic and sulfidic conditions.

It is likely that anoxic microsites likely developed within the sediment in the first 7 days, potentially complicating the categorization of aerobic, facultatively anaerobic, and aerotolerant growth in OTUs detected at this timepoint. Anaerobic SRB can remain active in oxidized marine sediments within anoxic microniches (Jørgensen 1977), but some SRB are aerotolerant since they can grow (albeit slightly) in the presence of oxygen [reviewed in (Rabus et al. 2015)]. The total area occupied by anoxic microsites should be much smaller compared with the rest of the bulk sediment sampled that experienced oxygen during the first 7 days. Thus, the dominant OTUs detected at day 7 are unlikely

to be those living in anoxic microsites. But, it is possible that some strictly anaerobic populations survived at low abundance under oxygen exposure during the first 7 days within anoxic microsites.

It is also likely that after the 28 days of incubation the label turned over, and a second generation of microbial cells became labeled not only from  $^{18}\text{O}$  water but also from  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled organic compounds that formed earlier. In this case, some of the labeling detected at the 28-day timepoint could have been due to assimilation of  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled organic compounds. However, the concentration of any  $^{18}\text{O}$  transferred to organic matter would be diluted within the much larger (unlabeled) dissolved organic matter pool. This would then be further diluted several orders of magnitude by the  $^{18}\text{O}$  label in the water that was present at a molar concentration. Thus, the potential assimilation of  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled organic compounds is unlikely to affect the conclusion that the degree of  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeling is a measure of assimilation of  $^{18}\text{O}$  from water, and thus activity, in growing populations.

### 3.5.2 Phylogenetic grouping of redox-specific activities

The oxygenated concentrations during the first week and development of anoxic and sulfidic conditions at 28 days allowed us classify  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs detected between these two timepoints into four categories of growth (Fig. 3) [1]; micro-aerophilic growth [2], facultative anaerobic growth [3], anaerobic growth, and [4] aerotolerant anaerobic growth (see Results for category definitions). The non-growing microorganisms were also considered as an additional category [5]: dormant or slow-growers. We recognize that because oxygen was present in the headspace throughout the incubation, strict anaerobic growth cannot be unequivocally assigned to the OTUs. But, given the increase in their growth later in the incubation after the onset of euxinic conditions at the sediment-water interface were established, we interpret this as an indicator of anaerobic growth. We also recognize that our designation of facultative versus aerotolerant anaerobic growth is arbitrary, but is used here to differentiate between those OTUs labeled at day 28 present also at day 7 that were, or were not,  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeled at day 7.

OTUs exhibiting micro-aerophilic growth had a relatively weak phylogenetic distribution across the phylogeny ( $\lambda = 0.38$ ) (Fig. 3). In contrast,  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs exhibiting anaerobic growth corresponded to non-random phylogenetic groupings ( $\lambda = 0.9$  and  $0.87$ , respectively), implying that traits conferring anaerobic growth were conserved in the sampled communities.  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled organisms detected at both timepoints (facultative anaerobes) did not display a significant phylogenetic pattern ( $\lambda = 0.16$ ), suggesting that facultative anaerobic growth was not a conserved trait in our sampled communities.

### 3.5.3 Populations exhibiting micro-aerophilic growth

A total of 47 OTUs affiliated with orders Flavobacteriales and Chitinophagales within the phylum Bacteroidetes were the most active growing bacteria after 7 days, maintaining metabolic activity under suboxic conditions. Similarly, seven OTUs affiliated with order Anaerolineae (Chloroflexi) were  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeled at day 7 ( $0.08 \pm 0.008$  EAF). Furthermore, 26 OTUs affiliated with Gammaproteobacteria

(mainly orders Cellvibrionales and Thiotrichales) were labeled at day 7, and demonstrated relatively high EAF values ( $0.102 \pm 0.031$ ) indicating micro-aerophilic growth (Fig. 3).

$^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs affiliated with candidate class Gracilibacteria were observed solely at day 7, consistent with a micro-aerophilic growth (Table 1). Gracilibacteria have a cytochrome/quinol oxidase (Rinke et al. 2013), most specifically cytochrome *bd*, which is implicated in ameliorating oxidative stress effects [reviewed in (Giuffrè et al. 2014)]. Cytochrome *bd* could thus help to explain the higher growth of Gracilibacteria under low oxygen conditions.

### 3.5.4 Populations exhibiting anaerobic growth

There were 256 OTUs that exhibited a pattern of  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeling consistent with aerotolerant anaerobic growth (Fig. 3). They are apparently capable of surviving in the presence of oxygen during the beginning of the incubation, but their growth was maximized under anoxic conditions. The majority of these OTUs were affiliated with the Gammaproteobacteria (69 OTUs;  $0.18 \pm 0.06$  EAF) and Deltaproteobacteria (19 OTUs;  $0.29 \pm 0.02$  EAF). The highest  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTU was affiliated with genus *Zhongshania* that contains the facultative anaerobic heterotrophic species *Zhongshania aliphaticivorans* SM-2<sup>T</sup> (Jia et al. 2016). In addition, one of the  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled Gammaproteobacteria OTUs was affiliated with the JTB255/Woesiaceae clade, which have been identified as the most dominant dark carbon-fixing microbes with a capacity to oxidize reduced sulfur compounds in anoxic and suboxic coastal sediments (Dyksma et al. 2016). The genus *Sandaracinus* in Deltaproteobacteria known to degrade complex polysaccharides (Garcia and Müller 2014), also exhibited aerotolerant anaerobic growth. At day 28 after the onset of euxinic conditions, 10 OTUs affiliated with the Latescibacteria were detected that grew anaerobically (Table 1). This is consistent with their proposed fermentative mode of metabolism in anoxic sediment and water columns (Rinke et al. 2013; Youssef et al. 2015).

OTUs affiliated with the known SRB genera (Wasmund et al. 2017) *Desulforhopalus*, *Desulfosarcina*, *Desulfobulbus*, *Desulfopila*, *Desulfobacter*, *Desulfotignum*, and *Desulfatitalea* were well-represented comprising 9% (42 OTUs) and 8% (26 OTUs) of the total sequences at days 7 and 28, respectively. However, only one SRB OTU was  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeled, which occurred at day 7 and was affiliated with the SRB genus *Desulfobulbus* (0.10 EAF). The relatively small number of growing Deltaproteobacteria SRB is low compared with the more numerous populations of sulfate-reducing Acidobacteria that have higher  $^{18}\text{O}$  EAF values (Figs. 3, 4). This indicates that these anaerobic Acidobacteria SRB were growing faster compared with the Deltaproteobacteria SRB.

Acidobacteria belong to several newly discovered groups of SRB, showing that dissimilatory sulfur metabolism is more widespread than previously thought (Müller et al. 2015; Anantharaman et al. 2018). For example, Acidobacteria with a dissimilatory sulfur metabolism have been recently identified in acidic peatland (Anantharaman et al. 2018; Hausmann et al. 2018) and a DNA-SIP study (Pester et al. 2010) showed activity of *dsrAB*-containing organisms derived from Acidobacteria (Hausmann et al. 2018). Our study shows that in addition to acidic peatland, *dsrB* carrying Acidobacteria grow in anoxic estuarine sediments with a relatively fast rate. Their increased growth

rate and activity compared to Deltaproteobacteria SRB shown here implies that they should have a large impact on dissimilatory sulfur cycling under anoxic conditions.

Our finding that the majority of deltaproteobacterial sulfate reducers had minimal growth is in line with the previous reports that their mean in situ doubling times are on the order of months to years (Hoehler and Jørgensen 2013). Metabolic activity (e.g., rRNA synthesis) in natural microbial communities is typically followed by cell division (Papp et al. 2018), but metabolic activity of non-growing organisms can also influence biogeochemical cycles (Hoehler and Jørgensen 2013). For example, the increase in activity of SRB *Candidatus Desulfosporosinus infrequens* can occur independent of cell growth-associated processes (Hausmann et al. 2019). Thus, the low degree of  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeling in abundant deltaproteobacteria SRB seen in our study (Fig. 3) may relate to a different ecophysiological strategy (e.g., slow growth) compared with the faster growing Acidobacteria SRB.

Within the Planctomycetes, members of the uncultured OM190 clade were abundant (44% total Planctomycetes) and only became  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeled at day 28 (Fig. 3), indicating anaerobic growth. Representatives of the OM190 clade closely related to anaerobic ammonia oxidizing bacteria (anammox) were also detected in hypoxic estuarine surface sediments in the East China Sea (Ye et al. 2016). The anaerobic growth of OM190 clade organisms seen here is consistent with a potential anammox metabolism.

The  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled Actinobacteria were dominated by OTUs most closely related to the enigmatic Sva0996 actinobacterial clade first described from marine sediments (Ravenschlag et al. 1999), the "*Candidatus Actinomarinales*" (Ghai et al. 2013), and *Rhodococcus*. While aerobic growth of *Rhodococcus* is well known as it relates to hydrocarbon degradation (Rosenberg 2006), our results showing facultative anaerobic growth indicate that *Rhodococcus* has potential to degrade hydrocarbons also under anoxic conditions in sediments. A facultative anaerobic lifestyle also explains why *Rhodococcus* are often found in deep seafloor anoxic marine sediments (Inagaki et al. 2003).

The  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled Verrucomicrobia were dominated by OTUs affiliated with the uncultured DEV007 clade, first reported from the Elbe River in Germany (unpublished data, accession number: AJ401107).  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled OTUs affiliated with DEV007 were labeled at 7 days and became increasingly labeled after 28 days and the establishment of anoxic conditions (Fig. 2). This is consistent with biogeographic surveys that have detected this group in anoxic estuarine sediments (unpublished data, accession number: JN672646), OMZs (unpublished data, accession number: MG875625), and marine sediments (Cornall et al. 2016). However, the DEV007 clade is also found in oxic seawater attached to particles (Orsi et al. 2016). Our  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeling results showing a facultative anaerobic growth of the DEV007 clade explains this wide biogeographic range.

An OTU affiliated with the WPS-2 (Writtenberg Polluted Soil) clade was the only MDM group exhibiting facultative anaerobic growth (Fig. 2). The WPS clade was first described in a study of polychlorinated biphenyl-polluted soil in Germany (Nogales et al. 2001) and was since detected in a wide range of oxic and anoxic environments (Camanocha and Dewhirst 2014). The facultatively

anaerobic growth shown here could potentially explain the ability of the WPS-2 group to survive in a large number of habitats with widely varying redox states.

### 3.5.5 Growth and death dynamics of $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled populations

Although total microbial abundance decreased over the incubation by nearly an order of magnitude, 16S rRNA genes became increasingly enriched in  $^{18}\text{O}$  (Fig. 1c). This raised the possibility that within populations, a high number of cells were dying while a smaller number were growing. In order to investigate this possibility further, we applied a model (Koch et al. 2018) that uses the  $^{18}\text{O}$ -qSIP data to calculate the number of  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled and -unlabeled 16S rRNA genes per OTU and the changes in their ratio over time to estimate rates of gross reproduction, mortality, and net production of individual OTUs (Fig. 5). After seven days, only three OTUs exhibited net production (defined as net production 90% CI not overlapping zero), which were affiliated with the Sva0081 sediment group (Desulfobacteraceae), *Desulfobacterium catecholicum*, and SB-5 family of Bacteroidetes. Our analysis suggests that the Sva0081 marine benthic group (MBG), a putative group of SRB that are an important sink of acetate (Dyksma et al. 2018a) and  $\text{H}_2$  (Dyksma et al. 2018b) in coastal marine sediments, was one of the fastest growing populations under micro-aerophilic conditions at day seven (Fig. 5). The increased micro-aerophilic growth of Sva0081-MBG individuals is consistent with their higher acetate uptake rates in oxic–suboxic surface layer sediment slurries [82]. As Sva0081-MBG are  $\text{H}_2$  oxidizers (Dyksma et al. 2018b), it is possible that the fast growing Sva0081-MBG individuals at the oxic–anoxic interface were also utilizing fermentation-derived  $\text{H}_2$  diffusing upwards from the deeper anoxic sediments. *Desulfobacterium catecholicum*, which exhibited net production at day seven (Fig. 5), is a mesophilic SRB that can also perform dissimilatory reduction of nitrate to ammonium (Szewzyk and Pfennig 1987). This would explain its higher growth rate under the micro-aerophilic conditions at day seven during which nitrate was possibly still present. The SB-5 group of Bacteroidetes belongs to the Cytophagales and was previously detected in a benzene degrading, sulfate-reducing consortium (Phelps et al. 1998). The high net production under micro-aerophilic conditions indicates this group was growing faster compared with most other OTUs (Fig. 5). After 28 days, most of the OTUs were  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeled (Fig 2). However, the rate of mortality per genus was higher at day 28 than day 7, indicating that establishment of euxinic conditions caused the majority of cells per genus to die faster than they grew (Fig. 5). However, despite the higher the net mortality rates, many exhibited relatively low positive gross reproduction rates. This indicates that a smaller proportion of individuals within each OTU were actively growing, while the majority of individuals were dying. This small fraction of active cells per population explains how nearly all OTUs became  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeled by day 28, despite of the increase in total microbial mortality. Larger mortality compared with production at the end of the 28-day incubation could be partly explained by a decrease in electron donors (e.g., organic matter) and acceptors (e.g., nitrate, Fe(III), and sulfate). Indeed, under normal conditions organic matter and dissolved ions from seawater (e.g., sulfate) would be slowly but continuously entering the sediment to fuel new microbial growth. In our incubations, however, nutrients were constantly being depleted without replacement. Some of the inactive populations could also be explained by an increase in dormant cells due to unfavorable environmental conditions (Kearns et al. 2016).

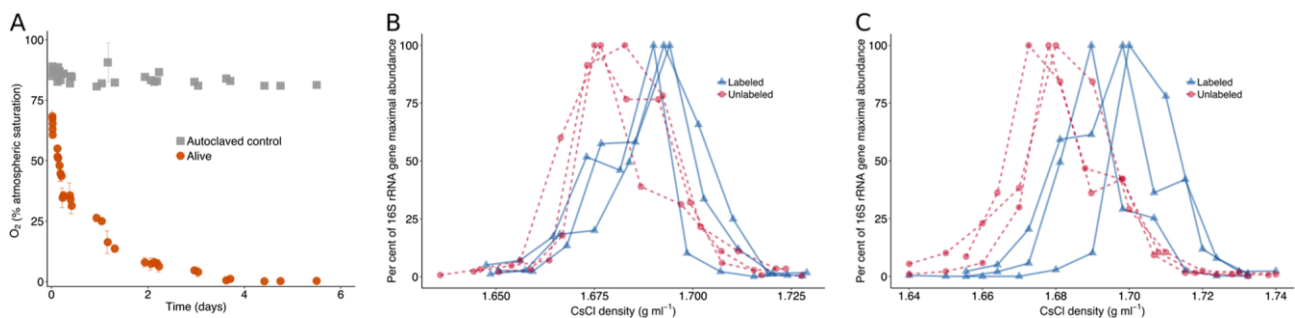
### 3.6 Conclusions

Our findings provide the first experimental evidence demonstrating the redox conditions promoting growth in several groups of uncultured “microbial dark matter”, validating hypotheses put forth by earlier metagenomics studies. The data help to explain previously observed biogeographic patterns for many uncultivated groups of bacteria that tend to correlate with anoxic or low oxygen conditions in aquatic habitats. This information could be helpful to guide future cultivation efforts for groups of ubiquitous, yet uncultured, bacterial taxa.

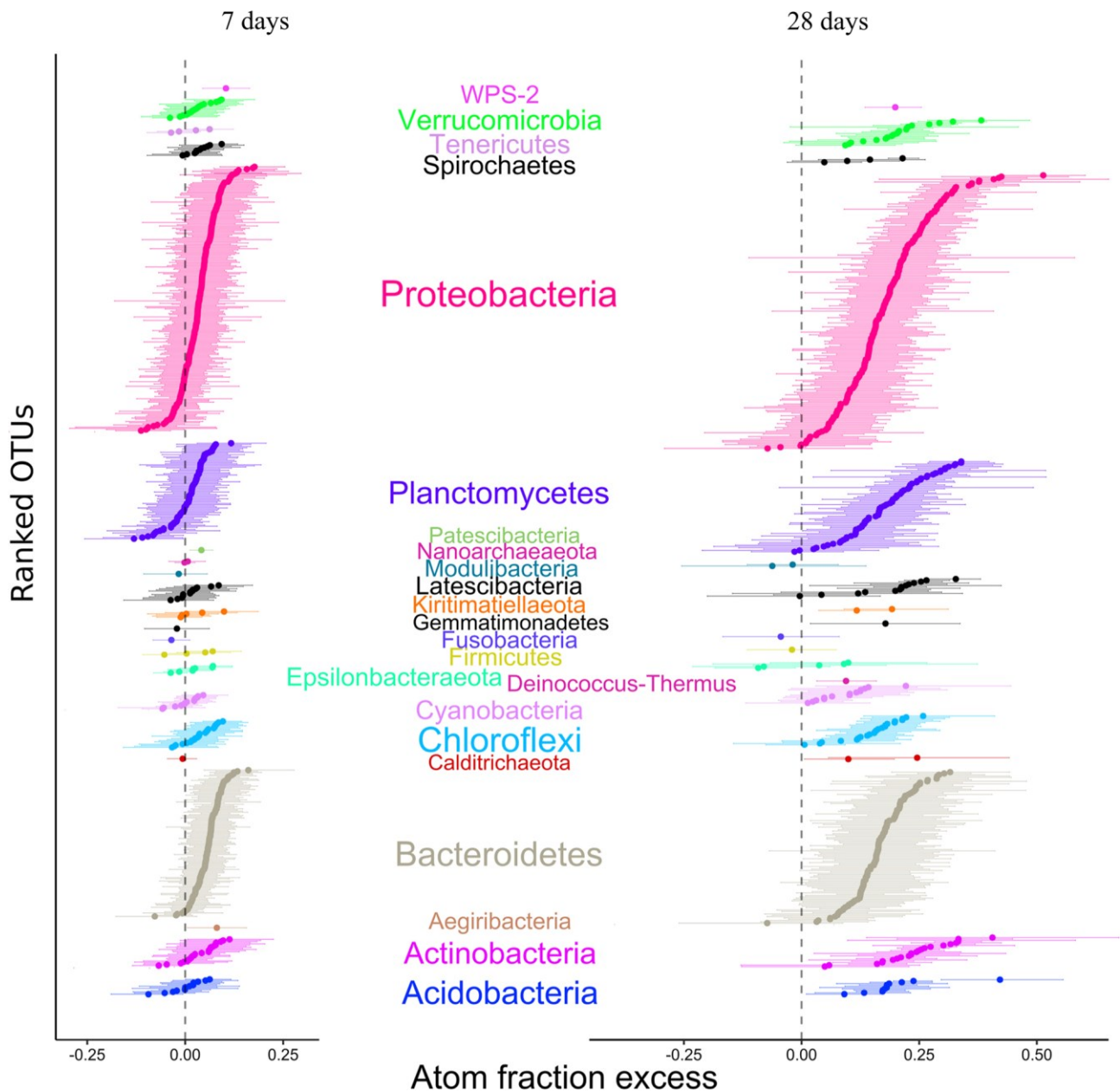
### Acknowledgements

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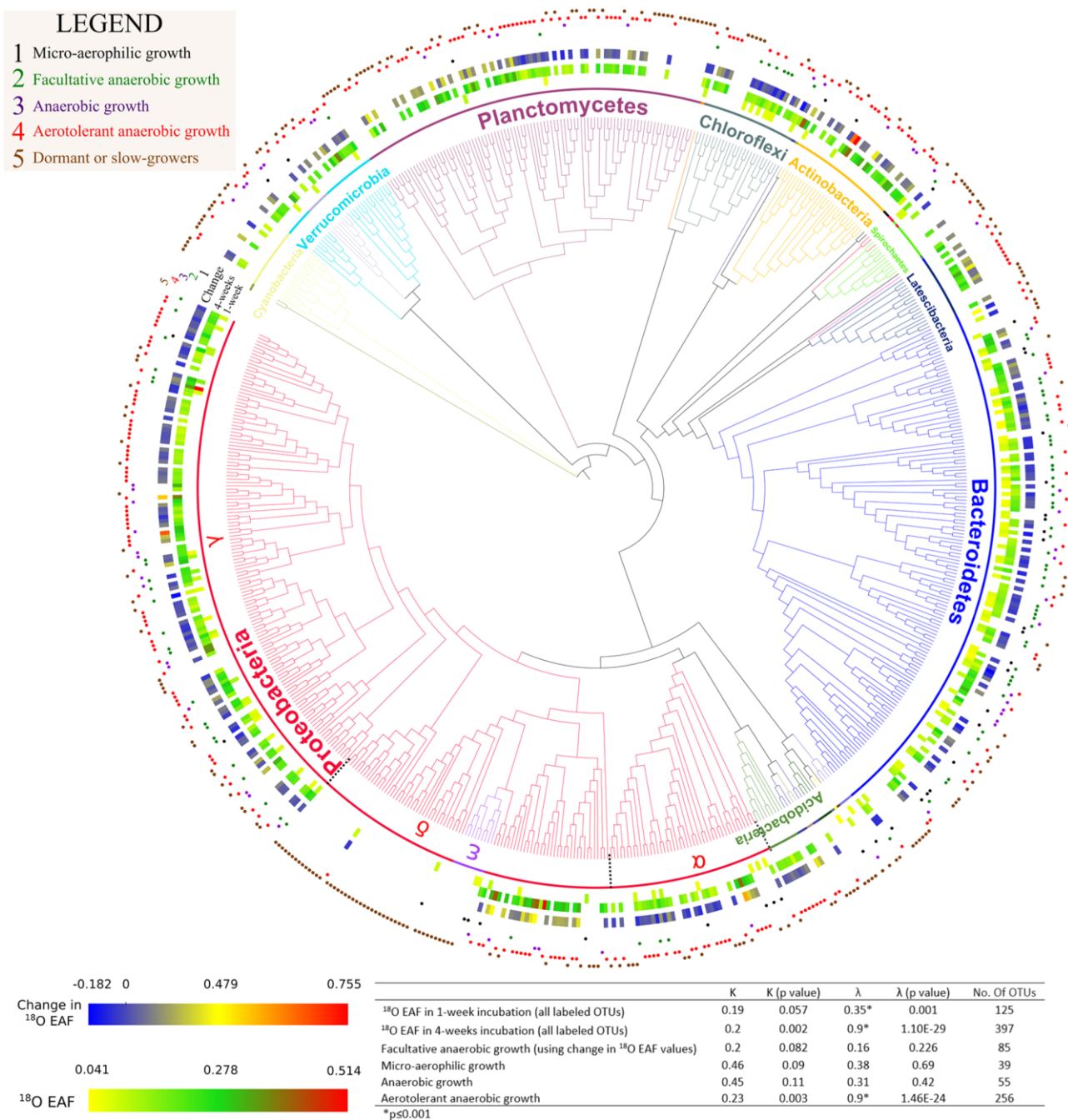
## Figures



**Fig. 1. a** Benthic O<sub>2</sub> concentrations during the incubation and killed (autoclaved) control. **b, c** Quantification of 16S rRNA gene copies across CsCl density gradient fractions after 7 (**b**) and 28 days (**c**). <sup>18</sup>O water replicates are represented by blue solid lines with triangles and unlabeled replicates (control) are represented by red dashed lines with circles. The y axis represents the relative abundance of 16S rRNA genes quantified with qPCR, normalized to maximal abundance across all density fractions.



**Fig. 2.** OTU-specific shifts in the median atom fraction excess ( $^{18}\text{O}$ ) of OTUs with 90% confidence interval (CI). OTUs were colored by phylum. OTUs that do not have a 90% CI overlapping with 0 are considered to be  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeled.



**Fig. 3.** Phylogeny of bacterial taxa detected and their extent of  $^{18}\text{O}$  labeling at 7 and 28 days. The inner circles correspond to excess atom fraction (EAF)  $^{18}\text{O}$  values of labeled taxa after 7 and 28 days of incubation. The outer ring of the heatmap represents the EAF change between the timepoints. The numbered and colored circles represent the growth mode of the OTUs and the legend defines the growth mode of categories explained in result section. Bottom panel shows phylogenetic signal tests (Blomberg's K and Pagel's  $\lambda$ ) and corresponding p-values for labeled taxa and growth mode categories



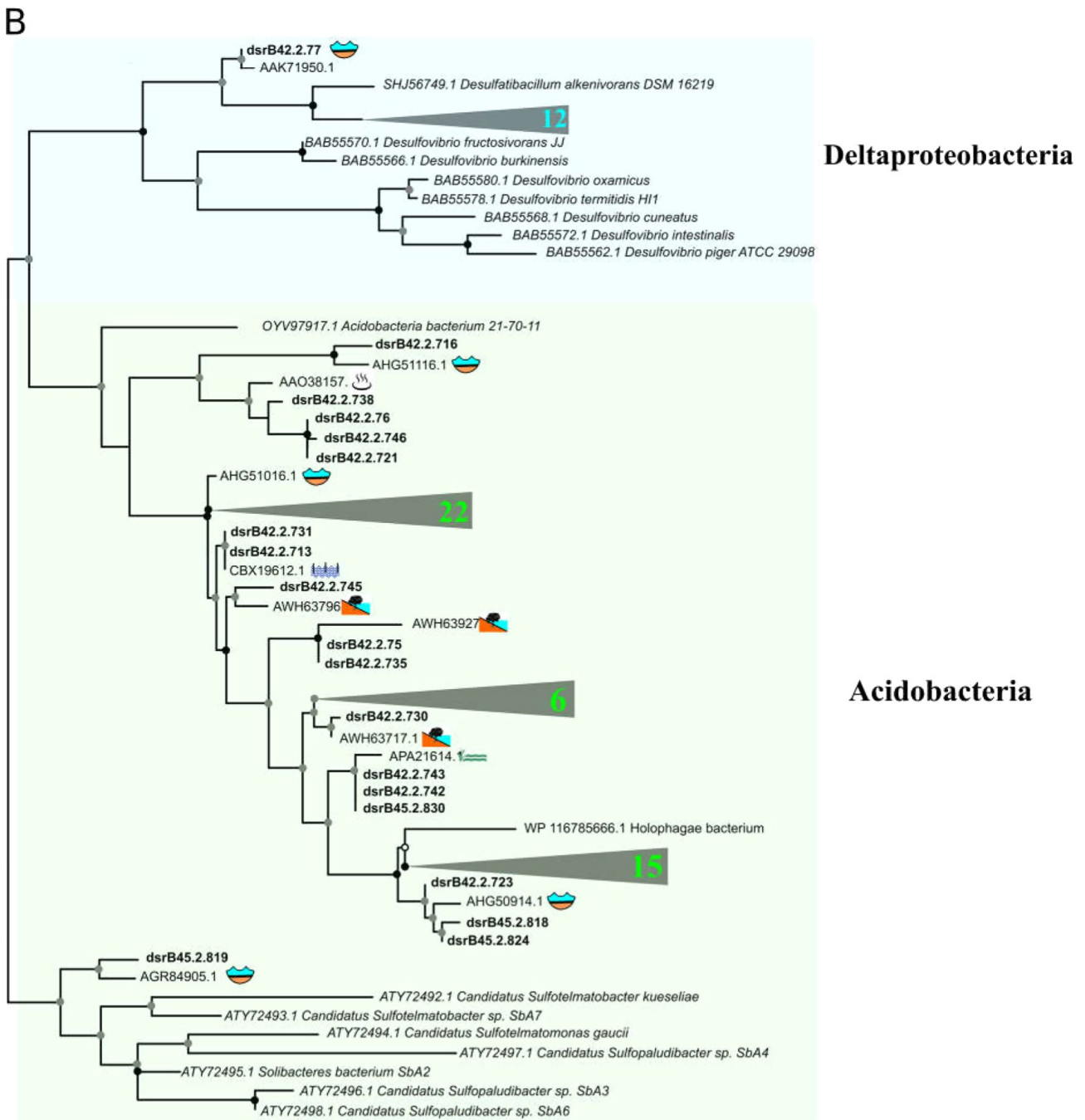
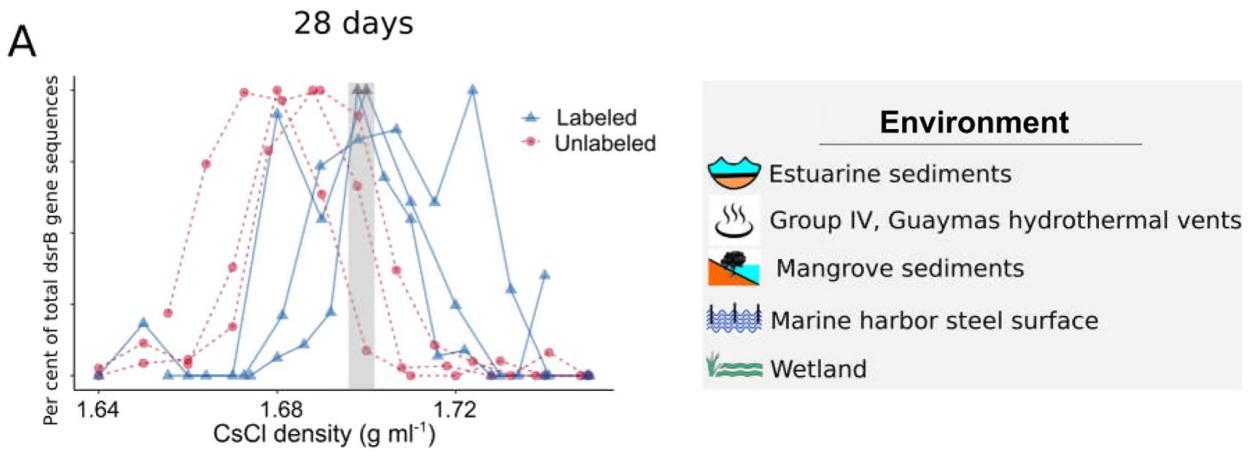
Group	Growth mode	EAF values (number of OTUs)	<i>r</i> -Value (net population growth rate)	<i>b</i> -Value (rates of reproduction)	<i>d</i> -Value <sup>a</sup> (mortality rate)
Aegiribacteria	Micro-aerophilic	0.08 ( <i>n</i> = 1)	-0.202	0.081	-0.288
Latescibacteria	Aerotolerant anaerobic	0.013 ± 0.008 ( <i>n</i> = 10)	-0.227	-0.038	-0.191
Gracilibacteria	Micro-aerophilic	0.04 ( <i>n</i> = 1) <sup>b</sup>	-0.172	-0.041	-0.136
Calditrichaceae	Aerotolerant anaerobic	-0.007 ( <i>n</i> = 1)	-0.214	-0.018	-0.197
WPS-2	Facultative anaerobic	0.1 ( <i>n</i> = 1) <sup>b</sup>	-0.339	0.079	-0.421
28 days of incubation					
Gracilibacteria	Aerotolerant anaerobic	0.17 ± 0.073 ( <i>n</i> = 2) <sup>b</sup>	-0.136	0.023	-0.171
Latescibacteria	Aerotolerant anaerobic	0.19 ± 0.023 ( <i>n</i> = 14) <sup>c</sup>	-0.373	0.019	-0.392
WPS-2	Facultative anaerobic	0.2 ( <i>n</i> = 1) <sup>b</sup>	-0.422	0.014	-0.436

<sup>a</sup>*r*, *b*, and *d* values correspond to the rates per day (d<sup>-1</sup>)

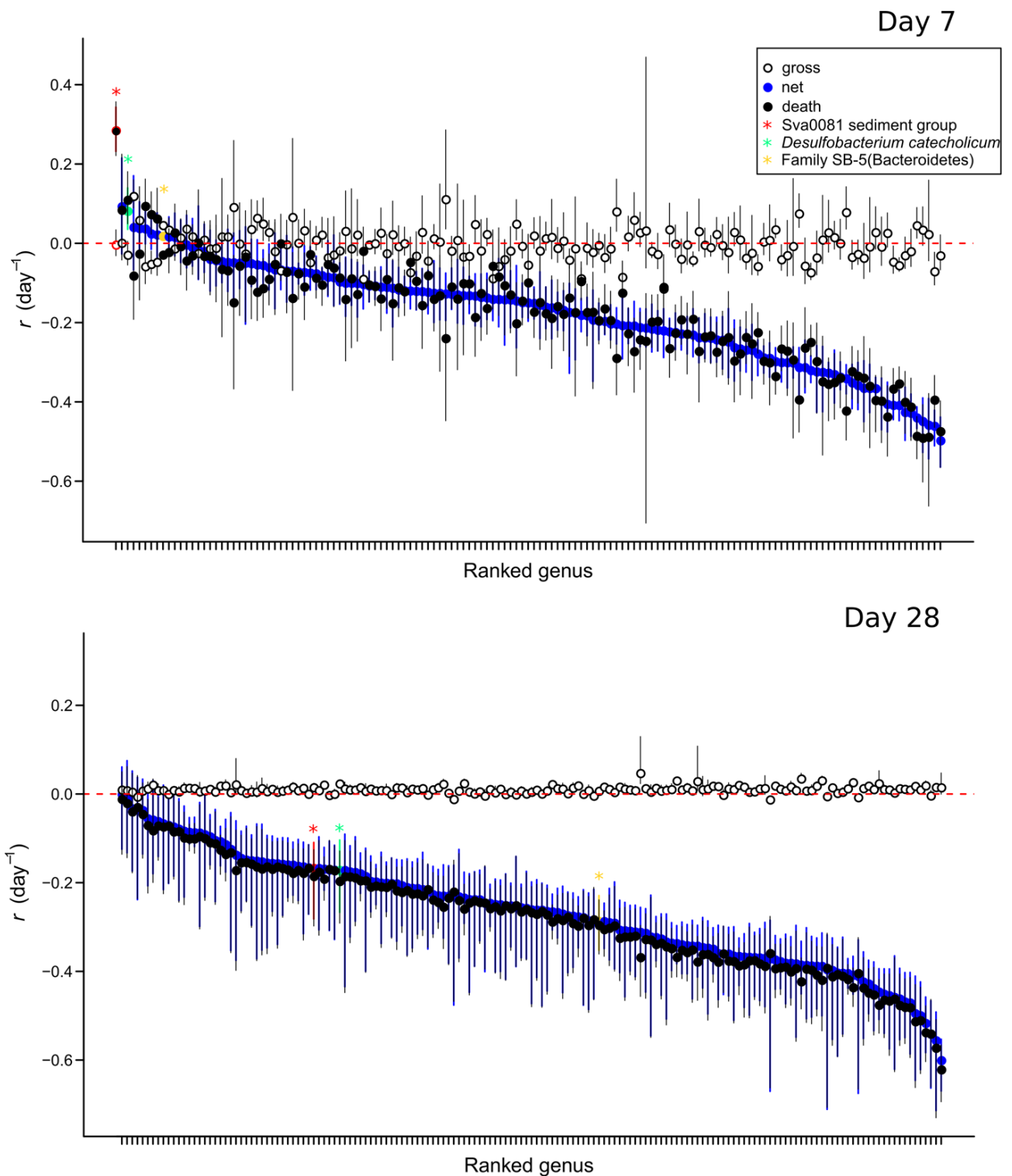
<sup>b</sup>Significantly growing microorganisms based on qSIP (i.e., lower boundary of bootstrap is >0)

<sup>c</sup>Most of the Latescibacteria grew (10 OTUs out of 14)

**Table 1.** A summary of growth by uncultivated taxa, previously designated as “microbial dark matter”, under various redox conditions

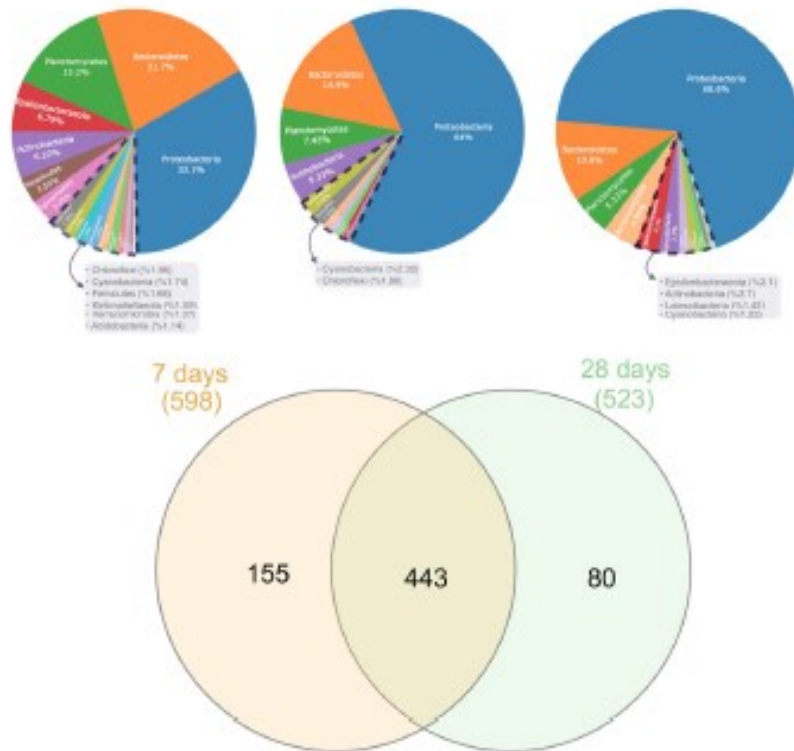


**Fig. 4.** Quantification of *dsrB* gene copies across CsCl density gradient fractions after 28 days.  $^{18}\text{O}$  water replicates are represented by blue solid lines with triangles and unlabeled replicates (control) are represented by red dashed lines with circles. The y axis represents the relative abundance of *dsrB* genes quantified with qPCR normalized to maximal abundance across all density fractions. b Phylogenetic tree of  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled *dsrB* genes including their most similar sequences from the NCBI nr database, bold sequences indicate those from this study. Collapsed clades (triangles) show the number of  $^{18}\text{O}$ -labeled *dsrB* gene sequences contained within the clade. Black circles at nodes represent bootstrap support of 90%, gray circles represent bootstrap support from 70 to 90%, and white circles represent bootstrap support from 70 to 50%.



**Fig. 5.** Population growth rates ( $r$ ) at 7 and 28 day timepoints. After 28 days, all taxa exhibited mortality rates greater than reproduction rates. Points indicate bootstrapped medians and bars show 90% confidence intervals for each OTU. The positive net production rates here are considered as statistically significant increase in the populations if the bootstraps are not crossing the zero. Open circles: rates of reproduction, black filled circles: mortality rates, blue filled circles: net reproduction rates. The only groups that exhibiting significant net production at day 7 are indicated with asterisks (see legend).

**A**



**B**

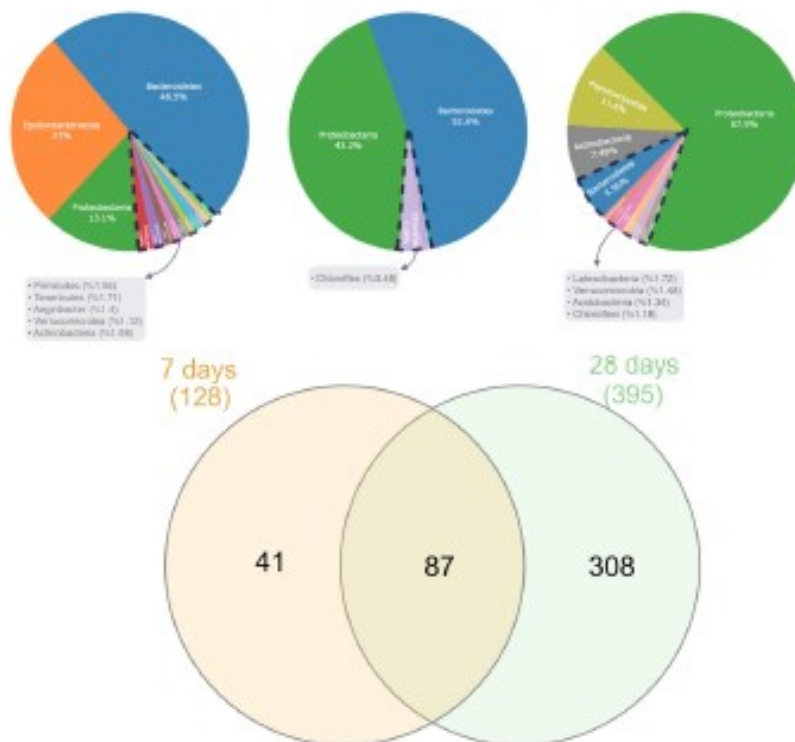


Figure S1: Pie charts displaying the proportions (%) and phylum-level composition of total (A) and labeled (B) 16S rRNA gene sequences together with corresponding number of overlapping and non-overlapping OTUs between the experimental timepoints.

# Chapter 4

## Primary production by mixotrophic bacteria in a deep subsurface hydrothermal ecosystem

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## 4.1 Abstract

Deep subsurface hydrothermal environments house enigmatic microbial communities that perform primary production in the absence of sunlight, helping to sustain subsurface ecosystems. Compared to autotrophs however, the contribution of primary production from mixotrophic taxa remains unquantified in deep hydrothermal ecosystems. Here, we used quantitative stable isotope probing to link  $^{13}\text{C}$  carbon fixation rates at different  $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$  concentrations (1 mM, 5 mM, 10 mM) to metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) in hydrothermal fluids from a deep (750 m below surface) subsurface aquifer. Across all three  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate concentrations tested, a significant positive correlation ( $P=0.002$ ) between  $^{13}\text{C}$ -fixation and the number of ABC transporters for organic substrates per MAG was observed. Most of the highest carbon fixation rates observed were associated with mixotrophic metabolism in nitrate-reducing, sulfur-oxidizing Gammaproteobacteria taxa encoding the Calvin-Benson-Bassham (CBB) carbon fixation pathway. The total amount of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate that was assimilated by these mixotrophic sulfide-oxidizers into biomass was higher compared to chemoautotrophs (primarily Aquificae) encoding the reverse TCA carbon fixation cycle. The relatively large contribution by mixotrophic bacteria to primary production from  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate could be traced into  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled bacterial MAGs that did not contain carbon fixation pathways, indicating a substantial amount of secondary production by heterotrophs is derived from mixotrophic primary-producers. Our data provide the first quantitative estimates on primary production by potential mixotrophic bacteria in a subsurface ecosystem, and indicate mixotrophy may be a previously underestimated source of primary production in these settings.

## 4.2 Significance

Deep hydrothermal fluids host vast number of microbes driving a broad range of biogeochemical cycles in conditions mostly devoid of photosynthesis, but the community-wide trophic networks, especially the carbon flow from chemolithoautotrophs to heterotrophs, are still poorly understood. By tracking the carbon in metabolically versatile microbes under oligotrophic conditions, we show that dominant nitrate-reducing, sulfur-oxidizing mixotrophic taxa play a crucial role in carbon turnover by employing the Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle for carbon fixation and genes necessary for utilizing wide range of organic carbon substrates. This study shows that metabolically diverse mixotrophs are a key source of primary production sustaining a subsurface hydrothermal ecosystem, allowing for the survival of the deep subsurface microbial hydrothermal ecosystem.

## 4.3 Introduction

Deep subsurface environments are the largest ecosystems in terms of size for prokaryotes whose biomass was estimated to be 23 to 31 petagrams of carbon (PgC) with  $2$  to  $6 \times 10^{29}$  cells (Magnabosco et al. 2018). The deep-subsurface biosphere drives a diverse range of biogeochemical cycles such as carbon and important nutrients for life (Magnabosco et al. 2018; Merino et al. 2019; Fullerton et al. 2021). The primary production in terrestrial deep subsurface is based on chemolithotrophy because no sunlight is available for the prokaryotes (Stevens 1997). Since photosynthetically derived organic carbon is often a limited nutrient for heterotrophs in deep subsurface (Pedersen 2000), *in situ* production of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) by chemolithoautotrophs supports the microbial communities (Probst et al. 2020; Magnabosco et al. 2016; Lau et al. 2016; Momper et al. 2017; Osburn et al. 2014; Emerson et al. 2016). Chemolithoautotrophic communities have been shown to be related to availability of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) in the deep-subsurface biosphere (Fullerton et al. 2021) which was predicted to have a dominant role in these communities (Stevens and McKinley 1995; Pedersen 1997). Specifically, dissolved inorganic and organic carbon concentrations in hot springs in Costa Rican convergent margin have been shown to have positive correlation with reductive tricarboxylic acid cycle-utilizing (rTCA) microbes, suggesting higher DIC derived from the subducting slab may help sustain chemolithoautotrophic-based ecosystems (Fullerton et al. 2021).

Depending on the environmental conditions, availability of energy sources and fluid composition, microbial carbon fixation pathways may differ as the dominant source of carbon fixation (Fullerton et al. 2021; Momper et al. 2017; Lau et al. 2016; Probst et al. 2017). In addition to autotrophs, mixotrophic microorganisms have been also shown to contribute to the carbon cycle in groundwater (Taubert et al. 2022). Although the potential carbon acquisition pathways of the microbes are predicted from mostly metagenome-based studies in diverse subsurface environments (Fullerton et al. 2021; Momper et al. 2017; Lau et al. 2016; Probst et al. 2017; Taubert et al. 2022), quantitative experimental data on the mechanisms of primary production that sustain microbial life in deep subsurface hydrothermal ecosystems is lacking.

To investigate the carbon flow from primary producers to secondary utilizers under different DIC concentrations in a deep (750 meters below surface) hydrothermal aquifer system (Biga Peninsula, Turkey), we used  $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$  as an isotope tracer to quantify microbial carbon assimilation by specific operational taxonomic units (OTUs) using the qSIP method (Hungate et al. 2015). We linked metagenome-assembled-genomes (MAGs) to  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled OTUs using a phylogenetic approach, to directly link genomic potential with carbon assimilation rates by specific taxa. The results show that bacterial mixotrophs dominated primary production across bicarbonate concentrations spanning the natural range present in the tested ecosystem (1-10 mM), and therefore are implicated as important microbial primary producers that support this deep subsurface hydrothermal ecosystem.



## 4.4 Results and Discussion

### 4.4.1 Biogeochemical setting.

The reservoir bedrock of the Bardakçılar geothermal field is metamorphically altered carbonate rocks (marble) embedded in Kazdağ massif (Yalcin 2007) (*SI Appendix*, Figure S2). Alkaline hydrothermal fluids from this carbonate aquifer become Na- and SO<sub>4</sub>-enriched while rising through the Upper Oligocene-Lower Miocene volcanic rocks (Akkuş et al. 2005), and were found to be depleted in NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (Dataset S1) which is in line with previous reports (Yalcin 2007). The fluids had a constant temperature of 73 °C and are alkaline (pH: 8.27), with 91.5 mg/l DIC (*SI Appendix*, Figure S1-B) and 0.8 mg/l dissolved organic carbon (DOC) (Dataset S1). The concentration of DOC is approximately an order of magnitude lower compared to other surface-influenced continental subsurface aquifers (Lopez-Fernandez et al. 2018), indicating an oligotrophic ecosystem where biological production is relatively limited. Oxidation-reduction potential (ORP) of the fluid was measured as +4 mV and hydrogen sulfide could be smelled, indicating anoxic fluids with a relatively low redox potential. Methane was detectable in the fluids, albeit at relatively low concentration of 0.079 (mg/l), and the δ<sup>13</sup>CH<sub>4</sub> was measured to be -10.4 ‰ (Dataset S1) indicating that the CH<sub>4</sub> in the fluids is likely not of a biological source but rather primarily derived from thermogenic pyrolysis of organic matter (Schoell 1988).

δ<sup>2</sup>H and δ<sup>18</sup>O composition of water in the fluids falls between the global meteoric water (GMWL)(Craig 1961) and East Mediterranean meteoric water lines (EMMWL)(Gat and Carmi 1970) (*SI Appendix*, Figure S1-A). Moreover, the δ<sup>18</sup>O values of the subsurface water are within the range of annual average δ<sup>18</sup>O values of precipitation and groundwater ( -6 to -9‰) from nearby sites in Turkey (Jasechko 2019). This suggests that the origin of the subsurface hydrothermal fluids in our tested ecosystem is modern meteoric water, consistent with prior studies of hydrothermal fluids of Biga Peninsula (Yalcin 2007).

### 4.4.2 Microbial community and experimental setup

Over a three-year period (2019, 2020 and 2021), we sampled a 750-meter-deep borehole penetrating a deep subsurface hydrothermal aquifer from the Bardakçılar geothermal field (Biga Peninsula, Turkey) (*SI Appendix*, Figure S2). Untreated, pristine alkaline hydrothermal fluid samples were collected directly from the borehole (*SI Appendix*, Figure S3) allowing us to measure geochemical parameters and access to the microbial community inhabiting this deep hydrothermal aquifer system. The microbial 16S rRNA gene concentrations in the alkaline hydrothermal fluids from the 750-meter aquifer were relatively low,  $1.8 \times 10^2 (\pm 3.3 \times 10^1)$  copies per mL (*SI Appendix*, Figure S4). For a comparison, we also sampled fluids from a shallower, 75-meter-deep well at the same site which had  $1.4 \times 10^3 (\pm 1.3 \times 10^1)$  16S rRNA gene copies per mL. Our results are in line with previous continental subsurface studies from 500 – 800 meters depth where similarly low 16S rRNA gene copy concentrations ( $10^1 - 10^4$  copies per mL) were detected (Lavalleur and Colwell 2013; Bomberg et al. 2016; Magnabosco et al. 2018). The 16S rRNA gene concentrations measured were

consistently higher than our detection limit of  $10^2$  total 16S copies per DNA extraction blank (Coskun et al. 2021), showing that we detected the natural microbial community emanating from the 750m deep hydrothermal aquifer with a minimal influence of contamination. The low microbial biomass can be explained by the ca. 10 fold lower concentration of DOC (Dataset S1) compared to other surface-influenced continental subsurface aquifers (Lopez-Fernandez et al. 2018), because DOC availability is known to shape microbial communities in continental subsurface crustal ecosystems (Lopez-Fernandez et al. 2018; Westmeijer et al. 2022). Over the three years (2019, 2020, 2021), the microbial community was dominated by operational taxonomic units (OTUs) affiliated with known thermophilic groups such as Aquificae, Deinococcus-Thermus, *Thermodesulfovibrio*, and groups typical of subsurface habitats such as the Hadesarchaeaeota (Baker et al. 2016) and Chloroflexi (Orsi 2018) (*SI Appendix*, Figure S5). The prevalence of these microbial groups bears resemblance to other alkaline hot springs of the Tibetan Plateau (Wang et al. 2013), Yellowstone national park (Schubotz et al. 2015), Costa Rican convergent margin (Fullerton et al. 2021) and deep-subsurface aquifers (Spanevello and Patel 2004).

In 2021, we performed a quantitative DNA stable isotope probing experiment with  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate at three different concentrations (1 mM, 5 mM, 10 mM) to reflect the range of natural bicarbonate concentrations that exists within the greater Bardakçılar hydrothermal aquifer system (Figure S3) (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S1) (Yalcin 2007). Therefore, by adding the  $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$  at these concentrations we were testing the naturally available range of bicarbonate concentrations that the microbial communities are exposed to as they are transported through the subsurface aquifer. After five days, 16S rRNA gene copies in all incubations increased roughly 10-fold (*SI Appendix*, Figure S4) and  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeling of 16S rRNA genes was observed (*SI Appendix*, Figure S6). Quantitative stable isotope probing analysis (qSIP) revealed which OTUs were significantly labeled across the three bicarbonate concentrations (Figure S7).  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilation is measured in the qSIP method via excess atom fraction (EAF)  $^{13}\text{C}$  in the 16S rRNA genes of OTUs, whereby  $^{13}\text{C}$ -EAF values are reported on a scale between 0 - 1.0 with 1.0 representing 100% labeling of carbon atoms in the 16S rRNA gene (Hungate et al. 2015). This information was then linked to metagenome assembled genomes (MAG) from the same samples to decipher how much  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate was assimilated per MAG.

#### 4.4.3 Linking $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled OTUs to MAGs

We linked the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled OTUs to MAGs using phylogenetic analyses (*SI Appendix*, Figure S8). MAGs were grouped into two categories (1) those encoding a binned 16S rRNA gene, and (2) those not encoding a 16S rRNA gene. For those MAGs encoding a binned 16S rRNA, we were able to directly link the identity of the MAG to its corresponding 16S rRNA gene within the qSIP dataset using 16S rRNA gene phylogenies (*SI Appendix*, Figure S8A). For all MAGs that contained a 16S rRNA gene (n=11), a  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled 16S OTU detected in qSIP could be directly linked to the MAG, by its relatively short phylogenetic distance in the tree (*SI Appendix*, Figure S8A).

For those MAGs that did not contain a binned 16S rRNA gene (n=12), we indirectly linked

the identity of the MAG to its corresponding  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled 16S rRNA gene OTU. This was done by comparing the MAG ribosomal protein phylogeny to a 16S rRNA gene phylogeny of the same affiliated named species and 'Candidatus' organisms (*SI Appendix*, Figure S8C). This allowed us to indirectly link MAGs lacking a 16S rRNA gene with their most likely  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled labeled OTUs in the qSIP dataset (*SI Appendix*, Figure S8B-S8C). Once all MAGs (n=24) were linked (either directly or indirectly) to the labeled OTUs, we were able to compare the gene content of the MAGs with their  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilation across the three tested bicarbonate concentrations (Figure 1).

#### 4.4.4 Carbon fixation potential of $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs

After identifying the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs, functional characterization of MAGs made it possible to group them into three distinct lifestyles based on carbon acquisition strategy predicted from the encoded gene content. Fifteen of the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs were found to have genomic capability to fix carbon dioxide/bicarbonate, indicating their potential to contribute to primary production (Figure 1). The Calvin-Benson-Bassham (CBB) cycle and Wood-Ljungdahl Pathway (WLP) were the most common carbon fixation pathways detected (Figure 1). A relatively smaller number of MAGs was found to encode the rTCA carbon fixation cycle and components of the 3-Hydroxypropionate bicycle (3-HP bicycle) (Figure 1). Nine of the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs lacked any of genes encoding one of the carbon fixation pathways and therefore display the potential for a heterotrophic lifestyle. Here we do not exclude the anaplerotic carbon fixation reactions in heterotrophs that can account for 2-8% of cell carbon (Roslev et al. 2004; Spona-Friedl et al. 2020) and indeed most MAGs encode this potential. However, deep subsurface environments are considered as energy limited areas where photosynthetically derived organic carbon sources are limited (Pedersen 2000) and heterotrophs are directly dependent on the *in situ* production of organic matter from primary producers.

There are seven carbon fixation pathways known to exist (Hügler and Sievert 2011; Sánchez-Andrea et al. 2020) and some of these pathways may harbor oxygen-sensitive enzymes (Hügler and Sievert 2011). WLP, rTCA cycle, dicarboxylate/4-hydroxybutyrate (DC/4-HB) cycle and recently-discovered reductive glycine pathway are performed by anaerobic and microaerophilic organisms while CBB cycle, 3-HP bicycle and 3-hydroxypropionate/4-hydroxybutyrate (3-HP/4-HB) cycle can function in fully-oxygenated environments (Hügler and Sievert 2011). The presence of four very different carbon fixation pathways (CBB, WLP, rTCA, 3-HP bicycle) in our sampled fluids indicates a variety of redox environments within the aquifer system and in the experimental incubations. It is possible that the sampled fluids derive from a mixture of different fluid sources of varying redox states (Probst et al. 2018), and the detected pathways (WLP, CBB, rTCA, 3-HP bicycle) probably vary in terms of importance for primary production at different depths, redox zones, and  $\text{O}_2$  concentrations in the subsurface aquifer. Under our tested conditions, the overall redox state of the sampled fluid for our SIP incubations was relatively low (+4 mV), and  $\text{O}_2$  concentrations at the end of the incubations were in the sub-hypoxic range (33  $\mu\text{M}$ , +/- 3) (Supplementary Dataset 1). These reduced conditions should favor microbial dissimilatory nitrate reduction as the most favorable terminal electron accepting process (as opposed to aerobic respiration) (Hügler and Sievert 2011).

Indeed, many of the MAGs that assimilated  $^{13}\text{C}$  had the genomic capacity for utilizing nitrate as a terminal electron acceptor for anaerobic respiration (Figure 1), which was consistent with the depletion of dissolved nitrate in the hydrothermal fluids (Supplementary Dataset 1). This indicates that dissimilatory nitrate reduction was a dominant energetic pathway in the sampled fluids and our SIP experiment.

Potentially mixotrophic  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs were identified based on the genomic capability for both  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation and uptake of carbon containing organic matter via genes encoding ABC-transport proteins (Figure 1). Out of 15 MAGs that encode carbon fixation pathways, 10 of them also contained relatively higher numbers of ABC-type transporters for classes of organic molecules (Figure 1), suggesting a mixotrophic lifestyle whereby they can supplement their cellular carbon sources from  $\text{CO}_2$  with organic carbon from the environment. All of the MAGs encoding CBB cycle, most of the MAGs encoding WLP cycle and one MAG encoding 3-HP bicycle display a genomic potential for such a mixotrophic lifestyle, potentially providing them an increased fitness in hydrothermal oligotrophic conditions where they can switch between autotrophy and heterotrophy as new organic matter becomes available. Such a mixotrophic metabolic lifestyle was also shown to be important in microbial survival in oligotrophic groundwater ecosystems (Taubert et al. 2022). On the other hand, MAGs with the rTCA cycle (exclusive Aquificae) were able to fix carbon while having a relatively reduced suite of ABC-transporters for organic molecules (Figure 1) with the exception of an incomplete ABC-type phospholipid transporter system (MlaABCDEF). This transporter has an important role in maintaining outer membrane lipid asymmetry (Chong et al. 2015), survival in infection (Suzuki et al. 1994) and phospholipid-trafficking between outer and inner membrane (Hughes et al. 2019), suggesting that this transporter plays a role in maintaining the integrity of the cell membrane as opposed to uptake of lipids as a carbon source from the environment. The highest number of ABC-transporters in  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs encoded the 3-HP bicycle (11 complete and incomplete ABC-type transporters) and CBB cycle (5 ABC-type transporters on average) (Figure 1).  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAG encoding 3-HP bicycle was taxonomically affiliated to *Chloroflexus aurantiacus*, whereas the MAGs with CBB cycle were closely related to order Burkholderiales (mainly genus *Tepidomonas*) and phylum Deinococcus-Thermus (Dataset 2). The single detected ABC-transporter in the rTCA encoding Aquificae MAGs (Figure 1) indicates that they were fixing  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate primarily via an autotrophic metabolism, whereas the CBB, WLP, and 3-HP encoding MAGs that also contain higher number of ABC-transporters were likely fixing  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate via a mixotrophic metabolism.

#### 4.4.5 Energy conservation by $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs

The genome content of the MAGs indicate reduced sulfur compounds were an important source of electron donors, and that nitrate is an important terminal electron acceptor in anaerobic respiration for most MAGs (Figure 1). Sulfide oxidation ( $\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{HS}^- \rightarrow \text{S}^0$ ) was found to be a dominant potential energy conservation mechanism for most of the detected  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs (15 out of 24 MAGs) mostly through Sulfide:quinine reductase (Sqr) and/or flavocytochrome c (fccAB). Sulfur oxidation through Sox system and thiosulfate oxidation using *tdsA* was also fully encoded by two

*Deinococcus-thermus* (MAGSIPTR4 and MAGSIPTR19), a Nitrospirae MAG (MAGSIPTR4), and a MAG affiliated with the thermophile *Schleiferia thermophila* (MAGSIPTR25), respectively (Figure 1, Figure S8). Among the MAGs with capacity to use reduced sulfur compounds as an electron donor, seven are putative mixotrophs including all five MAGs encoding CBB cycle.

These <sup>13</sup>C-labeled CBB-encoding MAGs were affiliated to *Deinococcus-Thermus* (genera of *Thermus* and *Meiothermus*) and Gammaproteobacterial genera *Sulfuritortus* and *Tepidomonas*. These CBB-encoding organisms are known to obtain energy by sulfur oxidation coupling with reducing O<sub>2</sub> or NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> as electron acceptors (Bjornsdottir et al. 2009; Kojima et al. 2017). Their ability to use nitrate as terminal electron acceptor is the likely reason why their activity was favored under the sub-hypoxic conditions of our SIP-incubations (33 μM O<sub>2</sub>, +4 mV). Our findings indicating an anaerobic, mixotrophic lifestyle for these subsurface microbes are in line with pure culture studies showing mixotrophic growth of CBB-encoding microbes, that are nitrate reducing sulfur oxidizers such as '*Candidatus Desulfobacillus denitrificans*' (Okubo and Takami 2021) and *Sulfuritortus calidifontis* (Kojima et al. 2017). Our results are furthermore in line with other deep subsurface oligotrophic environments that often favor a sulfur-oxidizing, denitrifying bacterial community (Lau et al. 2016).

In our setting, more than half of the sulfur-oxidizing microbial community displays putative mixotrophy (Figure 1). We therefore sought to use the linked qSIP and metagenomic data quantify the contribution of mixotrophy to primary production in the studied system.

#### 4.4.6 Mixotrophic potential correlates with bicarbonate assimilation.

A positive correlation was observed between the number of ABC-transporters for organic molecules and EAF values of <sup>13</sup>C-labeled MAGs (Figure 1), encoding CBB cycle, WLP and 3-HP bicycle (P = 0.002, r<sup>2</sup> = 0.3, Figure 2). Therefore, the amount of carbon assimilation from bicarbonate increased as a function of potential for uptake of organic molecules (mixotrophic potential) from CBB cycle, WLP and 3-HP bicycle encoding organisms. As a result, they are likely being labeled by a combination of organic matter utilization and the C-fixation routes, and the correlation suggests that the ability to supplement carbon demand with organic matter can increase carbon fixation from bicarbonate in these thermophilic bacteria. Mixotrophic capabilities have been observed in pure cultures of *Chloroflexus aurantiacus* (Pierson and Castenholz 1974), *Thermus islandicus* (Bjornsdottir et al. 2009), and *Thermodesulfovibrio* sp. (Thiel et al. 2017), which are all close affiliates of many of the <sup>13</sup>C-labeled MAGs detected in our SIP experiments (Figure 1, Figure S8). However, the mixotrophic activity of *Tepidimonas* sp shown here (Figure 1) is to the best of our knowledge the first evidence for mixotrophic growth by subsurface thermophilic *Tepidimonas*.

In contrast, MAGs encoding rTCA (affiliated to *Thermocrinis minervae* and *Sulfurihydrogenibium azorense*; Aquificae) had a some of the highest amount of bicarbonate assimilation compared to all MAGs (EAF = 22,45% +/- 2,23) but this did not correlate with higher numbers of ABC-transporters (Figure 2). This indicates that the rTCA encoding Aquificae MAGs were acting as autotrophs. This is in line with a study that suggested rTCA-based chemolithoautotrophy is important for the primary production in the Costa Rican convergent margin (Fullerton et al. 2021). Most members of Aquificae species are obligate chemolithoautotrophs (Gupta 2014), which is

consistent with our findings showing that rTCA encoding Aquificae were acting as autotrophs using inorganic carbon from  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate as a main carbon source (Figure 1).

Interestingly, the assimilation of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate by the rTCA encoding Aquificae increased with increasing bicarbonate concentrations (Figure 3) as predicted in a previous study (Fullerton et al. 2021). One of the main Aquificae assimilators of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate was closely affiliated with *Sulfurihydrogenibium azorense* setting, that encodes the most active  $\alpha$ -carbonic anhydrase known to date for the  $\text{CO}_2$  hydration reaction (De Simone et al. 2015). This high activity of carbonic anhydrase (responsible for converting bicarbonate to carbon dioxide), could explain why a higher DIC concentration resulted in more carbon fixation at higher DIC concentrations for this organism.

#### 4.4.7 Tracing carbon flows between autotrophs, mixotrophs, and heterotrophs

In order to trace carbon flows between different functional groups in the qSIP experiments, we grouped  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs into autotrophs, mixotrophs, and heterotrophs based on defined criteria. First,  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs with a carbon fixation pathway >80% completeness but depleted in ABC-transporters for utilization of organic matter were grouped as likely autotrophs. The  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs grouped as autotrophs (n=2) consisted exclusively of rTCA encoding Aquificae (Figure 1). Second,  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs with a carbon fixation pathway >80% completeness but encoding relatively higher numbers of ABC-transporters for utilization of organic matter were grouped as likely mixotrophs. The  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs grouped as mixotrophs (n=11) consisted of CBB, WLP, and 3-HP encoding MAGs (Figure 1). Third,  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs that did not encode a carbon fixation pathway, or encoding <20% of a carbon fixation pathway were grouped as likely heterotrophs. This comprised the majority of remaining MAGs (n=12) (Figure 1) and we could group all  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs into one of these three categories according to these criteria.

Next, we estimated the absolute  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilation from bicarbonate into biomass by the MAGs, by normalizing MAG-specific  $^{13}\text{C}$ -EAF values against the absolute abundance of the MAG 16S rRNA gene from qPCR (fractional 16S rRNA gene sequence %, as proportion of total 16S rRNA genes). The  $^{13}\text{C}$ -assimilation normalized to absolute MAG abundance relates to the total amount of carbon assimilated by a MAG in the qSIP experiments. Across all three concentrations of bicarbonate tested, MAGs with mixotrophic potential encoding the CBB cycle contributed overwhelmingly to the total carbon flux and were responsible for the 82.2%, 95.2% and 77% of the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled carbon turnover in the 1 mM, 5 mM and 10 mM bicarbonate incubations, respectively (Figure 3). The mixotrophic production by these bacteria was at least 8.8 times higher than the absolute amount of carbon fixation by the autotrophic rTCA encoding Aquificae (Figure 3). We acknowledge that these results are only tested under a limited set of conditions and cannot speculate as to how widespread this dominance of carbon fixation by mixotrophic bacteria might be in other subsurface hydrothermal ecosystems. Nevertheless, to our knowledge these are the first quantitative measurements of primary production by mixotrophic bacteria in a deep subsurface hydrothermal environment and show that this should be considered as an important mechanism supporting deep thermophilic microbial ecosystems. Our results are also supported by another SIP-study that has also shown the importance of mixotrophs in oligotrophic groundwater (Taubert et al. 2022). Therefore, primary

production by mixotrophic bacteria might be an important, yet understudied mechanism that helps microbial ecosystems to survive under extremely oligotrophic conditions.

There are benefits to being a in the oligotrophic deep subsurface hydrothermal aquifer system. Mixotrophs have the potential to adjust how they meet their anabolic needs depending on the availability and changing concentrations of carbon (inorganic and organic) that are accessible as they are transported through the subsurface aquifer system. Our findings show that mixotrophic lifestyle can confer fitness on the bacteria under the tested conditions, and that mixotrophy may be especially important in oligotrophic hydrogeologically isolated systems where the concentrations of carbon substrates are extremely low and fluctuate over time (Moser et al. 2005; Taubert et al. 2022; Magnabosco et al. 2016).

## **4.5 Concluding Remarks**

Our qSIP study coupled with metagenomics and phylogenetic approaches permitted us to unravel the carbon flow among microbial groups displaying distinct metabolic pathways and lifestyle characteristics. It is demonstrated that mixotrophic bacteria can contribute to the primary production across a range of bicarbonate concentrations as a key player in deep subsurface hydrothermal ecosystems. These mixotrophs exhibit a broad range of potential metabolic capacity to obtain their carbon needs through CO<sub>2</sub>-fixation and organic carbon utilization, allowing them to dominate in an oligotrophic, hydrothermal aquifer system. The resulting carbon fixation is acquired relatively quickly by heterotrophic bacteria indicating that primary production via mixotrophy plays a quantitatively important role in sustaining the larger microbial community in this oligotrophic, deep hydrothermal ecosystem.

## **4.6 Material and Methods.**

### **4.6.1 Sampling for microbial biomass and geochemistry analyses.**

Alkaline hydrothermal fluids were collected in summertime of the years between 2019 and 2021 from 75- and 750-meter wells owned by a private hotel (Kaz Mountain Thermal Hotel) in Bardakçılar Village, Biga peninsula (Figure S1). Electrical conductivity (Ec) (WTW, Cond 3110 Set 1, Weilheim, Germany), temperature, salinity (WTW, Cond 3110 Set 1, Weilheim, Germany), pH (WTW, pH 3110 Set 2, Weilheim, Germany), dissolved oxygen (WTW Oxi 3310, Weilheim, Germany) and total dissolved solids (TDS) were measured in the field using handheld probes. 10 to 20 liters of water directly from borehole were filtered through 0.22 µm hydrophilic polyethersulfone (PES) filters (Millipore Express, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) for 20 minutes at a medium speed using a peristaltic pump (Masterflex E/S 07571-05, Cole Parmer, USA). 4 replicates were collected for the filters. Collected samples were immediately placed into dry ice supplied by a local company in Turkey.

The detailed information on the laboratory-based measurements can be found in previously published article (Einsiedl et al. 2020). Briefly, samples for laboratory-based measurements of major anion and cation concentrations and water isotopes ( $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) were collected in 1.5 ml tubes after filtering with 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  PES filters. Samples for analysis of DOC (dissolved organic carbon) concentrations were collected in 50 mL glass bottles after filtering through 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  PVDF filters. Samples for the concentrations and isotope analysis of methane ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) were transferred into 200 mL glass vials without headspace and sealed with crimped butyl stoppers. Samples for dissolved organic matter (DOC) measurements were collected in a 100 mL glass vials and sealed with crimped butyl stoppers. All samples were stored in the dry ice. Laboratory measurements were done in hydrogeology department of Technical University of Munich (TUM).

#### **4.6.2 Regional geology of Bardakçılar thermal field and additional information about the hotel**

The Biga Peninsula is in the north-west of Turkey and is surrounded by the sea of Marmara in the north and Aegean Sea in the west and south (Figure S1) and historically known as Troas or Troad after the ancient city Troy. Biga peninsula is the west part of the Sakarya Continent and the eastern part of the Rhodope belt which formed tectonically by the collision of Gondwana and Laurasia (Okay et al. 1991). Therefore, the regional geology of the Biga peninsula has a complicated geologic and tectonic history. The detailed regional geology can be found in (Okay et al. 1991).

Kazdagi Thermal Resort and SPA hotel is in Bardakçılar village in the Kaz Mountain, Biga peninsula, Turkey (Mount Ida) (Figure S1). The hotel facility sits on the Middle Miocene İlyasbaşı formation (Figure S1). The reservoir bedrock of the Bardakçılar geothermal field is carbonate rocks in Permo-Triassic Kazdag massif. The fluids rise through Upper Oligocene-Lower Miocene Hallaçlar volcanic rocks (Toh) which consists of andesite, volcanic tuff, dacite, rhyodacite and conglomerate (Akkuş et al. 2005). Granodioritic intrusions due to Oligocene-Miocene volcanic activity are outcropped in the studied area (Sarp et al. 1998) and may constitute the source of the heat. North-east-south-west trended faults in Bardakçılar geothermal field as well as in nearby geothermal fields in Can and Etili are the main source of the heat transfer (Figure S1). Before the drilling of 750 meter-deep-borehole, the Bardakçılar hot spring has been reported to have a temperature of 59 °C (Sarp et al. 1998). The nearest borehole in the region, Can-Etili borehole, also carries 59 °C geothermal water at a depth of 450 meters and the geological units which were crossed in the borehole drilling consisted of andesite and volcanic tuffs. The hotel uses 4 different pumps, but only two of them are being actively used at different times of the year due to the difference in the temperature. Although the pumps are located 60 meters below the ground for these two wells (Personal communication with hotel owner), water temperatures are 56.7 °C and 73 °C for 75 meter-deep well and 750 meter-deep well, respectively. Hotel owner also informed us that the 750-meter deep well was drilled by a private gold company to seek commercially extractable gold in the field. The drilling ended up with 73 °C water which was then rented by the hotel owners and the construction of the hotel was subsequently completed. The deep well is only being used in the winter times when the winter conditions prevail in this mountainous area and therefore, it was at least 6-month-long inactive in 2021. Upon opening the



valve, the temperature of the well was measured as 58 °C. Water temperature increased to 62 °C after 20 minutes.

#### 4.6.3 Experimental setup for SIP incubations and DNA extraction.

For incubation experiments, 5-liter borosilicate bottles (VWR, Germany) were filled with 62 °C geothermal water until 5% - 10% headspace left (Figure S2-b and c). Each bottle was amended with either <sup>13</sup>C-labeled 1, 5 and 10 mM sodium-bicarbonate (99% <sup>13</sup>C-content, Sigma-Aldrich, Darmstadt, Germany) (Figure S2-C). No additional electron donors/acceptors were added to the incubations except the atmospheric O<sub>2</sub> which was introduced to the incubations prior to addition of bicarbonate. We did not flush the bottles with any noble gas to purge the introduced O<sub>2</sub> but initial O<sub>2</sub> concentration of the hydrothermal fluid already contained a certain amount of O<sub>2</sub> (Table S1). As is common practice for all DNA-SIP studies, control vials were also prepared with the same unlabeled (<sup>12</sup>C-containing) carbon sources to compare the extent of <sup>13</sup>C-labeling. Each bottle was sealed with rubber stoppers prior to tightly screwing the caps (Figure S2-c). The experiments were incubated at 58 °C and terminated after 135 hours (5 days and 15 hours). The pH, Ec, salinity and dissolved O<sub>2</sub> measurements were conducted before and after the incubation. The experiments were filtered onto 0.22 µm filters using a peristaltic pump (Figure S2-d) and kept in dry ice in the field until being stored at -20 °C. Samples were shipped to our laboratory in Germany in dry ice.

After the samples reached our laboratory, DNA was extracted from (t<sub>0</sub>) and Stable Isotope Probing experiments (SIP) as described previously (Orsi et al. 2015). In brief, four of 2 mL Lysing Matrix E tubes (MP Biomedicals, Solon, OH, USA) were poured into each 15 mL falcon tube containing the filters. 4 mL of a sterile-filtered sucrose ethylene-diaminetetraacetic lysis buffer (0.75 M sucrose, 0.05 M Tris-Base, 0.02 M ethylenediaminetetraacetic, 0.4 M NaCl, 4 mL 10% sodium dodecyl and pH 9.0) were added to the tubes and then, beat beating was performed for 40 sec using a Fast-Prep 5G homogenizer (MP Biomedicals, OH, USA) at a speed of 4 m / sec. Samples were subsequently heated for 2 min at 99 °C. After heating, 25 mL of 20 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> proteinase K was added, and tubes were incubated at 55 °C overnight. DNA was extracted and purified from the lysate using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen). DNA was suspended with 200 µl (DEPC)-treated (sterile, nuclease free) water. Extracted DNA was quantified fluorometrically using Qubit 3.0 fluorometer (Invitrogen, Eugene, OR, USA).

#### 4.6.4 Experimental considerations.

Hydrothermal fluid is directly collected from the pipe system before it enters to the water tank (Figure SX). The atmospheric air is introduced to the bottles and we did not flush the bottles with “N<sub>2</sub>” gas to create O<sub>2</sub> concentration similar to the initial conditions (Dataset 1). Therefore, the redox potential is likely to be altered to certain degree. Although we did not have any killed control experimental setup to test if the decline in dissolved O<sub>2</sub> measurements was associated with the microbial respiration, we speculate that microbial respiration was the main driver in this drawdown in the gas-tight SIP incubations (Dataset 1), supported by previous report in a H<sub>2</sub><sup>18</sup>O qSIP study.

Apart from oxygen, pH values also dropped by 1 in the incubations amended with 10 mM sodium-bicarbonate, meaning that the increase in the bicarbonate concentration favored more dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> (aq) speciation as it is a similar effect in ocean acidification event (Turley et al. 2010). The fluid chemistry after the termination of SIP-experiments also showed 10 mM addition of sodium bicarbonate increased Ec, salinity and sodium concentrations compared to 5 mM sodium-bicarbonate. Hence, the conditions in the incubations were slightly different from each other due to addition of different amounts of bicarbonate.

#### **4.6.5 Density gradient centrifugation and gradient fraction.**

DNA samples were prepared for density gradient centrifugation according to previously defined protocols for quantitative SIP (qSIP) (Coskun et al. 2018; Hungate et al. 2015) with minor modifications. In brief, density gradient centrifugations were carried out in a TLN-100 Optima MAX-TL ultracentrifuge (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA) near-vertical rotor at 18 °C for 72 h at 165,000 × g. 50 µl of DNA was added to a solution of cesium chloride (CsCl) and gradient buffer (0.1 M Tris, 0.1 M KCl and 1 mM EDTA) in order to achieve a starting density of 1.705 - 1.715 g mL<sup>-1</sup> in a 3.3-mL polyallomer OptiSeal tubes (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA). For the triplicate ultracentrifuge runs from the same experiments, we used three sets of 50 µl of extracted DNA. After ultracentrifugation, the density gradients were fractionated into 20 equal fractions of 165 µl from the bottom of polyallomer OptiSeal tubes by using a syringe pump and fraction recovery system (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA). The density of these fractions was measured with an AR200 digital refractometer (Reichert Analytical Instruments, Depew, NY, USA). DNA was precipitated from the fractions using two volumes of polyethylene glycol with 2 µl (10 mg mL<sup>-1</sup>) glycogen and precipitated overnight at room temperature. DNA was pelleted by centrifugation (13,000 × g; 40 min), washed with 70% ethanol, and resuspended with 30 µl molecular-grade (DEPC-treated) water. DNA was quantified fluorometrically using a Qubit 3.0 fluorometer (Thermo Scientific).

#### **4.6.6 qPCR of 16S rRNA gene copies.**

Universal primers targeting the V4 hypervariable region of 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes were used in quantitative PCR (qPCR) to determine density shifts in the peak DNA of buoyant density (BD) for each incubation. We used a version of the 515F primer with a single-base change (in bold) to increase the coverage of certain taxonomic groups (515F-Y, 5'-GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA; (Parada et al. 2016)). qPCR reactions were carried out as described previously (Coskun et al. 2019). The quantified 16S rRNA genes of the density fractions were plotted against their corresponding densities and 10-12 fractions (on average) from each replicate set were selected for sequencing (Figure S3-A, S3-B, S3-C; gray shaded area). Two 16S PCR amplicons from each density fraction (technical replicates to reduce PCR bias) were pooled and subjected to dual-indexed barcoded sequencing of 16S rRNA gene amplicons on the Illumina MiniSeq as described previously (Pichler et al. 2018).

#### 4.6.7 Bioinformatic and qSIP Analysis.

The MiniSeq reads from fractionated SIP incubations,  $t_0$  and previously sequenced common laboratory contaminants (Pichler et al. 2018) were quality trimmed and assembled using USEARCH version 11.0.667 with the default parameters (Edgar 2010) resulting in 28.4 million quality checked 16S rRNA V4 reads. Reads were then de novo clustered at 97% identity using UPARSE; Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) represented by a single sequence were discarded (Edgar 2013). Taxonomic assignments were generated by QIIME 1.9.1 (Caporaso et al. 2010) using the implemented BLAST method against the SILVA rRNA gene database release 132 (Quast et al. 2013). The level of contamination in each density fraction for qSIP analysis was determined using DNA sequences of the dust samples collected from three different laboratories in our building. The common contaminant genera such as *Pseudomonas*, *Ralstonia*, *Variovorax* or *Streptococcus* were also removed as these are common contaminants of molecular reagent kits (Salter et al. 2014). Next, only OTUs greater than 10 sequences in total in each replicate for the control and SIP-labeled fractions were selected for further study (Orsi et al. 2016; Coskun et al. 2018) since low abundance taxa may cause large variations in qSIP calculations (Morrissey et al. 2016).

The excess atom  $^{13}\text{C}$  fractions (EAF) values were calculated for the 16S rRNA genes corresponding to OTUs according to previously described study (Hungate et al. 2015) using a qSIP workflow embedded in the HTS-SIP R package (Youngblut et al. 2018a). An OTU was considered as an  $^{13}\text{C}$ -incorporator if the lower CI was greater than zero (Hungate et al. 2015). Statistical analyses and plots were performed using RStudio Version 3.3.0 (Team 2015). The 16S sequence data were entered in the NCBI Short Read Archive under BioProject ID PRJNA837050.

#### 4.6.8 Metagenomic analysis of $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled fractions.

Based on the shift in DNA buoyant density of 16S rRNA genes between the experimental treatments (which indicate  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeling of DNA),  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled stable isotope probing (SIP) fractions resulting from the density gradient ultracentrifugation were selected for metagenomic shotgun sequencing (Figure S6D). Metagenomic libraries were prepared using Nextera XT DNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina) and following the manual provided by the manufacturer. Quality control and quantification of the metagenomics libraries were done on an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer System using high sensitivity DNA reagents and DNA chips (Agilent Genomics). Metagenomic libraries were diluted to 1 nM and pooled together to sequence on Illumina MiniSeq platform. SqueezeMeta (Tamames and Puente-Sánchez 2018) and Anvi'o snakemake workflow (Köster and Rahmann 2012; Eren et al. 2015) were used for downstream analysis using co-assembly mode with default settings. In short, SqueezeMeta workflow deployed Trimmomatic for adapter removing, trimming and quality filtering by setting the parameters: leading = 8, trailing = 8, slidingwindow = 10:15, and minimum length = 30 (Bolger et al. 2014). Contigs were assembled using Megahit assembler using minimum length 200 nucleotides (Li et al. 2015). Open reading frames (genes and rRNAs; ORFs) were called using Prodigal (Hyatt et al. 2010), rRNAs genes were determined by barrnap (Seemann 2013). Diamond software (Buchfink et al. 2015) was deployed to search for gene homologies against the databases Genbank nr database

for taxonomic assignment, eggNOG v4.5 (Huerta-Cepas et al. 2016) and KEGG database (Kanehisa and Goto 2000). Cutoff values for assigning hits to specific taxa were performed at e value as  $e^{-3}$ , and a minimum amino acid similarity of 40 for taxa and 30 for functional assignment which were default settings of SqueezeMeta. Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) was used to map the read onto contigs and genes. Anvi'o snakemake workflow (anvi'o v7) was used to bin and to refine the Metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs). MaxBin (Wu et al. 2016), concoct (Alneberg et al. 2014) and Metabat2 (Kang et al. 2019) were deployed for the binning and DAS Tool (Sieber et al. 2018) was deployed to choose the best bin for each population. The completeness and contamination of the bins were checked in anvi'o v7. The metagenomic sequence data will be entered in the NCBI Short Read Archive under BioProject ID PRJNA837050. Metagenomic dataset and intermediate files to produce qSIP results were deposited under [https://figshare.com/authors/\\_mer\\_Coskun/9725927](https://figshare.com/authors/_mer_Coskun/9725927).

#### 4.6.9 Phylogenetic tree construction

16S rRNA gene phylogenetic trees (*SI Appendix*, Figure S8A and S8B) was constructed using GTR algorithm with 100 bootstraps in Seaview (Gouy et al. 2010). In brief, rRNA and single copy genes were extracted from the MAGs using hidden markov model (HMM) sources of barnapp (Seemann 2013) and 'Bacteria\_71' (a modified version of (Lee 2019)) in anvi'o's 'anvi-run-hmms' command (Eren et al. 2015), respectively. Ribosomal phylogenetic tree (*SI Appendix*, Figure S8C) was constructed using Seaview (Gouy et al., 2010) with 5 concatenated ribosomal proteins (L18, L3, L4, S11, S3) extracted from metagenome assembled genomes and closest complete or incomplete genomes to our MAGs determined by a BLAST search (Altschul et al. 1990).

#### 4.6.10 Calculating Absolute $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled carbon of MAGs linked with $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled OTUs

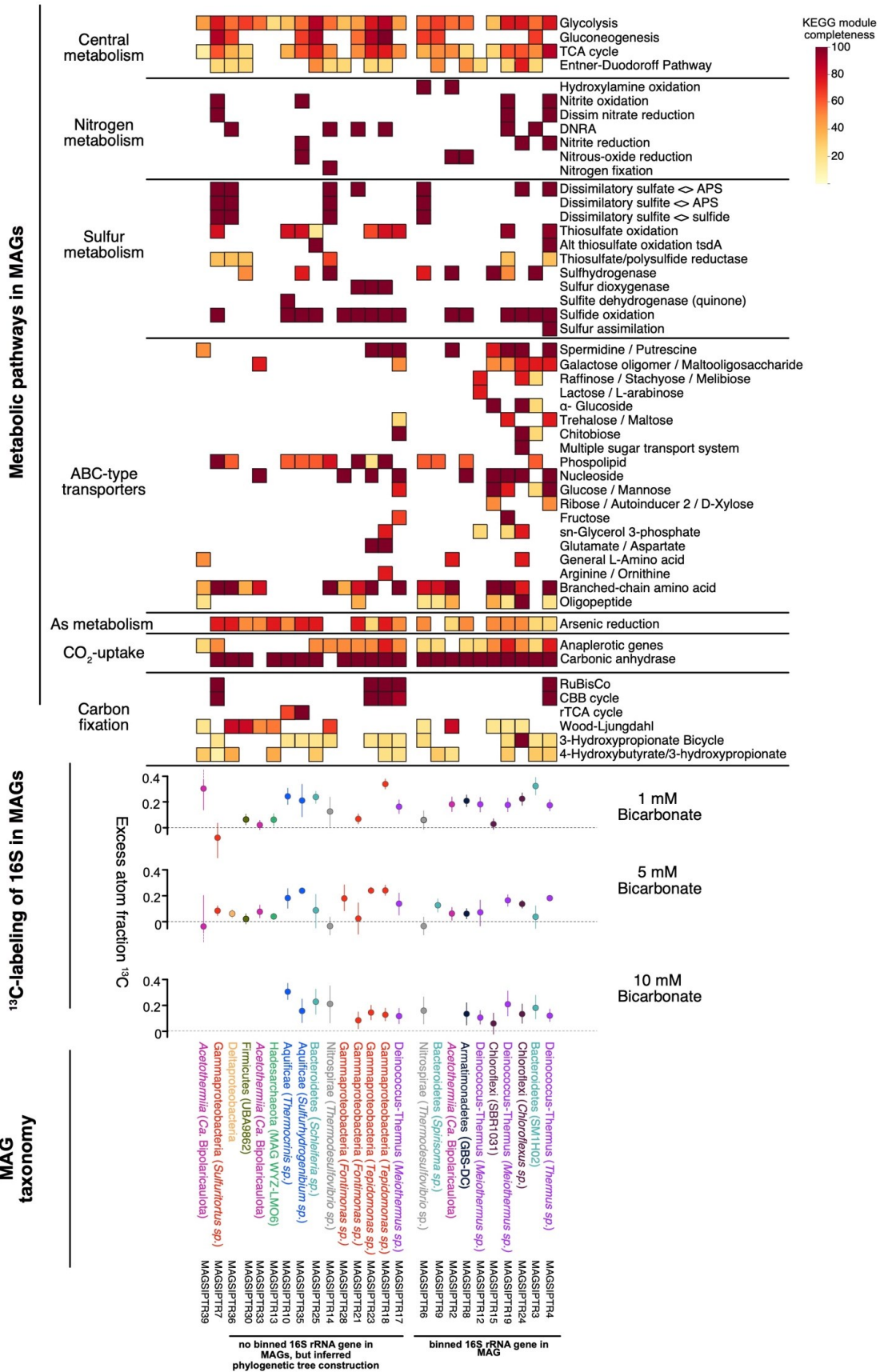
The absolute  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeling in MAGs were calculated after associating them with a  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled OTU. In brief, by multiplying the relative abundance of each linked OTUs (determined from sequencing from the fractions) to total 16S rRNA gene copy number per mL (obtained from qPCR) in each bicarbonate concentration tested in this study, we calculated the absolute 16S rRNA gene copy number of each linked OTU. We assumed that each MAG contains one copy of 16S rRNA gene in their putative complete to incomplete genome. Also, we confirmed that our MAGs linked to  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled OTUs did contain one copy of 16S rRNA in their genome. Absolute 16S rRNA gene per OTU were multiplied by corresponding EAFs calculated in qSIP (Hungate et al. 2015) to obtain absolute  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeling of each OTU. Since each OTU is linked to a representative high-quality MAG in this study, those absolute  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labelings also belong to corresponding  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled MAGs.

## 4.7 Acknowledgements

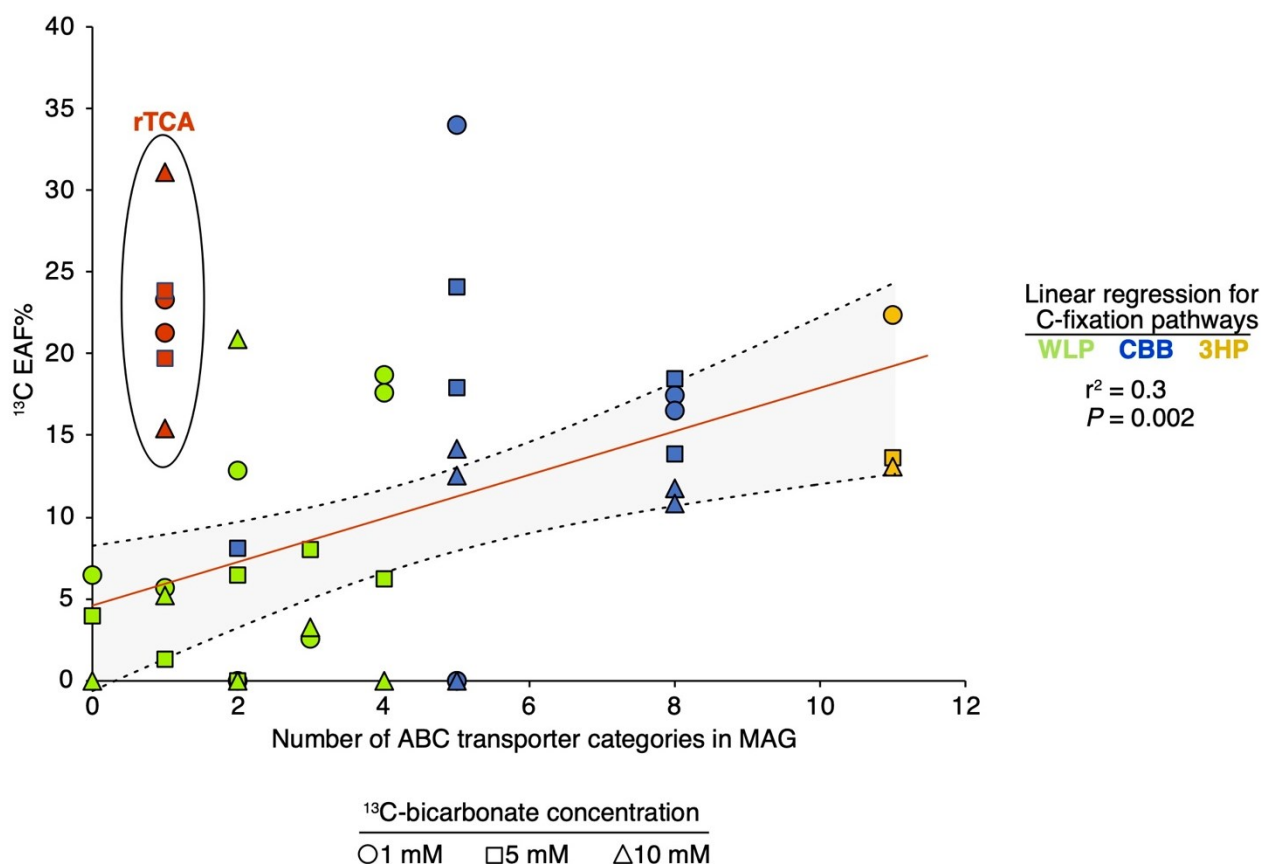
This work was supported by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation)—Project-ID 364653263—TRR 235 to WDO and WE, and under Germany's Excellence Strategy—EXC 2077-390741603. We are grateful for the support of the management and the staff

of Kazdagi Thermal Resort & Spa. We also thank to Mustafa Coskun and Halil Gültekin who participated a part of field campaign in 2019 and 2020.

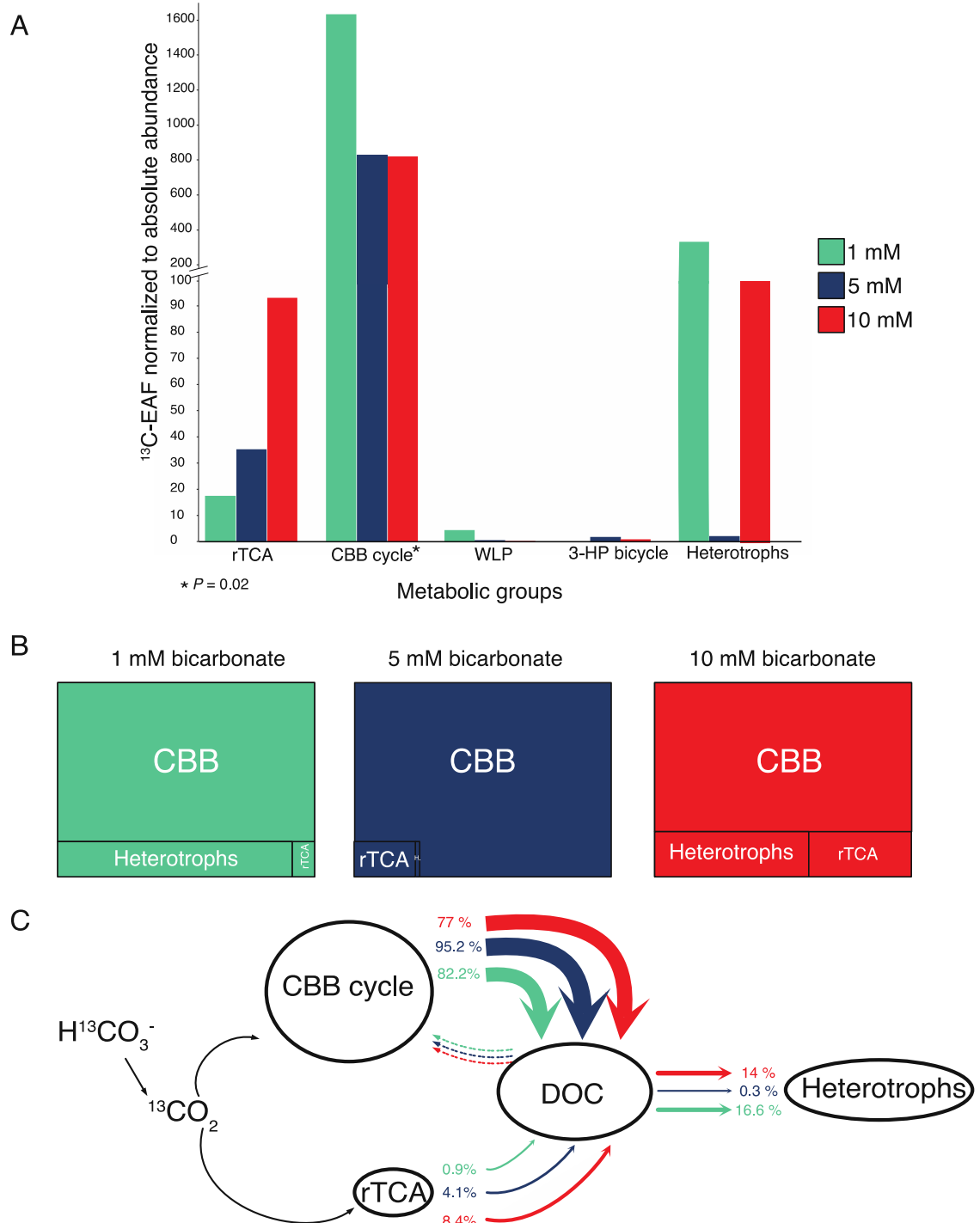
# FIGURES AND TABLES



**Figure 1: Top panel:** KEGG decoder heatmap (Graham et al. 2018) showing the metabolic pathway completeness of each MAG assembled in this study. MAGs are sorted based on number of transporters they have and grouped into two categories: right column shows the MAGs that have a binned 16S rRNA, whereas left column represents the MAGs that do not have binned 16S rRNA. The linkage between  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled OTUs and MAGs are briefly explained the main text and the materials and methods section. **Middle panel:** Quantitative assimilation of  $^{13}\text{C}$  from  $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$  by OTUs at three different concentrations (1mM, 5 mM, 10 mM). Individual points represent excess atom fraction (EAF) values of specific OTUs, which are colored by Phylum for qSIP incubations that received different bicarbonate concentrations. The error bars correspond to 90% CI across three biological replicates. OTUs that do not have a 90% CI overlapping with 0 are considered to be  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled. The x-axis EAF values indicate the quantitative  $^{13}\text{C}$ -enrichment of OTU 16S rRNA genes (e.g., an EAF value of 0.5 relates to 50% of carbon atoms in an OTU being  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled). **Bottom panel:** Taxonomy of the MAGs. Taxonomical classification of MAGs represents the classification of OTUs against SILVA v132 database and single copy gene taxonomy of the MAGs determined in anvio (Eren et al. 2015).



**Figure 2: Correlation between MAG  $^{13}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate assimilation at three different bicarbonate concentrations and the number of ABC transporters encoded per MAG.** Colors indicate which carbon fixation pathway is encoded by the MAG, symbols show which bicarbonate concentration the EAF value is derived from.



**Figure 3: Panel A:** Quantitative carbon assimilation from bicarbonate or secondarily produced  $^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC across three different concentrations, summarized for MAGs encoding carbon fixation pathways as well as MAGs defined as heterotrophs (no C-fixation pathway detected). The y-axis depicts the average MAG specific carbon assimilation (EAF), normalized against the absolute abundance of each MAG in the hydrothermal fluids determined via 16S qPCR and high-throughput sequencing. **Panel B:** Distribution of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled carbon across MAGs encoding carbon fixation pathway as well as heterotrophic MAGs in a rectangular graph. The areas that each category holds in rectangles are proportional to  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled carbon incorporation of microbial populations grouped by carbon fixation pathways (% in each bicarbonate concentration). Note that the highest



total amount of carbon assimilation was seen in the CBB encoding MAGs, which is due in large part to the higher absolute abundance of these organisms in the fluids as determined by qPCR. **Panel C:** Schematic representation of carbon flow from autotrophs to heterotrophs. The percentages represent the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled carbon incorporation across carbon fixation pathways (and heterotrophs) and are obtained from Panel A and used in Panel B.

## Supplementary Figures

Dataset 1. **Water chemistry and information of the sampling sites.** Note that we also provided the water chemistry of the closest geothermal fields to our sampling site in Biga Peninsula, Turkey.

Name of the geothermal field/well	Depth of the fluid	Temperature (°C)	pH	Ec (uS/sn)	Oxygen (mg/L) @T	Salinity (ppm or mg/L)	Carbonate hardness (mmol/L)	Bicarbonate (ppm) Yalcin, 2007	Bicarbonate (mg/L)	Bicarbonate in mM
Can	60 m	45,6	6,92	2200	0,49 @44	1,1 ppm	4,5 mmol/lt - 12.4 od	268,4	274,59	4,5
Hidirlar	Hot spring	78,5	8,13	889	1,38 @45	0,4	2,2 mmol/lt - 6 od	128,1	134,244	2,2
<b>Bardakcilar geothermal field*</b>	<b>750 m</b>	<b>61.7**</b>	<b>8,27</b>	<b>1514</b>	<b>1,64 @47</b>	<b>0,8 mg/L</b>	<b>1,5 mmol/lt - 4od</b>		<b>91,53</b>	<b>1,5</b>
Bardakcilar geothermal field	75 m	56.7	8,28	1340	0,99 @47	680 ppm	2 mmol/lt - 5.5 od		122,04	2,0

anions												DOC	methane			
Phosphate (mg/L)	Bromid (mg/L)	Chloride (mg/L)	Nitrate (mg/L)	Nitrite (mg/L)	Sulfat mg/L	Type	Na (mg/L)	NH <sub>4</sub> (mg/L)	K (mg/L)	Mg (mg/L)	Ca (mg/L)	NPOC (mg/L)	CH <sub>4</sub> (mg/L)	d <sup>13</sup> C-CH <sub>4</sub> (‰)	d <sup>13</sup> C-CH <sub>4</sub> (‰)	std dev
n.a.	n.a.	170,9585173	n.a.	n.a.	1116,240992	Type-1 (Sulfate-dominant waters)	444,06	n.a.	21,48	8,63	218,18	0,9+-0,06%	0,0091			
n.a.	n.a.	8,37796944	n.a.	n.a.	204,6407377	Type-4 (No dominant species)	181,54	n.a.	5,75	n.a.	6,83	0,7+-0,03%	0,0018			
n.a.	n.a.	18,0157599	n.a.	n.a.	556,0052322	Type-1 (Sulfate-dominant waters)	244,05	n.a.	5,71	n.a.	74,23	0,8+-1,99%	0,0079	-	10,43	
n.a.	n.a.	20,6054583	n.a.	n.a.	637,3433528	Type-1 (Sulfate-dominant waters)	238,03	n.a.	5,96	n.a.	76,62					

Dataset 2. **Summary of metagenome-assembled-genomes with their putative taxonomy assigned by anvio v7.**

MAG sample names	Related OTU	Total length	Num contigs	N50	GC content	Completion (%)	Redundancy (%)	Domain	Phylum	Class	Order	Family	genus	Species
MAGSIPTR 10	OTU259	1663680	102	23118	38,84	91,54	0	Bacteria	Aquificota	Aquificae	Aquificales	Aquificaceae	Thermocrinis	Thermocrinis minervae
MAGSIPTR 12	OTU9	706529	187	5556	62,47	0	0	Bacteria	Deinococota	Deinococci	Deinococcales	Thermaeaceae	Meiothermus	
MAGSIPTR 13	OTU151	1032973	292	4603	64,02	92,10	5,26	Archaea	Hadarchaeota	Hadarchaeia	Hadarchaeales	WYZ-LMO6	WYZ-LMO6	WYZ-LMO6 sp004347925
MAGSIPTR 14	OTU425	1845029	34	84044	35,71	95,77	1,41	Bacteria	Nitrospirota	Thermodesulfobirionia	Thermodesulfobirionales	Thermodesulfobirionaceae	Thermodesulfobirio	Thermodesulfobirio yellowstonii
MAGSIPTR 15	OTU45	2403728	489	5181	62,92	74,65	5,63							
MAGSIPTR 17	OTU1743	1960805	657	3840	61,79	81,69	4,23	Bacteria	Deinococota	Deinococci	Deinococcales	Thermaeaceae	Meiothermus	Meiothermus cerbereus
MAGSIPTR 18	OTU2	1813843	69	41332	69,38	42,25	5,63	Bacteria	Proteobacteria	Gamma proteobacteria	Burkholderiales	Burkholderiaceae	Tepidimonas	Tepidimonas signava
MAGSIPTR 19	OTU69	2908268	496	9566	60,98	84,51	0	Bacteria	Deinococota	Deinococci	Deinococcales	Thermaeaceae	Meiothermus	Meiothermus hypogaeus
MAGSIPTR 2	OTU56	1715316	119	21351	56,35	90,14	0							
MAGSIPTR 23	OTU3132	1634774	52	47611	68,08	80,28	2,82	Bacteria	Proteobacteria	Gamma proteobacteria	Burkholderiales	Burkholderiaceae	Tepidimonas	
MAGSIPTR 24	OTU24	4777522	251	29934	56,88	94,37	4,23	Bacteria	Chloroflexota	Chloroflexia	Chloroflexales	Chloroflexaceae	Chloroflexus	Chloroflexus aurantiacus
MAGSIPTR 25	OTU19	2568817	38	142546	43,27	98,59	0	Bacteria	Bacteroidota	Bacteroidia	Flavobacteriales	Schleifeiaceae	Schleifeia	Schleifeia thermophila
MAGSIPTR 28	OTU36	1921569	17	356240	65,94	66,2	0	Bacteria	Proteobacteria	Gamma proteobacteria	Nevskiales	Nevskiaceae	Fontimonas	Fontimonas thermophila
MAGSIPTR 3	OTU16	2466952	271	12431	32,22	90,14	5,63							
MAGSIPTR 30	OTU49	2119855	154	23185	48,82	84,51	1,41	Bacteria	Firmicutes	Dethiobacteria	DTU022	UBA8154	UBA9862	UBA9862 sp003444595
MAGSIPTR 33	OTU100	1495287	474	4108	62,62	92,96	8,45							
MAGSIPTR 35	OTU57	1591738	136	18555	32,26	95,78	1,41	Bacteria	Aquificota	Aquificae	Hydrogenothales	Hydrogenothaceae	Sulfurihydrogenibium	Sulfurihydrogenibium azorense
MAGSIPTR 36	OTU220	2068330	750	3377	45,04	90,14	8,45							
MAGSIPTR 39	OTU76	1043573	499	2221	56,02	83,1	4,23							

MAGSIPTR 4	OTU1	239532 7	366	11275	64,96	87,32	9,86	Bacteria	Deinoco ccota	Deinoco cci	Deinoco ccales	Therma ceae	Thermu s	
MAGSIPTR 6	OTU6	213716 6	127	25177	39,36	92,96	0							
MAGSIPTR 7	OTU46	257637 0	236	18126	65,65	100	7,04	Bacteria	Proteob acteria	Gamma proteob acteria	Burkhol deriales			
MAGSIPTR 8	OTU125	317892 0	446	11557	57,3	95,77	8,45	Bacteria	Armatim onadota	Fimbrii monadi a	OS-L	GBS- DC	GBS- DC	GBS-DC sp00144298 5

**Dataset 3. Predicted metabolism of each metagenome-assembled-genomes (MAGs) generated in anvi'o v7.** (Dataset 3 can be found in [https://figshare.com/authors/mer\\_Coskun/9725927](https://figshare.com/authors/mer_Coskun/9725927))

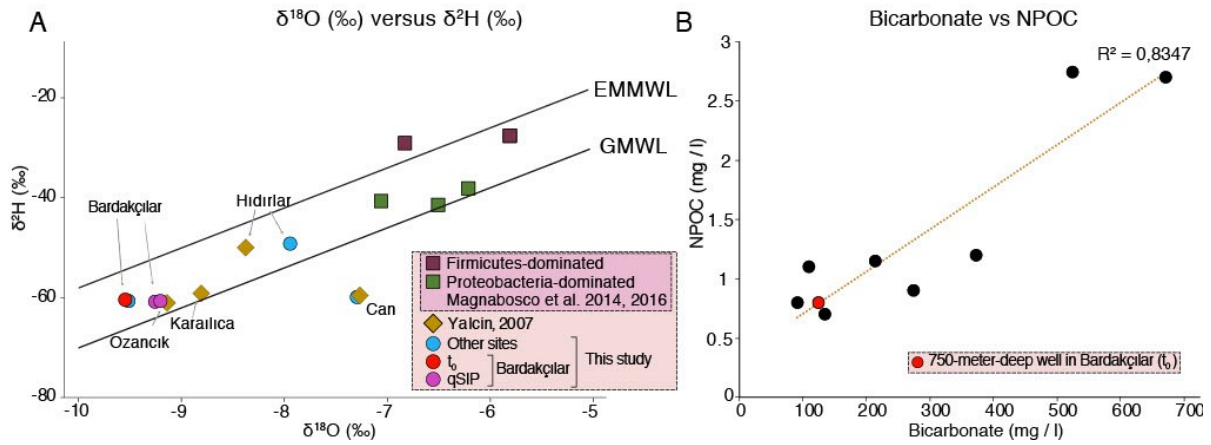
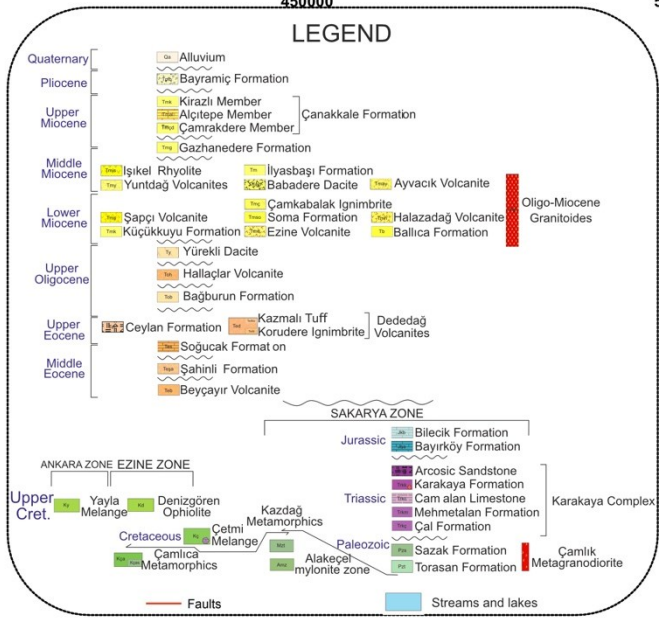
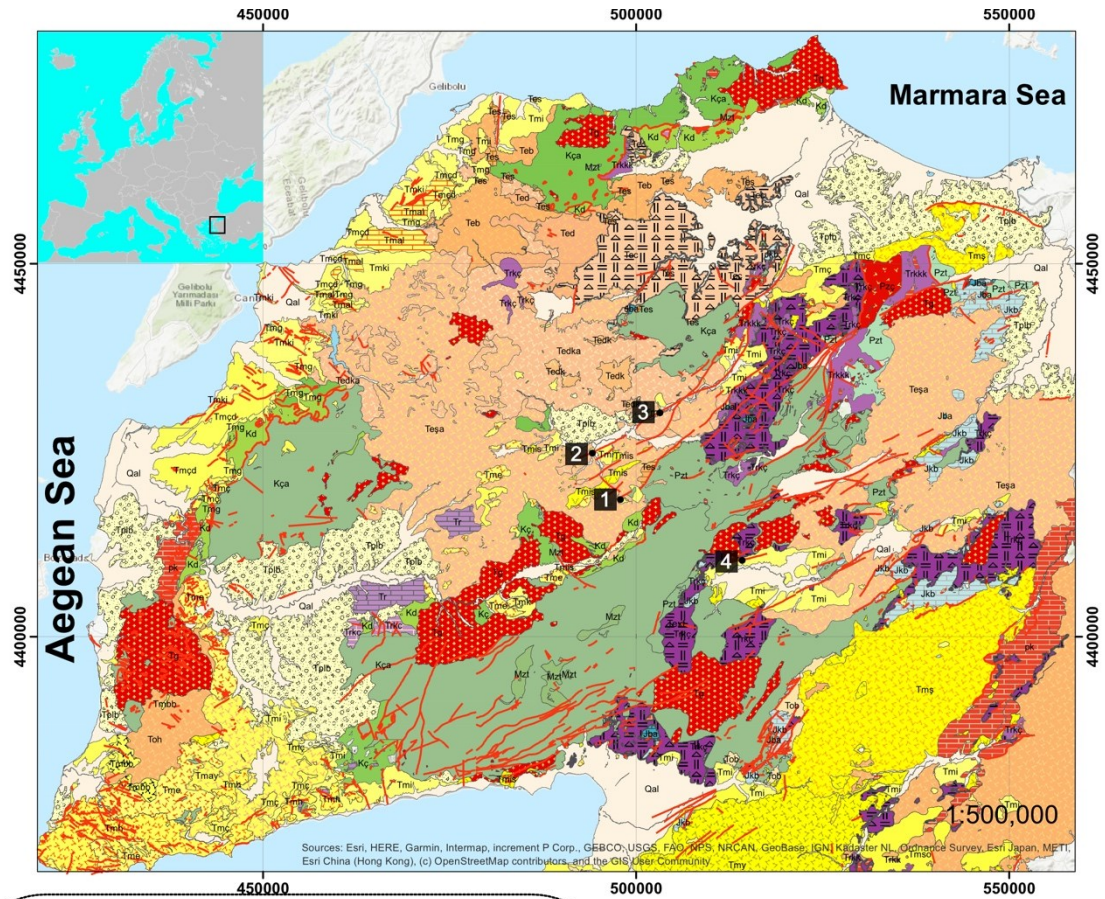


Figure S1: A) The  $\delta^2\text{H}$  (‰) and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  (‰) plot of thermal waters obtained in study (blue and red), and the other studies (Magnabosco et al. 2016; Yalcin 2007). The GMWL and EMMWL stand for Global Meteoric Water Line (Craig 1961) and East Mediterranean Water Line (Gat and Carmi 1970). B) Concentrations of NPOC (non-purgeable organic carbon; in other words, DOC) and Bicarbonate (in other words, DIC) across the sampled sites in Biga Peninsula ( $r^2 = 0.835$ ). The bicarbonate concentrations were calculated from the values obtained from carbonate hardness test (Dataset 1).



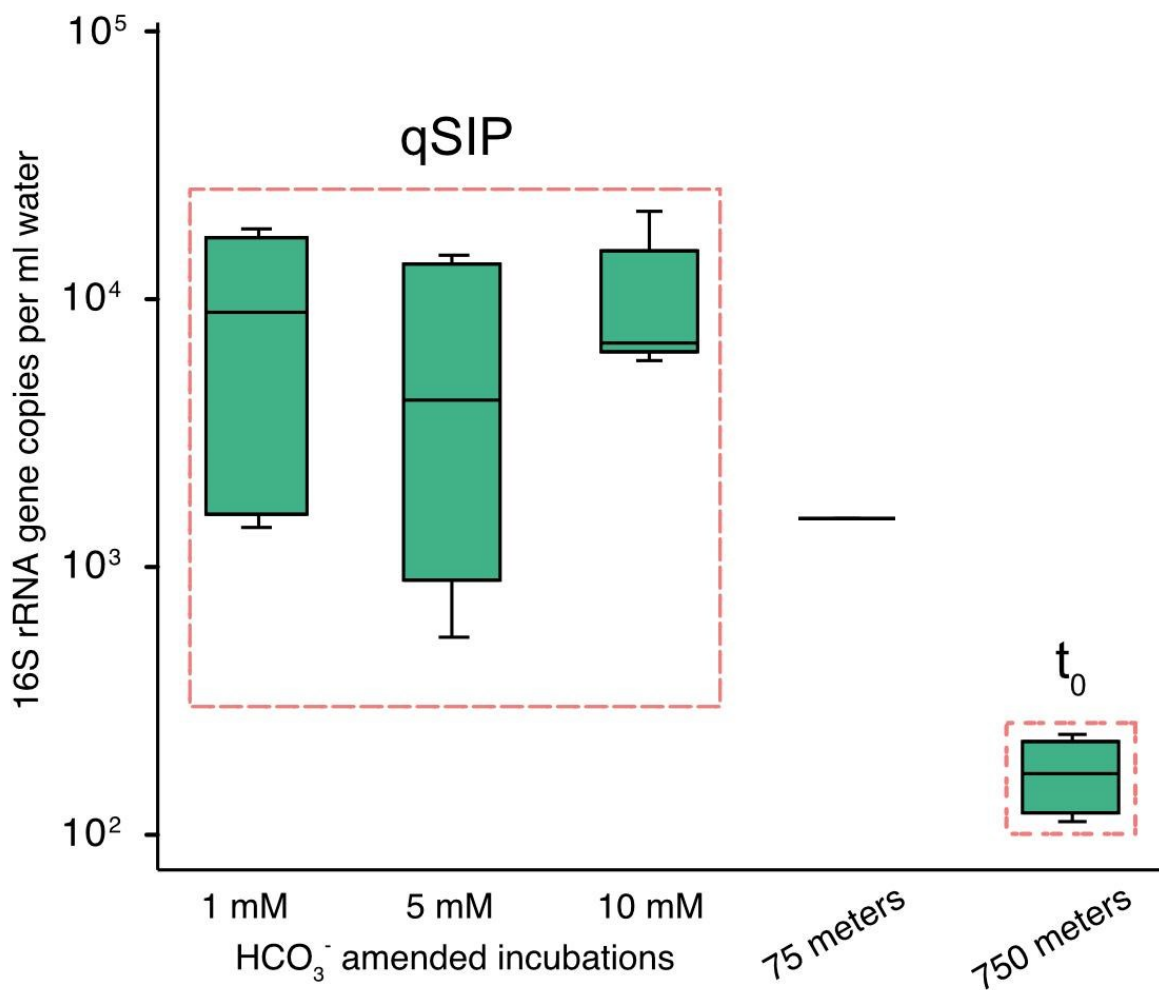
**Sampling sites**

- 1) Bardakçılar geothermal field
- 2) Karalınca
- 3) Çan
- 4) Hıdırlar

**Figure S2: The geology map of Biga peninsula.** The geological map is modified after Duru et al., 2007 which can be found online in provided by General Directorate of Mineral Research and Exploration of Turkey (MTA) (<https://www.mta.gov.tr/en/>). The sampling points were shown with corresponding numbers.



**Figure S3: Photographs of the fluid sampling from the 750m deep aquifer and experimental setup, at the private hotel in Bardakçılar village (Biga Peninsula, Turkey).** A) Pristine alkaline hydrothermal fluids that were collected, before the geothermal water enters the hotel plumbing system. Arrow shows the fluids that were sampled. The bottles were filled with fluid and incubated at high temperature with the labeled or unlabeled bicarbonate in the square shaped water collector. The bottles were secured in the water collector using fish nets (panel B). C) Incubations with added sodium-bicarbonate. D) Termination of the incubations. A field pump was used to filter the incubated alkaline hydrothermal fluids after the 135 hours of incubation.



**Figure S4: Concentration of 16S rRNA genes from the terminated qSIP experiments, 75-meter-deep well and 750-meter-deep well in Bardakçılar geothermal field.** Concentrations are normalized to per mL for seawater samples. The detection limit for our DNA extraction and qPCR assay is 100 total copies of 16S rRNA genes per extractions and therefore all of the samples analyzed were above our detection limit (albeit still very low biomass).



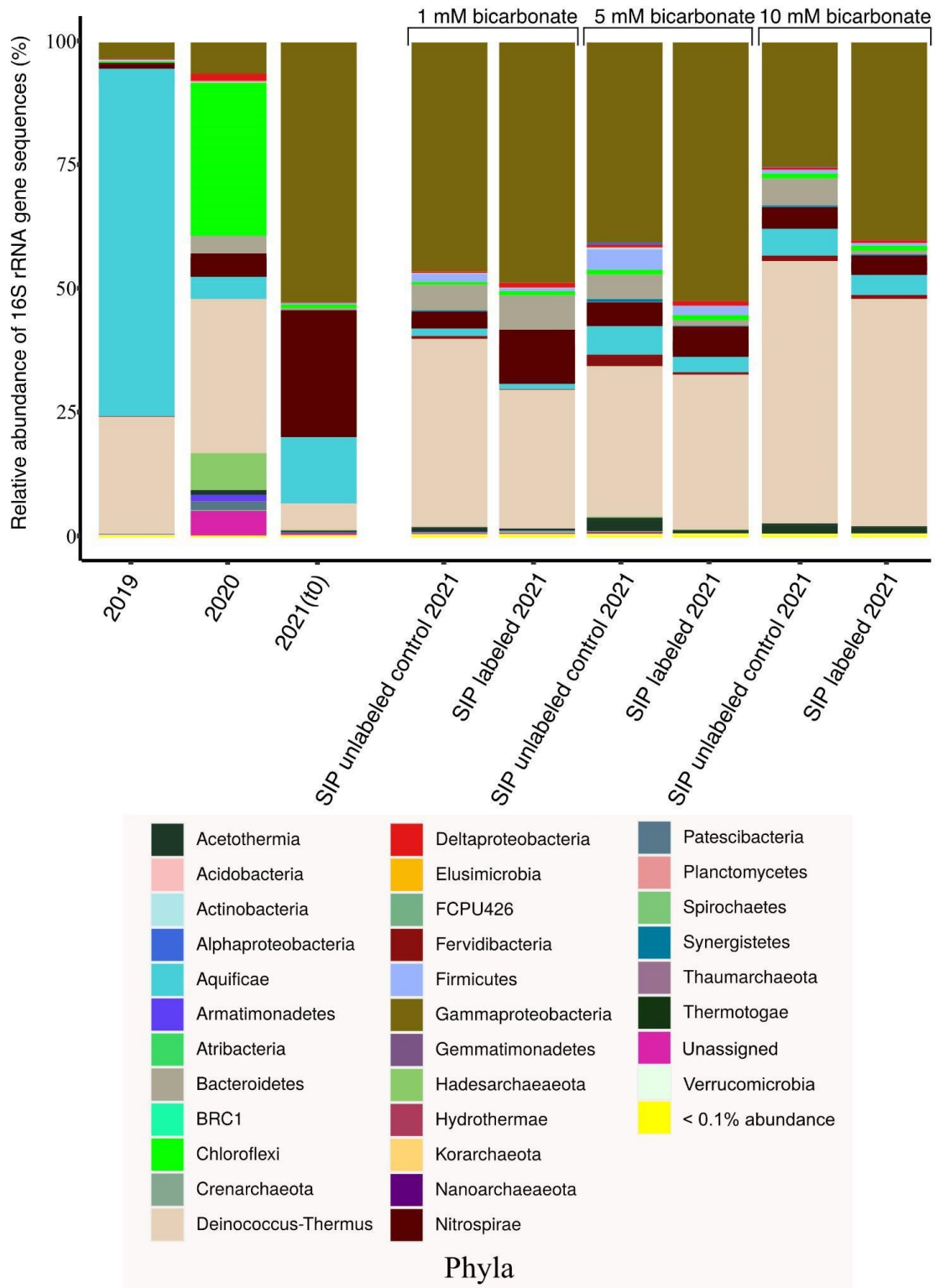
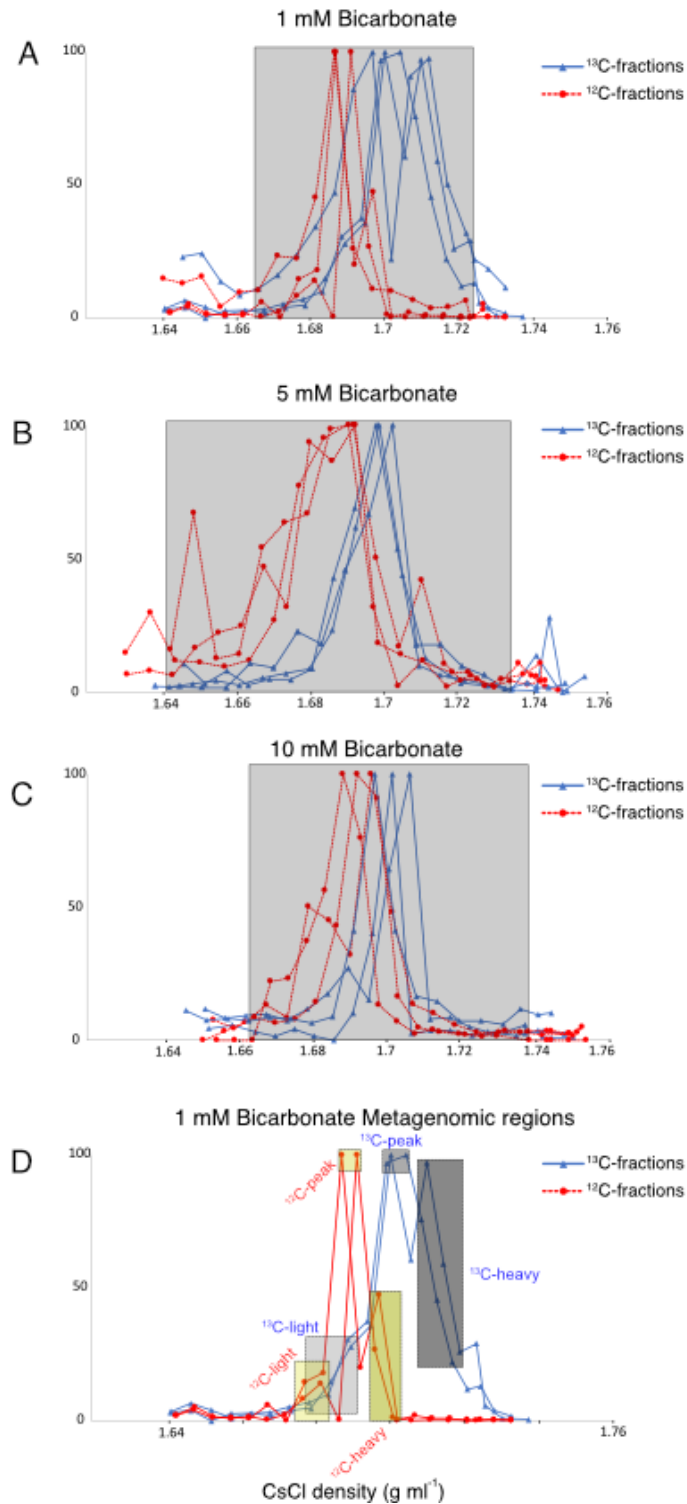
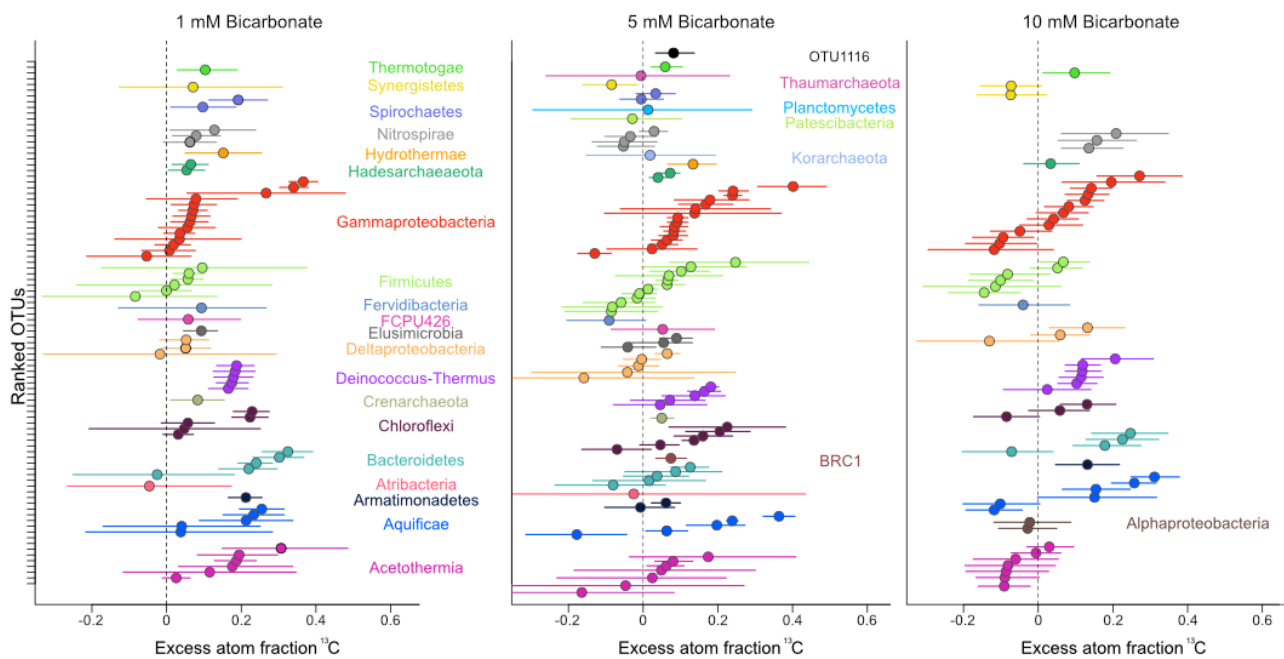


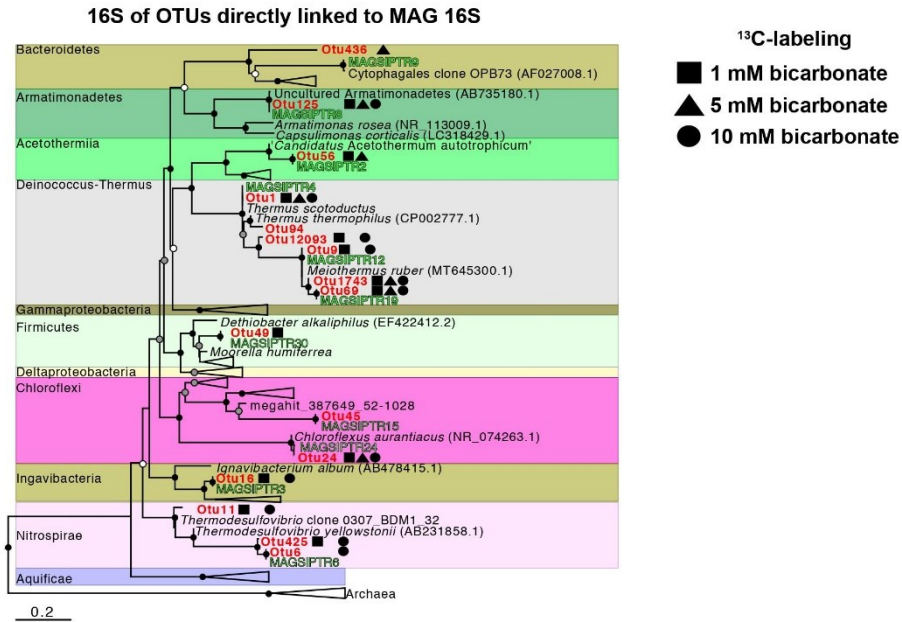
Figure S5: Stacked bar plots display the phylum-level microbial composition of 16S rRNA gene sequences.



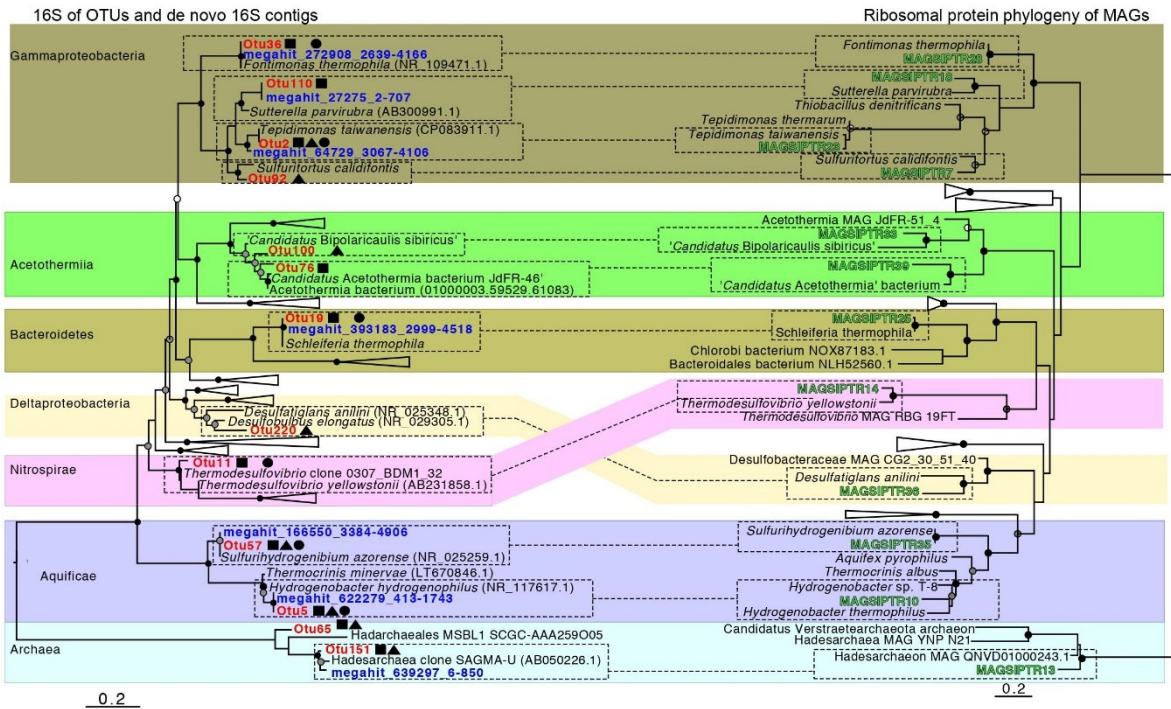
**Figure S6: Quantification of 16S rRNA gene copies across CsCl density gradient fractions fractionated from incubations amended with (A) 1 mM, (B) 5 mM, and (C) 10 mM sodium-bicarbonate.** <sup>13</sup>C-substrates are represented by blue solid lines and unlabeled replicates (control) are represented by red dashed lines. The y axis represents the relative abundance of 16S rRNA genes quantified with qPCR, normalized to maximal abundance across all density fractions. D) Selected fractions for light, peak and heavy regions that were used for metagenomic library preparation.



**Figure S7: Quantitative assimilation of  $^{13}\text{C}$  from  $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$  by OTUs at three different concentrations (1mM, 5 mM, 10 mM).** Individual points represent excess atom fraction (EAF) values of specific OTUs, which are colored by Phylum for qSIP incubations that received different bicarbonate concentrations. The error bars correspond to 90% CI across three biological replicates. OTUs that do not have a 90% CI overlapping with 0 are considered to be  $^{13}\text{C}$  labeled. The x-axis EAF values indicate the quantitative  $^{13}\text{C}$  enrichment of OTU 16S rRNA genes (e.g., an EAF value of 0.5 relates to 50% of carbon atoms in an OTU being  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled).



**MAG 16S inferred by ribosomal phylogeny compared to 16S tree with OTUs and de novo 16S contigs**



**Figure S8: Top Panel (A):** Phylogenetic tree of 16S rRNA gene of <sup>13</sup>C-labeled OTUs including their most similar sequences from the NCBI database and MAGs that have a binned 16S rRNA gene. **Bottom Panel Left (B):** Phylogenetic tree of 16S rRNA gene of <sup>13</sup>C-labeled OTUs together with 16S rRNA gene of closely related genomes to the MAGs that does not have a binned 16S rRNA gene. Blue colored texts represent the 16S rRNA gene that could not be binned but present in the contigs (determined by SqueezeMeta workflow). **Bottom Panel Left (C):** Phylogenetic tree of 5 ribosomal proteins (L18, L3, L4, S11, S3) extracted from metagenome assembled genomes and closest complete or incomplete genomes to our MAGs determined by a BLAST search. Black circles at nodes

represent bootstrap support of 90%, gray circles represent bootstrap support from 70 to 90%, and white circles represent bootstrap support from 70 to 50%

## Chapter 5

# Wood-Ljungdahl pathway in *Candidatus Bipolaricaulota* thriving in thermal waters in Biga Peninsula, Turkey

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**Keywords:** [stable isotope probing](#), [qSIP](#), [carbon cycling](#), [Candidatus Bipolaricaulota](#), [hypersaline geothermal springs](#)

## 5.1 Abstract

The Wood-Ljungdahl pathway (WL) has been proposed as one of the ancient metabolic carbon fixation pathways where the last common ancestor of all organisms (LUCA) might have used to fix carbon in anaerobic hydrothermal settings in the Early Earth. Therefore, the microorganisms thriving in modern deep terrestrial subsurface hydrothermal aquifers and hot springs have become a focal point of origin-of-life-based studies to seek primordial roots of carbon metabolism, yet these settings have been relatively understudied. To determine the biogeographical distribution of chemoautotrophs, we collected samples from deep hydrothermal aquifers and hot springs in tectonically active Biga Peninsula and vicinity of Edremit, Turkey. A total of 137 metagenome-assembled-genomes (MAGs) was reconstructed using metagenomic binning techniques and 4 of them were found to be affiliated with *Candidatus* Bipolaricaulota. WL pathway was shown to be ubiquitous in this phylum, yet the functionality was mainly attributed to heterotrophic processes. Additionally, to elucidate the genomic capacity of the MAGs reconstructed from deeply sourced hot springs and hydrothermal aquifers, we compared them to 19 publicly available incomplete to complete genomes of *Ca. Bipolaricaulota*. Our results showed that more than half of the genomes used in this study possessed a nearly complete/complete WLP pathway with a potential capacity to fix carbon and homoacetogenic fermentation. Complete to nearly complete ATPases were found in 12 MAGs which have genes encoding WL pathway, but ATP-citrate lyase, a key enzyme in reverse TCA to prove carbon fixation with WL pathway, was not found in those MAGs. However, the <sup>13</sup>C-labeled OTUs affiliated with *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* in the incubation amended with 1 mM sodium-bicarbonate were widespread in nearly all the hydrothermal spots, suggesting that carbon fixation with WL pathway in this phylum is already achieved. All in all, our results may shed light on the primordial carbon metabolism as biological, geological, and chemical requirements were met in this study, simply put, thermophilic and deeply branching *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* (Biology) living in hot springs and deep terrestrial aquifers (Geology) actively fixes carbon using with WL pathway (Chemistry).

## 5.2 Introduction

All life on Earth builds itself from CO<sub>2</sub> (Fuchs 2011), and we agree with the argument that this was no different at the emergence of life (Martin et al. 2008; Russell et al. 2014). The evolutionary metabolic analysis of all available genomic data indicates the last universal common ancestor (LUCA) was likely an H<sub>2</sub>- and CO<sub>2</sub>-utilizing autotroph (Wimmer et al. 2021). Two of carbon fixation pathways, the reductive tricarboxylic acid (rTCA) and pathways Wood-Ljungdahl pathway (WLP, also known as reductive acetyl-CoA pathway), are present in modern hydrothermal microbes and thought to be the most ancient primordial metabolism (Wächtershäuser 1990; Smith and Morowitz 2004; Braakman and Smith 2012, 2013).

*Candidatus* Bipolaricaulota (Hao et al. 2018), formerly known as OP1 (Hugenholtz et al. 1998) and *Candidatus* Acetothermia (Takami et al. 2012), has been detected in several environments, including

hot springs (Hugenholtz et al. 1998; Tobler and Benning 2011), deep-sea hydrothermal environments (Teske et al. 2002; Stott et al. 2008), subsurface thermophilic mat community (Takami et al. 2012), oil fields (Hu et al. 2016), sediment of hypersaline lagoon (Fernandez et al. 2016) and anaerobic bioreactor (Hao et al. 2018). *Acetothermium Autotrophicum* (Takami et al. 2012) has been shown phylogenetically to be one of the deep branches of Bacteria domain with members capable of fixing carbon autotrophically (Takami et al. 2012). A recent metagenomic study has reported that WL pathway is widespread in this phylum (Youssef et al. 2019), yet existence of WL pathway is not solely adequate to show in which mode WL pathway is functioning. As opposed to Takami et al. (Takami et al. 2012), *Acetothermium Autotrophicum* was predicted to use WL pathway in homoacetogenic fermentation metabolism as an electron sink (Youssef et al. 2019)

Turkey is one of important geothermal fields with more than 2000 geothermal sources and 460 geothermal fields (Mertoglu et al. 2020), to our knowledge, microbial community studies from hot springs and boreholes in Turkey are limited and focus mainly on isolates with usually conventional sequencing techniques targeting 16S rRNA genes (Çelikoğlu et al. 2016; Belduz et al. 2003; Guven et al. 2018). Furthermore, isolates in these studies were mostly detecting members of Family Bacillaceae, underlining the fact that studies on microbial isolation underestimate the microbial composition due to the fastidious nature of microbes to cultivation. Here, we collected samples from 11 different thermal waters in Biga Peninsula and around the vicinity of Edremit to explore the microbial diversity using culture independent techniques targeting 16S rRNA gene and environmental metagenomes. We also linked carbon fixing OTUs in 750-meter-deep well (Chapter 4; Kaz Mountain Hotel) to geochemically distinct thermal settings to uncover biogeographic distribution of active carbon fixers revealed by quantitative isotope probing (qSIP). We focus on 5 metagenome-assembled-genomes (MAGs) associated with *Candidatus Bipolaricaulota* and present a detailed analysis of possible functional capacity in their genome.

## 5.3 Materials and Methods

### 5.3.1 Sampling.

Soil, sediment, microbial mat and water samples were collected in summertime of the year between 2019 and 2021 from geothermal springs and boreholes in Biga peninsula and in the vicinity of Edremit Town (Balıkesir, Turkey) (Figure S1). Electrical conductivity (Ec) (WTW, Cond 3110 Set 1, Weilheim, Germany), temperature, salinity (WTW, Cond 3110 Set 1, Weilheim, Germany), pH (WTW, pH 3110 Set 2, Weilheim, Germany), dissolved oxygen (WTW Oxi 3310, Weilheim, Germany) and total dissolved solids (TDS) were measured in the field using handheld probes. 10 to 20 liters of water directly from each geothermal spot by throwing a pump tube into the spring were filtered through 0.22 µm hydrophilic polyethersulfone (PES) filters (Millipore Express, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) for 20 minutes at a medium speed using a peristaltic pump (Masterflex E/S 07571-05, Cole Parmer, USA). 4 replicates were collected for the filters. Collected samples were immediately placed into dry ice supplied by a local company in Turkey.



The detailed information on the laboratory-based measurements can be found in previously published article (Einsiedl et al. 2020). Briefly, samples for laboratory-based measurements of major anion and cation concentrations and water isotopes ( $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) were collected in 1.5 ml tubes after filtering with 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  PES filters. Samples for analysis of DOC (dissolved organic carbon) concentrations were collected in 50 mL glass bottles after filtering through 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  PVDF filters. Samples for the concentrations and isotope analysis of methane ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) were transferred into 200 mL glass vials without headspace and sealed with crimped butyl stoppers. Samples for dissolved organic matter (DOC) measurements were collected in a 100 mL glass vials and sealed with crimped butyl stoppers. All samples were stored in the dry ice. Laboratory measurements were done in hydrogeology department of Technical University of Munich (TUM).

### **5.3.2 DNA extraction**

After the samples reached our laboratory, DNA was extracted as described previously for filters (Orsi et al. 2015) and for the sediments (Coskun et al. 2018). In brief, four of 2 ml Lysing Matrix E tubes (MP Biomedicals, Solon, OH, USA) were poured into each 15 ml falcon tube containing the filters. 4 ml of a sterile-filtered sucrose ethylene-diaminetetraacetic lysis buffer (0.75 M sucrose, 0.05 M Tris-Base, 0.02 M ethylenediaminetetraacetic, 0.4 M NaCl, 4 ml 10% sodium dodecyl and pH 9.0) were added to the tubes and then, beat beating was performed for 40 sec using a Fast-Prep 5G homogenizer (MP Biomedicals, OH, USA) at a speed of 4 m / sec. Samples were subsequently heated for 2 min at 99 °C. After heating, 25 ml of 20 mg ml<sup>-1</sup> proteinase K was added, and tubes were incubated at 55 °C overnight. DNA was extracted and purified from the lysate using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen). Extracted DNA was quantified fluorometrically using Qubit 3.0 fluorometer (Invitrogen, Eugene, OR, USA).

### **5.3.3 qPCR of 16S rRNA gene copies**

Universal primers targeting the V4 hypervariable region of 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes were used in quantitative PCR (qPCR). We used a version of the 515F primer with a single-base change (in bold) to increase the coverage of certain taxonomic groups (515F-Y, 5'-GTGY**C**AGCMGCCGCGGTAA; (Parada et al. 2016)). qPCR reactions were carried out as described previously (Coskun et al. 2019). The 16S rRNA genes were subjected to dual-indexed barcoded sequencing of 16S rRNA gene amplicons on the Illumina MiniSeq as described previously (Pichler et al. 2018).

### **5.3.4 Bioinformatic and qSIP Analysis**

The MiniSeq reads from fractionated SIP incubations (Chapter 4), T<sub>0</sub> (untreated samples) and previously sequenced common laboratory contaminants (Pichler et al. 2018) were quality trimmed and assembled using USEARCH version 11.0.667 with the default parameters (Edgar 2010) resulting in 28.4 million quality checked V4 reads. Reads were then de novo clustered at 97% identity using UPARSE; Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) represented by a single sequence were discarded

(Edgar 2013). Taxonomic assignments were generated by QIIME 1.9.1 (Caporaso et al. 2010) using the implemented BLAST method against the SILVA rRNA gene database release 132 (Quast et al. 2013). The common contaminant genera such as *Pseudomonas*, *Ralstonia*, *Variovorax* or *Streptococcus* were also removed as these are common contaminants of molecular reagent kits (Salter et al. 2014). Statistical analyses and plots were performed using R.Studio Version 3.3.0 (Team and Others 2015). The 16S sequence data will be entered in the NCBI Short Read Archive under BioProject ID PRJNAXXXXXX.

### 5.3.5 Metagenomic analysis.

Most of the samples were selected for metagenomic shotgun sequencing (see Figure S3). Metagenomic libraries were prepared using Nextera XT DNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina) and following the manual provided by the manufacturer with some modifications. The starting concentration of genomic DNA could not be set to 0.2 ng as suggested by the manufacturer's manual due to low DNA content in some samples. Instead, the PCR program in the amplification step of the tagmented DNA was modified from 12 to 15 cycles. Quality control and quantification of the metagenomics libraries were done on an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer System using high sensitivity DNA reagents and DNA chips (Agilent Genomics). Metagenomic libraries were diluted to 1 nM and pooled together to sequence on Illumina MiniSeq platform. SqueezeMeta (Tamames and Puente-Sánchez 2018) and Anvi'o snakemake workflow (Köster and Rahmann 2012; Eren et al. 2015) were used for downstream analysis using co-assembly mode with default settings. In short, SqueezeMeta workflow deployed Trimmomatic for adapter removing, trimming and quality filtering by setting the parameters: leading = 8, trailing = 8, slidingwindow = 10:15, and minimum length = 30 (Bolger et al. 2014). Contigs were assembled using Megahit assembler using minimum length 200 nucleotides (Li et al. 2015). Open reading frames (genes and rRNAs; ORFs) were called using Prodigal (Hyatt et al. 2010), rRNAs genes were determined by barrnap (Seemann 2013). Diamond software (Buchfink et al. 2015) was deployed to search for gene homologies against the databases Genbank nr database for taxonomic assignment, eggNOG v4.5 (Huerta-Cepas et al. 2016) and KEGG database (Kanehisa and Goto 2000). Cutoff values for assigning hits to specific taxa were performed at e value as  $1 \times 10^{-3}$ , and a minimum amino acid similarity of 40 for taxa and 30 for functional assignment which were default settings of SqueezeMeta. Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) was used to map the read onto contigs and genes. Anvi'o snakemake workflow (anvi'o v7) was used to bin and to refine the Metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs). MaxBin (Wu et al. 2016), concoct (Alneberg et al. 2014) and Metabat2 (Kang et al. 2019) were deployed for the binning and DAS Tool (Sieber et al. 2018) was deployed to choose the best bin for each population. The completeness and contamination of the bins were checked in anvi'o v7. The metagenomic sequence data will be entered in the NCBI Short Read Archive under BioProject ID PRJNAXXXXXX.

## 5.4 Results

#### 5.4.1 Fluid geochemistry and the origin of thermal waters in Biga Peninsula

The origin of geothermal waters in Biga peninsula was determined using stable isotopic composition,  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , of the thermal waters. The results showed that isotopic composition of samples, except Kestanbol, Tuzla and Can, fell between global meteoric water line (GMWL, (Craig 1961)) and East Mediterranean meteoric water line (EMMWL, (Gat and Carmi 1970)).  $\delta^2\text{H} - \delta^{18}\text{O}$  graph displays those thermal waters existing in Tuzla and Kestanbol have been affected from a salt-concentrated water source, as they fell onto a mixing line (Figure 1). Thermal waters from Can exhibited  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -shift towards the right side of the graph. Tuzla and Kestanbol sites were enriched with high NaCl concentrations whereas the other spots were dominated with  $\text{NaSO}_4$ -enriched waters.

#### 5.4.2 Abundance of *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* in thermal waters

31 OTUs affiliated with *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* were identified across the samples taken from Biga peninsula determined by V4 region of 16S rRNA gene sequences (Figure 2). The highest abundance of *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* (63% of the total reads) was found in a hypersaline Tuzla sample. The 16S rRNA phylogeny has highlighted that 22 of them were closely related to 16S rRNA gene sequences obtained from the hydrothermal and subsurface settings (Figure 2). Further analysis on  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled OTUs identified in "Chapter 4" in this thesis (OTU22, OTU20, OTU76, OTU56, OTU100) to show the distribution of *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* was performed (Figure 3). It highlights that 3 of the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled OTUs affiliated with *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* were matching with the same OTUs dominating Tuzla Samples, namely OTU22, OTU20, OTU76. It has revealed that carbon-fixing *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* members in Tuzla samples were thriving in most of the sampling sites except Entur, Buyukilica (Figure 3).

#### 5.4.3 Metagenome-assembled genome quality and taxonomic identification.

137 metagenome-assembled-genomes (MAGs) (Table S2) were assembled from 11 thermal spots across the Biga peninsula and close vicinity of Edremit region, Turkey (Figure S1) using 34 metagenomic library generated from fractionated SIP samples ( $n = 14$ ), unfractionated SIP samples ( $n = 3$ ), 0.22  $\mu\text{m}$  filtered water ( $n = 14$ ), and sediments ( $n = 3$ ). Two of the MAGs were taxonomically assigned to *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* with 90.1% (0% redundancy) and 60% (0% redundancy) completeness by *anvi'o* and our further phylogenetic tree investigations have revealed that MAGSIPTR38 and MAGSIPTR2 were taxonomically assigned to *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* with completeness of 83.1% (4.2% redundancy) and 90.1% (0% redundancy).

#### 5.4.4 Comparison of MAGs with the MAGs found in the other studies.

In order to compare the MAGs reconstructed in this study to the published MAGs, we followed a pangenomic analysis in *anvi'o* using *Ca. Bipolaricaulis anaerobius* Ran1 (Hao et al. 2018), *Ca\_Bipolaricaulis\_sibiricus\_Ch78* (Kadnikov et al. 2019), *Ca\_Bipolaricaulis\_sp\_Go\_SIDig\_bin\_182* (Schneider et al. 2021), *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* AUK024, *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* 0786\_k87 (Youssef et al.

2019), *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* bin446 (Wang et al. 2021), *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* GSL\_GSL3510, *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* MAG23 (Liu et al. 2020), *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* MAG24 (Liu et al. 2020), *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* MAG1260 (Liu et al. 2020), *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* S141 (Reysenbach et al. 2020), *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* SZUA1496 (Zhou et al. 2020), *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* UWMA\_0174, *Acetothermium Autotrophicum* (Takami et al. 2012), *Acetothermia* UBA3560 (Parks et al. 2017), *Acetothermia* UBA3574 (Parks et al. 2017), *Acetothermia*\_JdFRolivine\_4 (Smith et al. 2019), *Acetothermia* JdFR 48 (Jungbluth et al. 2017), *Acetothermia*\_JdFR\_52 (Jungbluth et al. 2017). We named our MAGs as *Acetothermia*\_TUZ33, *Acetothermia*\_CK84, *Acetothermia*\_CK101, UBA3571\_sp\_HID15. The pangenome analysis has uncovered that pairwise average nucleotide identities were spanning from nearly 65% to 99.9% between MAGs. The closest strain to *Acetothermium Autotrophicum* has been found to be CK101 reconstructed in this study.

## 5.5 Discussion

### 5.5.1 The origin of the thermal waters

The origin of geothermal waters in Biga peninsula was determined using stable isotopic composition,  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , of the thermal waters (Figure 1). The results showed that isotopic composition of samples, except Kestanol, Tuzla and Can, fell between global meteoric water line (GMWL, (Craig 1961)) and East Mediterranean meteoric water line (EMMWL, (Gat and Carmi 1970)), suggesting that the subsurface hydrothermal water had been replenished by modern meteoric water (Figure 1). These results were also in line with the findings published by Yalcin, 2007 (Yalcin 2007). Samples taken from Kestanol and Tuzla contain high amounts of sodium and chloride, that is why they have been classified as NaCl-dominated waters (Yalcin 2007). Stable isotopic composition of the thermal waters in these areas,  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , fell onto a mixing line between meteoric waters and deep-seated hot brine waters whose origin is not known, consistent with the previous study (Yalcin 2007). It has been proposed that the origin of water could be the fossil water trapped in Miocene sediments (Mützenber 1997; Balderer 1997), whereas another study stressed that hypersalinity in these waters could be resulted from dissolution of salt deposits (Vengosh et al. 2002). Thermal waters from Can, exhibiting  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -shift, may be explained by  $\text{CO}_2$  input from a geological source, which was also suggested by the previous study that investigated thermal waters in Biga Peninsula (Yalcin 2007).

### 5.5.2 The carbon fixation by *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* in qSIP samples

Our qSIP experiments to unravel the diversity of microbes fixing inorganic carbon into biomass are explained in detail in chapter 4, highlighting that 5 OTUs affiliated to *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* assimilated the sodium bicarbonate. Thus, we wanted to further investigate its distribution and functional capacity in hot springs and deep hydrothermal wells in this chapter because (1) *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* has been shown that a member of this phylum is deeply-branching (Takami et al. 2012), (2) WL-pathway is widespread within this phylum (Youssef et al. 2019), (3) the members of this phylum

actively fixes carbon in deep hydrothermal aquifers in Turkey (chapter 4), and lastly (4), three recovered MAGs (out of 4) have genomic capability to fix carbon using WL pathway.

### 5.5.3 Pangenome of investigated *Ca. Bipolaricaulota*

We have downloaded publicly available 19 MAGs related to *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* from NCBI (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>) with completeness levels ranging from 77% to 95% except 50% complete *Acetothermium Autotrophicum* (Takami et al. 2012) and compared to our newly reconstructed MAGs in study. Our results have revealed that average nucleotide identity values were on average 72%, underlining the possibility that (1) the members have undergone evolution in different ecological and biogeographical settings (Konstantinidis and Tiedje 2005) or (2) that not having a cultured strain of *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* is hindering a phylogenetic congruence because assessing the quality of metagenomic-assembled-genomes without a reference genome from cultivated strains can be challenging (Bowers et al. 2017).

The pangenome analysis concluded on just a single gene existing in 24 samples and 15 genes in 23 samples. Thus, more complete, and reliable genomes are still needed to resolve the core genome of this highly interesting taxa, which are ubiquitous in hypersaline Tuzla samples and biogeographically widespread in Biga Peninsula. We leave further investigation on the core genomic part for the future studies when, hopefully, complete *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* genomes are high in number.

### 5.5.4 WL Pathway within *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* obtained from pangenome analysis

WL pathway was found to be widespread in MAGs of *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* in a similar study which used 14 MAGs (Youssef et al. 2019), of which 5 MAGs were identical between the studies, namely Bin Zgenome\_0786 (named as *Ca. Bipolaricaulota\_0786\_k87* in this study) (Youssef et al. 2019), *Candidatus Acetothermium autotrophicum* (Takami et al. 2012), *Ca. Bipolaricaulis anaerobius* Ran1 (Hao et al. 2018), *Candidatus Acetothermia bacterium* JdFR-52 and jdsFR-48 (Jungbluth et al. 2017) (Figure 4). Youssef et al. (Youssef et al. 2019) have concluded that the WL pathway is versatile in 14 *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* MAGs they investigated. The WL pathway may be involved in homoacetogenic fermentative process by reducing pyruvate to CO<sub>2</sub> and subsequent use of CO<sub>2</sub> in WL pathway as a function for electron sink (Schuchmann and Müller 2016), in autotrophy to fix CO<sub>2</sub> into biomass (Fuchs 2011), and lastly in syntrophic oxidation of acetate (SAO) to use WL pathway in reverse direction, producing CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> as end products (Müller et al. 2013).

The identification of WL pathway in a genome, as mentioned above, is not adequate evidence that the organism is fixing inorganic carbon. However, functional capabilities may be indicative of which way WL pathway is functioning as discussed in (Schuchmann and Müller 2016). Likewise, SIP studies are powerful techniques to track the labeled substrate (Hungate et al. 2015), thereby a simple link between an organism and tested substrate (Here NaH<sup>13</sup>CO<sub>3</sub>) can be established if the labeling occurs. As such, sodium-bicarbonate utilization by an OTU/MAG resulting from qSIP study will most likely represent that carbon fixation is achieved by that organism.

The existence of core WL pathway in acetogens is a requirement, which is defined as the reactions that lead from 2 molecules of CO<sub>2</sub> to acetyl-CoA (Schuchmann and Müller 2016). When 5 common MAGs between this study and Youssef et al. were compared, our regular workflow in *anvi'o* v7 (Eren et al. 2015) (See materials and methods) failed to recognize WL involving genes in *Ca. Bipolaricaulis anaerobius* Ran1 and in the bin named as Zgenome\_0786 using COG (Galperin et al. 2021) and KEGG databases (Kanehisa and Goto 2000). However, we found *acsB* (K14138), *cdhD* (K00194) and *cdhE* (K00197) for the latter MAG, but the other necessary genes for the WL pathway were missing. This might be related to differences in methodology, on the other hand, our workflow has identified the WL pathway involving genes in the bins of JdFR 48, JdFR 52 and *Acetothermium Autotrophicum* as it was also shown in paper published by Youssef et al. (Youssef et al. 2019). Opposite to their finding, 10 MAGs used in this study did not carry most of the genes encoding WL pathway, but more than half of the MAGs possessed the key genes for WL pathway, including bins reconstructed in this study, named as UBA3571 sp HID15, CK101 and CK84. Therefore, we conclude that the WL pathway is ubiquitous in *Ca. Bipolaricaulota*, but not phylum-wide distributed. Still, this does not mask the importance of *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* in microbial ecology, since the deeply branching phylogenetic support and existence of WL pathway in the genome should place the members of *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* species into the center of studies investigating the traces of ancient genes.

### 5.5.5 Autotrophic growth using WL pathway

ATPase complex is necessary for organisms to grow chemolithoautotrophically using WL pathway (Müller 2003). It was postulated that a gluconeogenic pathway, acetyl-CoA conversion to pyruvate, and a TCA cycle reversal to consume acetyl-CoA into central metabolism (Youssef et al. 2019).

In consistent with (Youssef et al. 2019), all MAGs analyzed in this study contained genes encoding pyruvate, water dikinase [EC:2.7.9.2] (CK84, CK101 and *Acetothermium Autotrophicum*) and pyruvate, orthophosphate dikinase [EC:2.7.9.1] (all the other MAGs). Key enzyme involved in reverse TCA, ATP-citrate lyase, was found in only 7 MAGs, which we could not retrieve many components of WL pathway in their genome, namely S141, MAG24, MAG23, AUK024, k0786\_k87, Go\_SIDig\_bin182, and *Bipolaricaulis anaerobius* Ran1. The citrate synthase, which was shown to fix carbon when reversed in TCA cycle (Mall et al. 2018), was found in the genomes of *Acetothermium Autotrophicum*, CK101 and S141. Since CK101 had <sup>13</sup>C-labeling in the incubations amended with sodium-bicarbonate (Chapter 4), it may show that the reversibility of TCA to fix carbon may be taking place in the natural environment, together with WL pathway. Complete to incomplete V- and F-type ATPases could be detected in all the MAGs except *Bipolaricaulis anaerobius* Ran1 and Go\_SIDig\_bin182, consistent with (Youssef et al. 2019). All in all, these results show that WL pathway containing MAGs can fix carbon, including the MAGs reconstructed in this study, namely CK101, CK84 and HID15 (Figure 4).

### 5.5.6 Homoacetogenic fermentative process.

The utilization of a wide range of sugar and amino acids to pyruvate is a prerequisite for an organism conducting homoacetogenic fermentation, also known as homoacetogenesis (Schuchmann and Müller 2016). 2 Acetyl-coA, 2 CO<sub>2</sub> and 2 ferredoxin are produced from 2 pyruvates by the enzyme pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase (PFO) (Ragsdale 2003; Schuchmann and Müller 2016). Then, the produced 2 CO<sub>2</sub> and 1 ferredoxin take part in the WL pathway. Also, H<sub>2</sub> needs to be produced from the remaining ferredoxin to involve in WL pathway; therefore Rnf complex and an electron-bifurcating hydrogenase are necessary (Schuchmann and Müller 2012). Pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductases were found in 17 MAGs, 12 of which have complete/incomplete genes encoding WL pathway components (CK101, CK84, jdFR48, jdFR52, Olivine4, UBA3560, UBA3574, Acetothermium Autotrophicum, GSL\_GSL3510, SZUA1496, UMWA\_0174, and HID15). 12 MAGs encode membrane-bound hydrogenases (alpha, beta and mbhJ were observed) [EC:1.12.7.2]. In addition, 10 WLP encoding MAGs had subunits of heterodisulfide reductase (Buckel and Thauer 2018). These findings highlight the genomic capacity of MAGs under *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* as they can switch between autotrophy and heterotrophy using WL pathway in these hydrothermal springs and deep subsurface aquifers.

In line with our analysis, it has been reported that the Tuzla sample contains nearly twice the amount of the salt concentration compared to the same concentrations in seawater as sodium and chloride concentrations reaching 16,963 mg/l and 68,256 mg/l, respectively (Baba et al. 2009). 3 OTUs associated with *Ca. Bipolaricaulota*, which assimilated sodium-bicarbonate only in 1 mM incubations (Figure 3), were found to be dominant taxa in this hypersaline environment.

Interestingly, phylum OP1/KB1 (now, *Ca. Bipolaricaulota*) has been found in hypersaline waters such as in Orca Basin (the largest hypersaline seafloor brine basin in the Gulf of Mexico) (Nigro et al. 2016), Hephaestus and Kryos basins (Fisher et al. 2021), hypersaline stratified layers of Ursu Lake (Baricz et al. 2021), saline pan sediments in the Kalahari Desert of southern Africa (Genderjahn et al. 2018), and in surface sediments of salty Siberian soda lakes (Vavourakis et al. 2018). We propose that carbon-fixing *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* are halotolerant as they were found in the other hydrothermal spots in Biga Peninsula, mainly dominated by NaSO<sub>4</sub>. In agreement with carbon metabolism of *Ca. Bipolaricaulota*, this taxa, comprising 12-44% of total microbial community in anoxic, hypersaline layers of Witpan in South Africa (Genderjahn et al. 2018), was correlated to acetate concentrations, suggesting their acetogenic activity. Glycine betaine uptake was reported in the genome of KB1 to involve “salt out” (Oren 2008) strategy in a response to osmotic pressure (Nigro et al. 2016). We searched for homologous genes, but we only identified these genes related to osmotic pressure in GSI\_GSL3510 bin. On the other hand, the other MAGs contained K<sup>+</sup> uptake protein (*trk*), which was reported to be 10 times faster than the *Kup* transporters (Johnson Hope et al. 2009). Therefore, it is most likely that *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* is a “salt-in” strategist which accumulates potassium salts (Oren 2008), explaining their majority in hypersaline environments.

### 5.5.7 Dissolved Oxygen in the incubations

The dissolved O<sub>2</sub> in our incubations were between 0.75-1.35 mg/l, where the O<sub>2</sub> levels declined after 135 hours of incubation period (Table S1). Tuzla samples were also oxygenated as the measurement was 1.46 mg/l. The presence of O<sub>2</sub> and carbon fixation by WL pathway are contradicting evidence, although the measurements are categorized as severe to moderate dsyoxic levels (Tyson and Pearson 1991). We propose that complete absence of O<sub>2</sub> must be present in these hot springs and deep subsurface wells, but our measurements were done after cooling the water to certain degrees not to harm the equipment. These may show O<sub>2</sub> values a little bit higher than its actual value. Successful labeling of *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* members can also support this because genes encoding WL pathway components are sensitive to oxygen (Lu and Imlay 2021).

## 5.6 Conclusion

To sum up, the results show that the WL pathway is a widespread mechanism to fix the CO<sub>2</sub> in *Ca. Bipolaricaulota*, although nearly 40% of them did not possess complete/nearly complete genes encoding WL pathway components. Newly reconstructed MAGs also possess WL pathway, which was shown to be used to fix CO<sub>2</sub> by qSIP study in chapter 4. In addition, the potential for homoacetogenic fermentation existed in most of the MAGs. Lastly, *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* was proposed as “salt-in” strategist and its spatial distribution across the hydrothermal spots in Biga Peninsula demonstrated the halotolerant ecophysiology. All in all, all aspects *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* should be studied in detail because the genome of *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* may provide clues for primordial metabolism of last universal common ancestor (LUCA).



# Figures

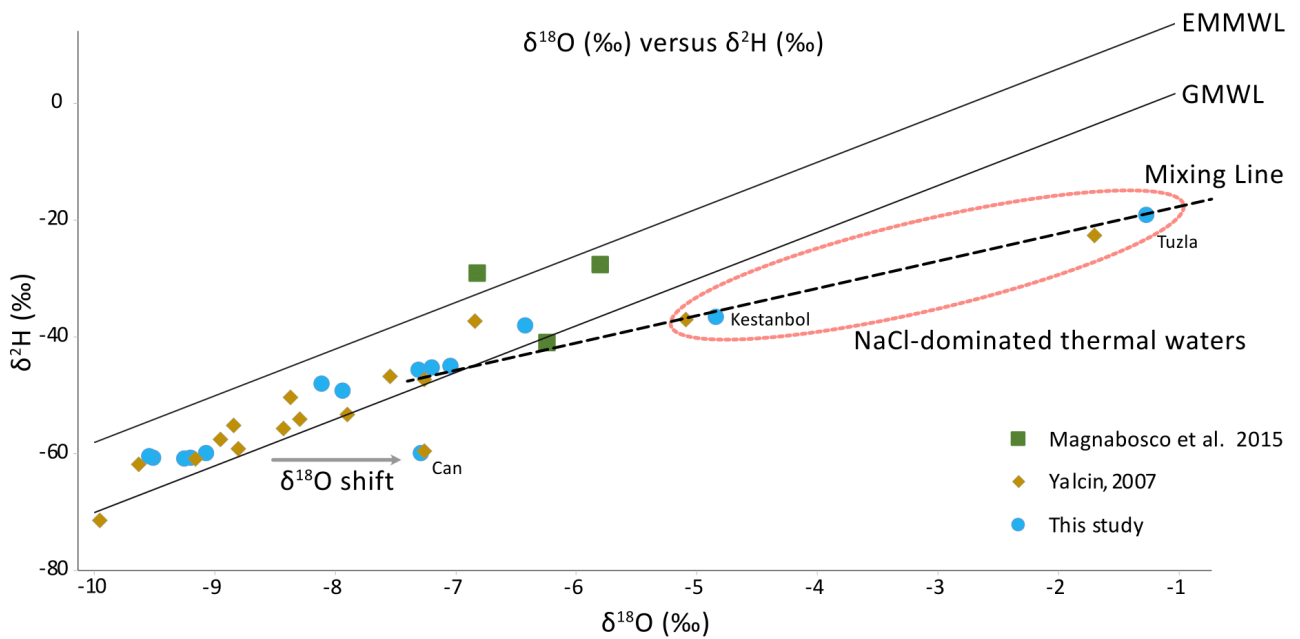


Figure 1: A) The  $\delta^2\text{H}$  (‰) and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  (‰) plot of thermal waters obtained in study (blue), and the other studies (Yalcin 2007, Magnabosco et al. 2016). The GMWL and EMMWL stand for Global Meteoric Water Line (Craig 1961) and East Mediterranean Water Line (Gat and Carmi 1970).

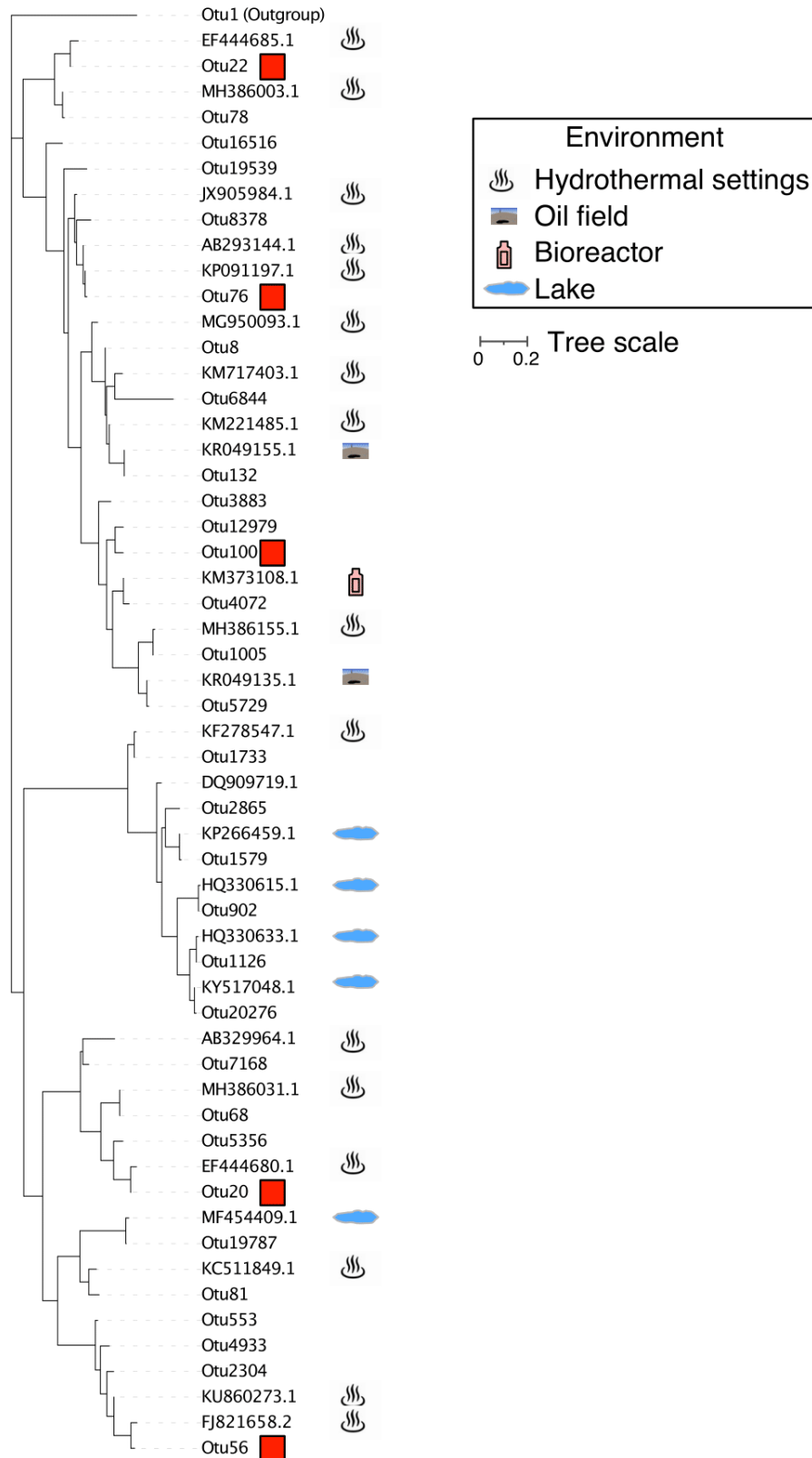


Figure 2: Phylogenetic tree of 16S rRNA genes of OTUs affiliated with *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* including their most similar sequences from the NCBI nr database (accession numbers shown), branches starting with 'OTU' indicate those from this study. Red squares represent  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled OTUs with sodium-bicarbonate determined from qSIP study in chapter 4. The distinct shapes showing the information of environmental setting were aligned with the sequences downloaded from NCBI.

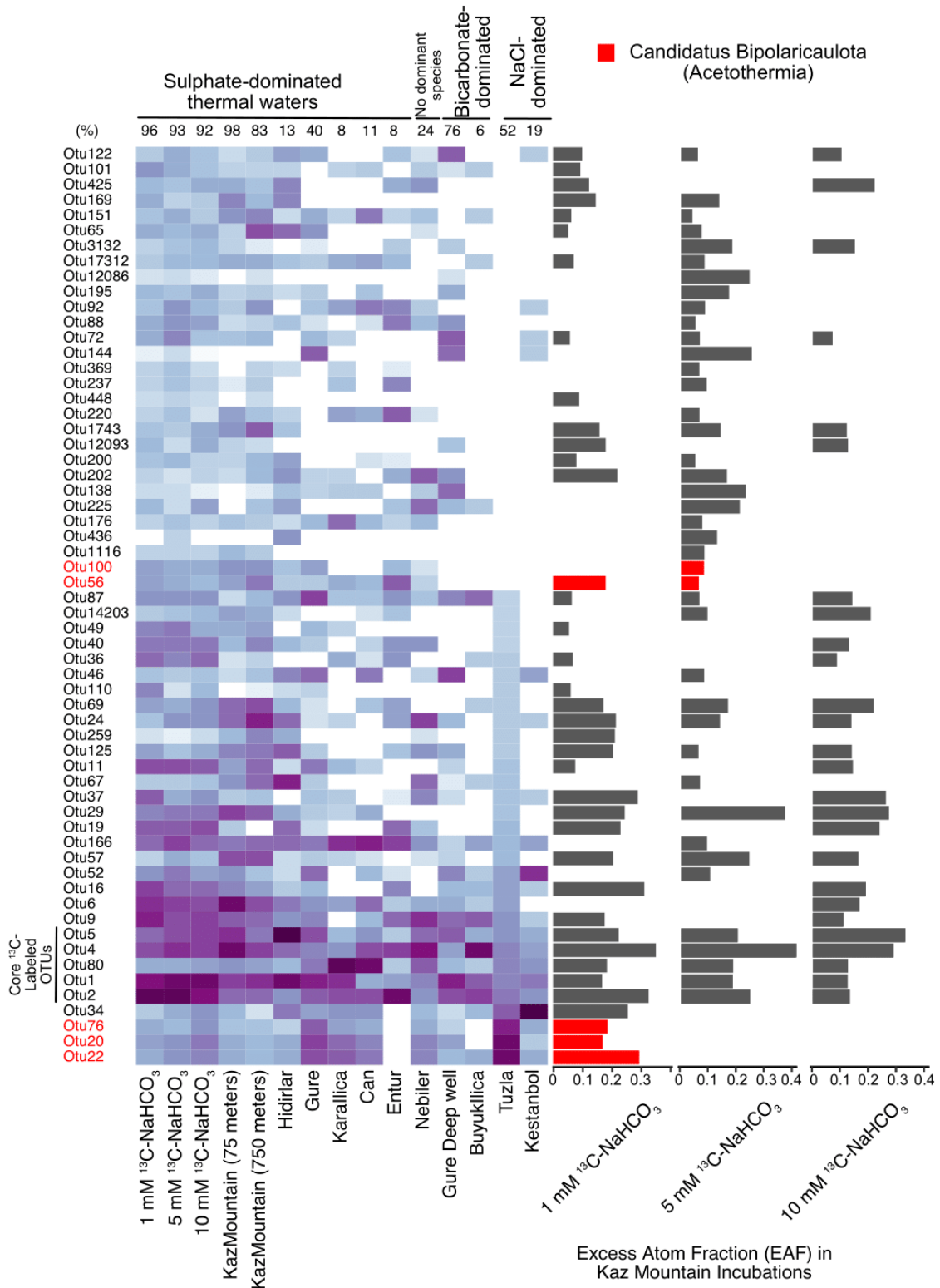


Figure 3: The heatmap shows the relative abundance of 16S rRNA gene sequences per labeled OTU per samples. Differential bicarbonate incubations on the left-hand side (1 mM, 5 mM and 10 mM sodium bicarbonate incubations; Chapter 4) and followed by T<sub>0</sub> samples collected from different hydrothermal hotspots in Biga Peninsula in 2019, 2020 and 2021 (purple = more, light blue = less). The histograms on the right side of the plot show the average  $^{13}\text{C}$ -EAF across all qSIP incubations



Table S1. Water chemistry and information of the sampling sites

Sample	Field Measurements							
	Depth of the well	Temperature (°C)	pH	Ec (uS/sn)	Oxygen (mg/l) @T	Salinity (ppm or mg/l)	Carbonate hardness (mmol/l)	Bicarbonate mg/l
Kestanbol	?	62	6,97	28600	2,2 @27	18,3	6,1 mmol/l - 17 od	372,2
Güre collector	260 m	64	7,07	1083	0,79 @42	0,5	1,8 mmol/l - 4,8 od	109,8
Büyük İlica	?	43,6	6,97	1055	1,1 @43	0,5	11 mmol/l - 30.6 od	671,2
Can	60 m	45,6	6,92	2200	0,49 @44	1,1 ppm	4,5 mmol/l - 12.4 od	274,6
Entur Thermal Hotel	?	46,5	7,96	1095	0,48 @ 46	0,5	2,05 mmol/l - 5,7 od	125,1
Güre deep well	1350 m	76,6**	8,2	1240	0,98 @44	0,5	2 mmol/l - 6od	122,0
Hidirlar	Hot spring	78,5	8,13	889	1,38 @45	0,4	2,2 mmol/l - 6 od	134,2
Kaz Mountain Hotel	750 m	61,7*	8,27	1514	1,64 @47	0,8 mg/l	1,5 mmol/l - 4od	91,5
Kaz Mountain Hotel	75 m	56,7	8,28	1340	0,99 @47	680 ppm	2 mmol/l - 5.5 od	122,0
Nebiler	Hot spring	55	7,12	1390	0,83 @40	0,8	8,6 mmol/l - 23,7 od	524,8
Tuzla	Hot spring	68,1	6,96	78100	1,46 @53	52,3	-	7083,2
Karallica	Hot spring	46,7	7,07	2380	0,61 @46	1,2	3,5 mmol/l - 9,6 od	213,6

\* Samples taken in 2019 and 2020 had 73 °C. For detailed explanation, please see materials and methods.

\*\* The actual temperature of the well is 94 °C

Incubation name	Field Measurements							
	Depth of the well	Temperature (°C)	pH	Ec (uS/sn)	Oxygen (mg/l) @T	Salinity (ppm or mg/l)	Carbonate hardness (mmol/l)	Bicarbonate mg/l (calculated from)
10 mM NaH <sup>13</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	750	-	7,31	2190	1,35	1,1	-	-
5 mM NaH <sup>13</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	750	-	7,42	1870	1,23	0,9	-	-
1 mM NaH <sup>13</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	750	-	7,84	1598	0,75	0,8	-	-
10 mM NaH <sup>12</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	750	-	7,28	2160	1,05	1,1	-	-
5 mM NaH <sup>12</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	750	-	7,37	1909	1,09	1,1	-	-
1 mM NaH <sup>12</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	750	-	7,91	1610	1,04	0,8	-	-

Sample	anions						cations					
	Phosphate mg/l	Bromide mg/l	Chloride mg/l	Nitrate mg/L	Nitrite mg/L	Sulfate mg/L	dilution	Na (mg/l)	NH <sub>4</sub> (mg/l)	K (mg/l)	Mg (mg/l)	Ca (mg/l)
Kestanbol	n.a.	18,2	11222,9	3,8	n.a.	90,3	50,0	5430,1	n.a.	571,6	36,8	755,2
Güre collector	n.a.	n.a.	42,4	n.a.	n.a.	372,3	2,0	197,3	n.a.	5,4	n.a.	15,0
Büyük İlica	n.a.	n.a.	16,4	n.a.	n.a.	58,1	1,0	67,0	n.a.	6,6	7,9	36,9
Can	n.a.	n.a.	171,0	n.a.	n.a.	1116,2	5,0	444,1	n.a.	21,5	8,6	218,2
Entur Thermal Hotel	n.a.	n.a.	51,6	n.a.	n.a.	346,8	2,0	182,3	n.a.	3,5	n.a.	37,2
Güre deep well	n.a.	n.a.	4,9	n.a.	n.a.	17,9	1,0	12,3	n.a.	1,0	3,0	35,1
Hidirlar	n.a.	n.a.	8,4	n.a.	n.a.	204,6	2,0	181,5	n.a.	5,8	n.a.	6,8
Kaz Mountain Hotel	n.a.	n.a.	18,0	n.a.	n.a.	556,0	2,0	244,1	n.a.	5,7	n.a.	74,2
Kaz Mountain Hotel	n.a.	n.a.	20,6	n.a.	n.a.	637,3	2,0	238,0	n.a.	6,0	n.a.	76,6
Nebiler	n.a.	n.a.	36,3	n.a.	n.a.	309,5	2,0	222,5	n.a.	8,0	12,7	51,2
Tuzla	n.a.	69,1	28954,9	n.a.	n.a.	92,7	200,0	14804,7	n.a.	1446,2	n.a.	2330,2
Karallica	n.a.	n.a.	77,0	n.a.	n.a.	957,1	5,0	376,8	n.a.	16,8	n.a.	132,5

Incubation name	anions						cations					
	Phosphate mg/l	Bromide mg/l	Chloride mg/l	Nitrate mg/L	Nitrite mg/L	Sulfate mg/L	dilution	Na (mg/l)	NH <sub>4</sub> (mg/l)	K (mg/l)	Mg (mg/l)	Ca (mg/l)
10 mM NaH <sup>13</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	n.a.	n.a.	21,2	n.a.	n.a.	318,2	5,0	488,4	n.a.	6,1	n.a.	15,6
5 mM NaH <sup>13</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	n.a.	n.a.	22,0	n.a.	n.a.	630,5	5,0	368,7	n.a.	5,5	n.a.	24,2
1 mM NaH <sup>13</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10 mM NaH <sup>12</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 mM NaH <sup>12</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1 mM NaH <sup>12</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

	water isotopes				DOC	methane		
Sample	d18O	d18O Stabw	d2H	d2H Stabw	NPOC (mg/l)	CH4 (mg/l)	d13C-CH4	d13C-CH4
							d 13C	std dev
Kestanbol	-4,84	0,09	-36,55	0,58	1,2+-1,81%			
Güre collector	-7,20	0,12	-45,21	0,49	1,1+-0,5%	0,0813	-22,4	0,08
Büyük Ilica	-8,11	0,07	-48,01	0,41	2,7+-0,22%	0,0029		
Can	-7,29	0,11	-59,81	1,03	0,9+-0,06%	0,0091		
Entur Thermal Hotel	-7,31	0,10	-45,58	0,75	0,8+-0,52%	0,0300	-25,3	0,13
Güre deep well	-7,34	0,09	-40,19	0,47	2,9+-0,4%	0,0057	-29,8	
Hidirlar	-7,94	0,10	-49,28	0,66	0,7+-0,03%	0,0018		
Kaz Mountain Hotel	-9,51	0,09	-60,63	0,42	0,8+-1,99%	0,0079	-10,4	
Kaz Mountain Hotel	-9,54	0,09	-60,35	0,51				
Nebiler	-9,25	0,08	-60,76	0,57	1,74+-1,61%	0,0679	-14,5	0,18
Tuzla	-6,42	0,07	-37,97	0,47	0,9+-0,21%	0,0041		
Karallica	-1,27	0,11	-19,00	0,70	1,15+-1,9%	0,0315	-15,5	0,19
	water isotopes				DOC	methane		
Incubation name	d18O	d18O Stabw	d2H	d2H Stabw	NPOC (mg/l)	CH4 (mg/l)	d13C-CH4	d13C-CH4
							d 13C	std dev
10 mM NaH <sup>13</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	-9,20	0,00	-60,69	0,00	0,9+-1,38%	0,0032		
5 mM NaH <sup>13</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	-9,07	0,09	-59,86	0,41	0,5+-1,84%	0,0060		
1 mM NaH <sup>13</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
10 mM NaH <sup>12</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
5 mM NaH <sup>12</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1 mM NaH <sup>12</sup> CO <sub>3</sub> incubation***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	

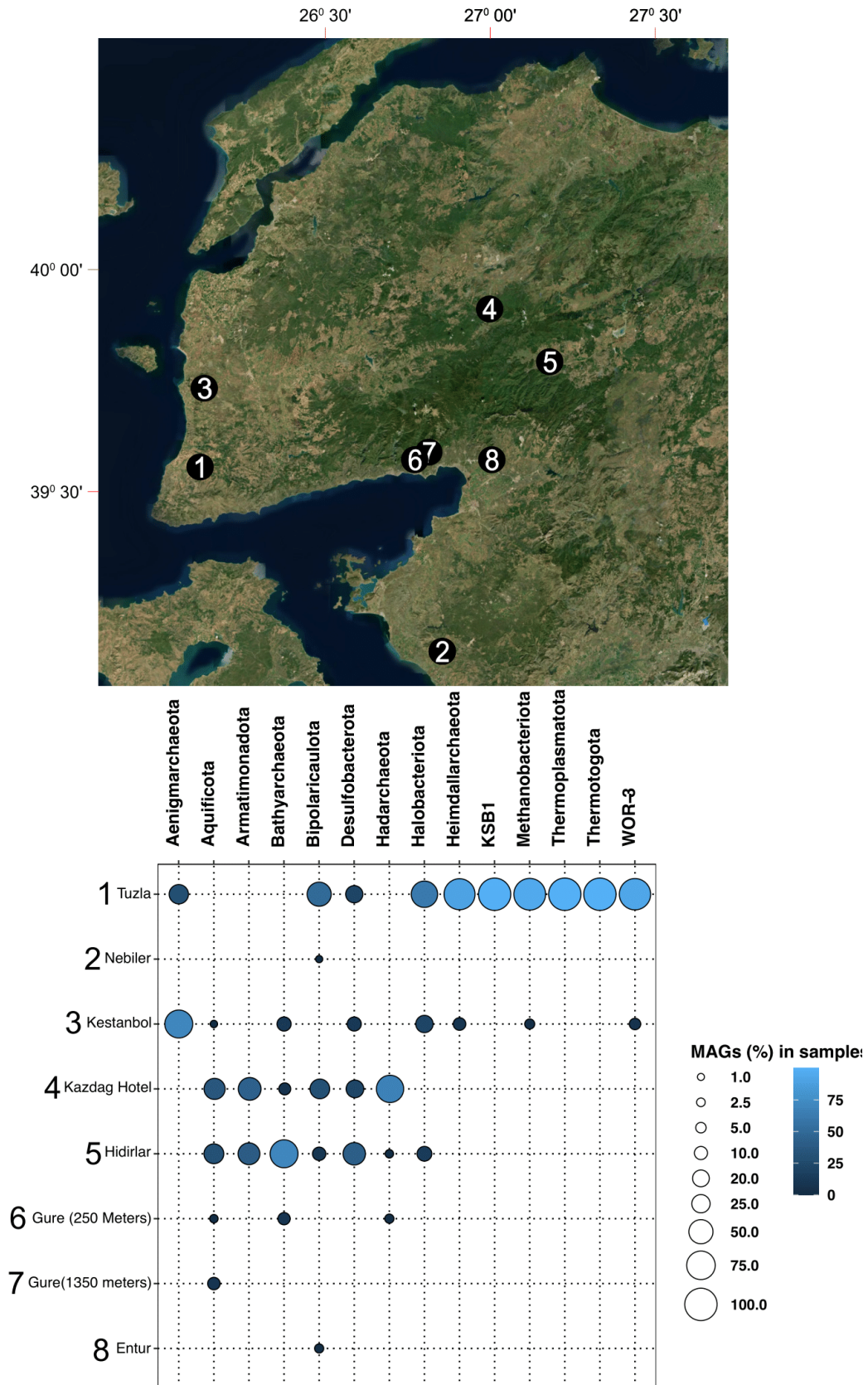


Figure S1: Relative coverages of the MAGs with assigned putative taxonomy across the sampling spots in Biga Peninsula, west of Turkey. The map is taken from Google Earth. Note that Tuzla sample (#1) represents geothermal brine. MAGs associated with *Ca. Bipolaricaulota* had the most coverages from Tuzla samples.

# Concluding Discussion

Russell and Martin wrote in the abstract of their fundamental paper (Russell and Martin 2004): “Geologists have suggested that life might have emerged at hydrothermal vents, chemists have shown that metal sulfides such as FeS and NiS can catalyze biochemical reactions in the absence of proteins, and biologists have suggested that the acetyl-coenzyme-A (CoA) pathway of CO<sub>2</sub> fixation might be very ancient.”. Field of the origin of life is the combination of these fundamental sciences and we need interdisciplinary fields to find out new clues on the origin of life. This thesis was built upon the hypotheses put forth by geologists, chemists, and biologists and tries to better understand the primordial carbon metabolism of the last universal common ancestor (LUCA) from a microbiological point of view. The imprints of ancient metabolism (chemistry) should be hidden in modern organisms (biology) thriving in proposed environments for the birthplace of life (geology). The thesis was first of all constructed on the sampling environments which were postulated as a possible hotspot for emergence of life in the Hadean Ocean. Thus, samples obtained from partially-serpentinized marine environment (Chapter 2), shallow-water hydrothermal setting (chapter 3), deep hydrothermal aquifer and hot springs (chapter 4, 5) were investigated to unravel microbial carbon cycling using a novel technique called quantitative DNA stable isotope probing (qSIP; (Hungate et al. 2015)). However, it should be noted that the sampled settings comprised complex microbial communities in the modern Earth conditions and therefore, my aim first was to understand the microbial ecology using stable isotope tracers. Afterwards, I tried to distill out the genes and species related to the origin of life hypothesis from the whole microbial community structure.

First signs of life in the geological record points towards biological carbon fixation under hydrothermal conditions, including biological methanogenesis in 3.6 billion years old rocks (Ueno et al. 2006), fossilized microbial structures in rocks from 3.7 billion years old rocks suggesting biological carbon fixation (Nutman et al. 2016), and stable isotope evidence for biological carbon fixation in 4.1 billion years old Zircons from the Jack Hills /Western Australia (Bell et al. 2015). These geological findings support the chemoautotrophic origin of life. Apart from geological record, alkaline hydrothermal settings gained importance after their discovery in the 2000s (Kelley et al. 2001) because gradients (pH, temperature, and energy) are needed for the emergence of the first life. Alkaline hydrothermal vents driven by serpentinization process have been proposed as a plausible setting for the origin of life (Russell et al. 1989; Russell and Martin 2004; Russell et al. 2010).

To find out the effect of hydrogen on carbon assimilation, the samples were collected from partially serpentinized peridotite mylonite from Saint Peter and Saint Paul Archipelago (Arquipélago de São Pedro e São Paulo, Brasil ‘SPSPA’) at the equatorial Mid-Atlantic Ridge (Chapter 2) (Coskun et al. 2021). Our motivation for this study comes from 3 scientific findings. First, before the cruise took place, shimmering water and hydrogen elevation were observed near SPSPA, which may indicate an ongoing serpentinization at the ocean bottom. The dives with remotely operated underwater vehicle (ROV) were organized to detect any serpentine-driven chimney structure similar to what have been



discovered in Lost City hydrothermal vent field (Kelley et al. 2005). Unfortunately, no vents were monitored, however samples from partially serpentinized mylonites were collected for qSIP experiments. This did not mask the importance of the study as H<sub>2</sub> is likely generated today at SPSPA through low-temperature aqueous alteration of peridotite, mechanoradical H<sub>2</sub> formation, or radiolysis, despite at slow rates (Coskun et al. 2021). Secondly, hydrogen oxidation is an important energy source, which yields low-potential electrons used in respiratory chains or fixing carbon (Greening et al. 2016). The active sites (iron-sulfur clusters) of metalloenzymes are mimicking in terms of structure and atomic coordination of naturally occurring minerals such as greigite, suggesting that mineral surfaces were catalyzing the first biochemical reaction in the absence of proteins (Russell and Martin 2004). Moreover, hydrogen is an entry in the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway which has been proposed as an ancient carbon fixation pathway (Ragsdale and Pierce 2008). Additionally, the genome of the last universal common ancestor (LUCA) has been predicted to be capable of fixing CO<sub>2</sub> with the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway in hydrothermal settings (Weiss et al. 2016). Lastly, methanogens and acetogens have been hypothesized to be deeply-branching and these organisms can be found in hydrothermal environments, including serpentinization-driven ecosystems (Schrenk et al. 2013).

To better understand the effects of H<sub>2</sub> on carbon anabolism in seafloor microbial communities associated with ultramafic rocks, we incubated the rocks on the cruise (SPSPA (AL170602) onboard the MV ALUCIA in 2017) with <sup>13</sup>C-labeled sodium-bicarbonate, formate and acetate with and without hydrogen gas (H<sub>2</sub>). The results show that rock-associated microbes increased the assimilation of bicarbonate and acetate utilization while formate metabolism seems to be affected by increasing hydrogen concentration. *Atribacteria*, *Nitrospira* and *Thaumarchaeota* exhibited significant increase in <sup>13</sup>C-substrate assimilation in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>. This data clearly supports the thermodynamic calculations predicting that oxidation of H<sub>2</sub> is energetically favorable for sea-floor microbes (Amend et al. 2011). For the future directions, here I think that hydrogen gas measurements from the headspace would be a great supporting data in addition to qSIP. Also, oxygen measurements should be continuously measured through the course of the experiment because we have shown in our previous study that oxygen gets consumed by the microbial communities (Coskun et al. 2019). The reason is that we used glass vials with gas-tight crimp seals to track the <sup>13</sup>C-labeled carbon. The necessity of gas-tight incubations comes from the fact that a fraction of bicarbonate turns into carbon dioxide (Kleypas et al. 1999). It is also the same issue when using acetate and formate because microbes can turn them into CO<sub>2</sub>. Lastly, adding bicarbonate slightly changes the pH as we have shown in chapter 4. Hence, pH should be measured after the termination of the incubation.

Chapter 3 focuses on the activity of growing microbial populations in Estuarine sediments using quantitative DNA-stable isotope probing (qSIP) with H<sub>2</sub><sup>18</sup>O as a passive tracer (Schwartz 2007). Complex microbial communities found in estuarine sediments are primarily composed of uncultured lineages that facilitate aerobic, microaerophilic, and anaerobic metabolic pathways that influence the cycling of carbon, nitrogen, and sulfur (Baker et al. 2015). Although difficult, measuring the expansion of certain bacterial populations is essential for understanding ecosystem resilience and responsiveness to change (Luna et al. 2002). The Bowen et al. (2011) study found that while the structure of microbial communities in estuarine habitats can be resistant to environmental change, the levels of activity within populations can change significantly in response to shifting nutrient and

oxygen levels, with obvious effects on biogeochemical cycles (Kearns et al. 2016). This chapter was published before I became part of origin-of-life cluster and gave me great insights on how to further apply qSIP using different labeled substrates.

The paper 1 (Puzenat et al. 2021) deserves a special mention although only mentioned in the appendix because I learned how to apply qSIP technique to low biomass samples. This paper particularly describes a geological investigation to map the hyperthermality in a shallow-water hydrothermal system in Milos using images taken from aerial drones and Autonomous Underwater Vehicle (AUV). I personally attended the fieldwork together with a great geologist/geomicrobiologist team. This research paper provides perspectives on the heat fluxes of the Milos system (Puzenat et al. 2021). It may shed light on shallow water hydrothermal systems in the Early Earth as 18th-century geologist James Hutton stated, “the present is key to the past”. Mantle and thermal convection generated a geochemical disequilibrium (Shock 1990; Russell et al. 2010) where inorganic CO<sub>2</sub> was reduced to organic molecules leading to life's emergence in the Early Earth condition (Russell et al. 2010). The Paleochori Bay in Milos displays a nice example of geochemical disequilibrium with distinct outflow patches where temperature and chemistry changes sharply. Thus, shallow-water-hydrothermal systems are possible settings where life could have originated and emerged (Damer and Deamer 2019). The samples were collected from yellow-, white- and orange-colored sand patches in Milos where the temperature was around 50-80 °C. The 20 ml glass vials were filled with samples displaying different colors. <sup>12</sup>C- and <sup>13</sup>C-labeled sodium-bicarbonate was added into the sand samples to unravel the carbon cycling mediated by chemolithoautotrophs. During the incubation, a hybridization oven was used to heat the samples to their original temperature. The incubations were terminated after 3 days and sent back to Munich for laboratory analysis. After spending 3 months on the sample analysis using DNA-SIP methodology (Neufeld et al. 2007a), none of the samples showed a clear shift between <sup>12</sup>C- and <sup>13</sup>C-labeled DNA. A possible reason could be related to incubation setup. The biomass in the thermal sediments was low, thus, a successful labeling did not occur. Alternatively, the incubation conditions could be affected by small headspace in 20 ml glass vials, which may turn into anoxic conditions within a short time frame. On the other hand, this might indicate microbial activity in the incubations. It can be also speculated that chemolithoautotrophy was not the main metabolism in Milos shallow water hydrothermal setting, but studies on microbial composition found that *Sulfurovum* spp., a chemolithoautotrophic Epsilon bacterium, comprising 60% of the total reads (Giovannelli et al. 2013; Caramanna et al. 2021). Although the SIP experiment failed in Milos, it gave us a unique opportunity to review our incubation setup. The low biomass samples should be incubated in a larger volume so that a successful labeling would be guaranteed (if there are microbes which can utilize the given substrate) as we applied this in Turkey to thermal waters and ended up with clear shifts between unlabeled and labeled incubations (Chapter 4).

Chapter 4 and 5 are in preparation for a standalone publication which is a study targeting microbes dwelling in terrestrial hydrothermal settings. Hot springs (Damer and Deamer 2019) and deep subsurface hydrothermal aquifers (Gold 1992) may be a suitable setting for the emergence of life. To investigate the microbial carbon cycling dynamics, a 3-years of sampling campaign was conducted in Biga Peninsula, Turkey between 2019 and 2021. The qSIP incubations were done in 2020 and 2021, but only 2021 experiments were presented because the calculated bootstrap values for each OTU in

the experiments in 2020, i.e., the statistical indicators used in qSIP (Hungate et al. 2015), were quite big, indicating a huge variability in the replicate dataset. Therefore, we focused on the samples taken in the summertime of 2021. We have designed the experiments based on 2 latest papers: [1] DOC is stimulated more when more DIC is available to rTCA-encoding chemolithoautotrophs (Fullerton et al. 2021) and [2] TCA cycle can be reversed in the presence of high partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> (Steffens et al. 2021). We wanted to test these findings by supplementing differential bicarbonate concentrations to the thermal water from a 750-meter-deep hydrothermal aquifer. The incubations in 5 liters of glass bottles were amended with 1 mM, 5 mM and 10 mM unlabeled (<sup>12</sup>C) and labeled (<sup>13</sup>C) bicarbonate concentrations. Normally, we wanted to use 100 mM - 50 mM - 10 mM sodium bicarbonate, but the labeling compounds are not cheap. We assumed that 10 mM sodium bicarbonate incubations would yield more mean excess atom fraction (EAF) values; however, incubations receiving 1 mM sodium bicarbonate had the highest EAF. Furthermore, the 16S rRNA gene copies in the incubations did not change significantly, suggesting that DOC concentrations are not correlated with increased DIC. Therefore, chapter 4 provides substantial findings on the microbial carbon cycling in deep terrestrial hydrothermal aquifers and may contribute valuable knowledge on ecophysiology of microbial dark matter (Rinke et al. 2013). Chapter 5 focuses on the metabolic capacity of *Ca. Bipolaricaulata* MAGs reconstructed from the samples taken from Biga Peninsula and discusses the widespread distribution of halotolerant OTUs affiliated to this uncultured phylum. Chapter 4 and 5 will be finalized when the analysis showing the phylogenetic placement of the taxonomically unassigned metagenome-assembled-genomes (MAGs) were successfully implemented in the papers.

Consequently, this thesis has expanded our knowledge of carbon cycling driven by microorganisms in diverse geological settings, which have been proposed to plausible settings for the origin of life. It provides insight into the microbial ecology of microorganisms thriving in seafloor, hot springs, shallow-water-hydrothermal marine environment and deep subsurface hydrothermal aquifers, with a focus on their metabolism associated with carbon assimilation pathways.



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# Declaration

I hereby confirm that my thesis entitled **Quantifying carbon fixation in microbial dark matter from low-temperature hydrothermal settings: experimental validation using quantitative stable isotope probing**, is the result of my own original work. Furthermore, I certify that this work contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in my name, in any university and, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text. In addition, I certify that no part of this work will, in the future, be used in a submission in my name, for any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution without the prior approval of the Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München.

Place and Date

München, 02.03.2022

Signature

Ömer Kürşat Coşkun

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