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## 1 Electrotrophy as potential primary metabolism for colonization of

## 2 conductive surfaces in deep-sea hydrothermal chimneys.

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### 12 Key-words

- 13 Electrotrophy, hyperthermophiles, microbial electrochemical system, deep-sea hydrothermal
- 14 vent, electrosynthesis

### 15 Summary

16 Deep-sea hydrothermal vents are extreme and complex ecosystems based on a trophic chain. We 17 are still unsure of the first colonizers of these environments and their metabolism, but they are 18 thought to be (hyper)thermophilic autotrophs. Here we investigate whether the electric potential 19 observed across hydrothermal chimneys could serve as an energy source for these first colonizers. 20 Experiments were performed in a two-chamber microbial electrochemical system inoculated with 21 deep-sea hydrothermal chimney samples, with a cathode as sole electron donor,  $CO_2$  as sole 22 carbon source, and three different electron acceptors (nitrate, sulfate, and oxygen). After a few 23 days of culture, all three experiments showed growth of an electrotrophic biofilm consuming 24 directly or indirectly the electrons and producing organic compounds including acetate, glycerol,

and pyruvate. The only autotrophs retrieved were members of *Archaeoglobales*, in all three
 experiments. Various heterotrophic phyla also grew through trophic interactions, with
 *Thermococcales* in all three experiments and other bacterial groups specific to each electron
 acceptor. This electrotrophic metabolism as energy source to drive the first microbial colonization
 of conductive hydrothermal chimneys was discussed.

### 30 Introduction

31 Deep-Sea hydrothermal vents, are geochemical structures housing an extreme ecosystem rich in 32 micro- and macro-organisms. Since their discovery in 1977 (Corliss and Ballard, 1977), they 33 attracted the interest of researcher and, more recently, industries by their singularities. Isolated 34 in the deep ocean, far from the sunlight and subsequent organic substrate, the primal energy 35 sources for the development of this luxuriant biosphere remain elusive in these extreme 36 environments rich in minerals. Since their discovery, many new metabolisms have been identified 37 based on organic or inorganic molecules. However, the driving force sustaining all biodiversity in 38 these environments is thought to be based on chemolithoautotrophy (Alain et al., 2004). Indeed, 39 unlike most ecosystems, deep-sea ecosystems are totally dark and microorganisms have adapted 40 to base their metabolism on lithoautotrophy using inorganic compounds as the energy source to 41 fix inorganic carbon sources. Primary colonizers of deep-sea hydrothermal vents are assumed to 42 be (hyper)thermophilic microbes developing near the hydrothermal fluid, as retrieved in young 43 hydrothermal chimneys. These first colonizers are affiliated to Archaea, such as Archaeoglobales, 44 Thermococcales, Methanococcales or Desulfurococcales, and to Bacteria from  $\epsilon$ -proteobacteria 45 and Aquificales. (Huber et al., 2002, 2003; Nercessian et al., 2003; Takai et al., 2004). Recent 46 studies have also shown that hyperthermophilic Archaea, which count among the supposed first 47 colonizers, are able to quickly scan and fix onto surfaces to find the best conditions for growth 48 (Wirth et al., 2018). These hyperthermophilic microorganisms would fix inorganic carbon through

49 chemolithoautotrophic types of metabolism, using H<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S or CH<sub>4</sub> as energy sources and oxidized 50 molecules such as oxygen, sulfur compounds, iron oxide or even nitrate as electron acceptors. 51 However, the discovery of the presence of an abiotic electric current across the chimney walls 52 (Yamamoto et al., 2017) prompted the hypothesis of a new type of microorganisms called 53 eletrotrophs having the capacity to use electrons from the abiotic electric current as an energy 54 source coupled with carbon fixation from CO<sub>2</sub>. This metabolism was identified a few years ago on 55 a mesophilic chemolithoautotrophic Fe(II)-oxidizing bacterium, Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans 56 (Ishii *et al.*, 2015). This strain was able to switch its source of energy from diffusible  $Fe^{2+}$  ions to 57 direct electron uptake from a polarized electrode. However, this feature has not yet been 58 demonstrated in deep-sea hydrothermal vent environments. Recent studies have shown the 59 exoelectrogenic ability of some hyperthermophilic microorganisms isolated from deep-sea 60 hydrothermal vents, belonging to Archaeoglobales and Thermococcales (Pillot et al., 2018, 2019; 61 Yilmazel et al., 2018), but no studies have been done on environmental samples potentially 62 harboring electrotrophic communities growing naturally with an electric current as sole energy 63 source. 64 Here, we investigate the potential presence of electrotrophic communities in deep-sea 65 hydrothermal vents capable of using electrons directly or indirectly from the abiotic current. In 66 this purpose, we mimic the conductive surface of the hydrothermal chimney in a cathodic 67 chamber of Microbial Electrochemical Systems (MES) with a polarized cathode to enrich the 68 potential electrotrophic communities inhabiting these extreme environments. The polarized 69 cathode served as the sole energy source, while CO<sub>2</sub> bubbling served as sole carbon source. Three 70 electron acceptors were tested separately, i.e. nitrate, oxygen, and sulfate, to show the influence

of an electron acceptor on community taxonomic composition.

## 72 **Results**

#### 73 Current consumption from electrotroph enrichments

74 Hydrothermal vents chimney samples were inoculated in MES filled with sterile mineral medium 75 and incubated at 80°C to enrich electrotrophic communities. In the latter, the electrode served as 76 the sole energy donor (cathode) and sparged  $CO_2$  as carbon source with three different electron 77 acceptors that were tested separately: (i) nitrate, (ii) sulfate and (iii) oxygen. The microbial 78 electrotrophic enrichment was monitored at lowest possible potentials. These potentials were 79 poised at -300mV/SHE in presence of oxygen and -590mV/SHE for both nitrate and sulfate, 80 respectively. For comparison, microbial growth was also monitored without any poised potential 81 during a month in the same conditions of incubation. Interestingly, in the latter condition, no 82 microbial growth occurred, supported by microscope and spectrophotometric observations (data 83 not shown). Moreover, no organic compounds were produced supported by the HPLC and NMR 84 measurements (data not shown). 85 When potential was poised, abiotic controls containing no inoculum displayed constant currents of ≈0,016 A.m<sup>-2</sup> at -590 mV and ≈0,01 A.m<sup>-2</sup> at -300 mV/SHE. In both conditions, the potential 86

87 hydrogen production on the cathode by water electrolysis was quantified and was under the 88 detection threshold of the  $\mu$ GC (>0.001% of total gas), indicating a theoretical production lower 89 than 34 µM day-1 (data not shown), similar as previously reported at 25°C (Marshall et al., 2013). 90 In comparison, experiments with the chimney sample showed current consumptions increasing 91 shortly after inoculation (Fig. 1). Indeed, when subtracting abiotic current, the current consumptions reached a stabilized maximum of 0.36 A.m<sup>-2</sup> on oxygen, 0.72 A.m<sup>-2</sup> on nitrate, and 92 93 up to 1.83 A.m<sup>-2</sup> on sulfate corresponding therefore to an increase of 36, 45 and 114-fold 94 compared to abiotic current, respectively. MES were autoclaved afterwards displaying decreased 95 currents that were similar to the values of abiotic controls with a stabilized current around ≈0,021 96 A.m<sup>-2</sup>.

At the end of monitoring of current consumption, CycloVoltamograms (CV) were performed to
 study reactions of oxidation and reduction that could occur in MES (Supporting Information Fig.

S1A). A first peak of reduction is observed at -0.295, -0.293 and -0.217 V vs SHE in presence of
nitrate, sulfate and oxygen as electron acceptor, respectively (Fig. S1B). A second peak is observed
at -0.639 and -0.502 V vs SHE on nitrate and sulfate, respectively. No redox peaks are detected in
the abiotic controls and freshly inoculated MES, hence indicating a lack of electron shuttles
brought with the inoculum (Fig. S1A).

#### 104 Organic compounds production in liquid media

105 During enrichment of the electrotrophic communities, the production of organic compounds was 106 monitored in liquid media (Fig. 1). Interestingly, the glycerol, the pyruvate, and the acetate were 107 the dominant products released in all experiment runs. Glycerol increased slowly throughout the 108 experiments to reach a maximum of 0.47 mM on sulfate (day 11), 1.32 mM on oxygen (day 12) 109 and 2.32 mM on nitrate (day 19). Acetate accumulated in the medium to reach 0.33 mM on 110 oxygen (day 7), 0.75 mM on sulfate (day 13) and 1.40 mM on nitrate (day 19). Pyruvate was 111 produced after a few days of culture with an exponential curve, reaching a maximum of 1.32 mM 112 on oxygen (day 12), 2.39 mM on nitrate (day 9), and 3.94 mM on sulfate (day 11). Pyruvate varied, 113 afterwards, due probably to microbial consumption or thermal degradation... Coulombic 114 efficiency calculated on the last day of the experiment (Fig. 2) showed up to 71% (on nitrate), 115 89% (on oxygen) and 90% (on sulfate) of electrons consumed were converted to organic 116 compounds and released into the liquid media .The rest represents the share of electrons 117 retained in not accumulated compounds (Table S1) and in the organic matter constituting the cells of the electrotrophic communities (estimated by qPCR to total between 10<sup>8</sup> to 10<sup>10</sup> 16S rRNA 118 119 gene copies per MES; Supporting Information Fig. S2). 120 Biodiversity of electrotrophic communities on different electron acceptors

121 Once current consumption reached a stabilized maximum, DNAs from the biofilm and from

122 planktonic cells in culture media were extracted and sequenced on the V4 region of the 16S rRNA

to study relative abundance of the biodiversity. Fig. 3 reports the taxonomic affiliation of the
OTUs obtained. The chimney fragment inoculum showed a rich biodiversity (Shannon index at
5.29 and Pielou's index at 0.69), with 208 OTUs mainly affiliated to *Bacteria* (99.49% vs 0.51% of *Archaea*) and more particularly to *Proteobacteria* from *Vibrionales* (34.8%), miscellaneous rare *Proteobacteria* (>33%), *Campylobacterales* (8.3%), *Thermales* (7.1%), *Aquificales* (5.62%), and *Rhodobacterales* (5.1%).

129 Enrichments in MES showed less biodiversity on cathodes and liquid media, suggesting the 130 selective development of functional communities. The Shannon index values were 3.1 and 1.9 on 131 nitrate, 1.7 and 1.9 on sulfate, and 4.1 and 4.2 on oxygen, with fewer OTUs associated to 72 and 132 68 OTUs on nitrate, 39 and 53 on sulfate, and 94 and 102 on oxygen, on electrodes and liquid 133 media, respectively. The taxonomic composition of these communities showed a larger 134 proportion of Archaea, with 51% and 41.6% on nitrate, 96.8% and 96.3% on sulfate, and 7.6% and 135 3.4% on oxygen on the electrodes and liquid media, respectively. In presence of each electron 136 acceptor, the archaeal population on the electrode was mainly composed of Archaeoglobales and 137 Thermococcales at different relative abundances. The latter were present at 6.7% and 28.2% on 138 nitrate to 65.8% and 28.6% on sulfate and 3.8% and 3.6% on oxygen, respectively. Equivalent 139 proportions of Archaeoglobales and Thermococcales were retrieved in liquid media, at 1.0% and 140 2.5% on nitrate, 65.8% and 29.6% on sulfate and 0.3% and 2.7% on oxygen, respectively (Fig. 3). 141 The MiSeq Illumina results served to study only 290 bp of 16S rRNA and thus to affiliate 142 microorganisms confirmed at family level, but they can also provide some information on the 143 enriched genera. In an effort to obtain more information on the probable Archaeoglobales and 144 *Thermococcales* genus, we attempted a species-level identification through phylogenetic analysis. 145 The results are presented in Fig. 4 as a Maximum Likelihood phylogenetic tree. The dominant 146 OTUs on sulfate and oxygen were closest to Ferroglobus placidus and Archeoglobus fulgidus 147 97.61% whereas the dominant OTU on nitrate was affiliated to Geoglobus ahangari with an

148 identity of 98.63% of identity. The remaining part of the biodiversity was specific to each electron 149 acceptor used. Enrichment on nitrate showed 13.8% and 28% of Desulfurococcales and 46.2% and 150 56.5% of *Thermales* on the electrode and in liquid media, respectively. Among *Thermales* that 151 developed on the electrode, 30% were represented by a new taxon (OTU 14 in Fig. 4 and S3) 152 whose closest cultured species was Vulcanithermus mediatlanticus (90% similarity). On sulfate, 153 the remaining biodiversity represented less than 4% of the population but was mainly 154 represented by two particular OTUs. The first OTU, accounting for up to 2.4% and 0.8% of the 155 total population on the electrode and liquid media, respectively, was affiliated to a new 156 Euryarchaeota (OTU 10 in Fig. 4 and S3) whose closest cultured match was Methanothermus 157 fervidus strain DSM 2088, at 86% similarity. The second OTU accounted for 2.0% and 1.9% of the 158 biodiversity on the electrode and liquid media, respectively, and was affiliated to the new 159 Deinococcales (OTU 14 in Fig. 4 and S3) species, found mostly on the electrode in nitrate 160 enrichment. In the enrichment on oxygen, the communities are dominated by 36.6% and 30.2% of 161 Pseudomonadales (Pseudomonas sp.), 14% and 42.6% of Bacillales (Bacillus and Geobacillus sp.), 162 21.3% and 7.41% of Vibrionales (Photobacterium sp.), and 9.8% and 5.1% of Actinomycetales 163 (spread across 9 species) on the electrode and in liquid media, respectively, with the rest spread 164 across Proteobacteria orders.

165 The clustering of the dominant OTUs (at a threshold of 0.05% of total sequences) obtained 166 previously on the chimney sample and enrichments in MES showed a clear differentiation of 167 communities retrieved in each sample (Supporting Information Fig. S3). The Pearson method on 168 OTU distribution produced four clusters, one corresponding to the inoculum and the three others 169 to each electron acceptor. Indeed, only two OTUs (OTU 4 and 36) were clearly shared between 170 two different communities, one affiliated to *Thermococcus* spp. on nitrate and sulfate and one to 171 Ralstonia sp. on the chimney sample and on nitrate. It is surprising to observe a recurrence of this 172 last OTU which could be a contaminant specific to the extraction kit used (Salter et al., 2014). The

173 other 50 dominant OTUs were specific to one community, with 21 OTUs on oxygen, 4 on sulfate, 8

174 on nitrate, and 17 on the chimney sample. The electrotrophic communities, colonizing the

- 175 cathode, were therefore different depending on electron acceptor used and their concentration
- 176 was too low to be detected in the chimney sample.

## 177 **Discussion**

#### 178 Archaeoglobales as systematic (electro)lithoautotrophs of the community

179 Herein, we evidenced the development of a microbial electrotrophic communities and metabolic 180 activity supported by current consumption (Fig.1), product production (Fig. 2), and qPCRs (Fig. S2) 181 suggesting that growth did occur from energy supplied by the cathode. The mechanism of energy 182 uptake from electrode is discussed since the discovery of biofilms growing on cathode, and little is 183 known, unlike electron transfer mechanism on anode. The two main hypotheses are the use of 184 similar direct electron transfer pathway as on the anode, or the use of molecular  $H_2$ , produced by 185 water electrolysis, as electron mediator to the cell. In both cases, our study is the first to show the 186 possibility of growth of biofilm from environments harboring natural electric current in absence of 187 organic substrates. To discuss further on the putative mechanism, it is necessary to have a look on 188 the conditions for water electrolysis. The potential for water reduction into hydrogen at 80°C, ph7, 189 1 atm was calculated at -0.490 V vs SHE in pure water. The real operational reduction potentials is 190 expected to be much more lower than the theoretical value due to internal resistances (from 191 electrical connections, electrolyte, ionic membrane etc.) (Lim et al., 2017). Moreover, 192 overpotentials are expected with carbon electrodes. The decrease of this potential explains the 193 absence of hydrogen measured in our conditions. A screening of potential in abiotic conditions 194 confirmed the increase of current consumption and  $H_2$  production only at potential lower of -0.6V 195 vs SHE (Fig S1) Moreover several pieces of evidence indicate that direct electron transfer may have 196 mainly participated in the development of biofilms: the growth of the similar dependent sulfate 197 biodiversity with the cathode poised at -300 mV vs SHE (Supporting Information Fig. S4) without H<sub>2</sub>

198 production, the expression of catalytic waves observed by CV with midpoint potentials between -0.217 V to -0.639 V and the lack of similar peaks with abiotic or fresh inoculated media (Supporting 199 200 Information Fig. S1), biofilm formation on the electrode (as on nitrate, Supporting Information Fig. 201 S5), delayed production of glycerol, pyruvate and acetate (Fig. 1) fixing between 267 to 1596 202 Coulombs.day<sup>-1</sup> (organic consumption deduced), and the recovery of electrons in all three products 203 (Fig. 2), that largely exceeds the maximum theoretical abiotic generation of hydrogen (~3 C.day<sup>-1</sup>) 204 by 90 to 530-fold. Thus, we can assume that the biofilm growth was largely ensured by a significant 205 part of a direct transfer of electrons from the cathode demonstrating the presence of 206 electrolithoautotroph microorganisms.

207 Taxonomic analysis of the enriched microbial communities at the end of the experiments showed the systematic presence on cathodes of Archaeoglobales (Fig. 3 and S3), whatever the electron 208 209 acceptors used. The species belonging to Archaeoglobales order were the only enriched species in 210 all conditions and the only known to have an autotrophic metabolism (except for Archaeoglobus 211 profundus and A. infectus which are obligate heterotrophs). The Archaeoglobales order is 212 composed of three genera: Archaeoglobus, Geoglobus, and Ferroglobus. All are hyperthermophilic 213 obligate anaerobes with diverse metabolisms, including heterotrophy or chemolithoautotrophy. 214 Terminal electron acceptors used by this order include sulfate, nitrate, poorly crystalline Fe (III) 215 oxide, or sulfur oxyanions (Brileya and Reysenbach, 2014). Autotrophic growth in the 216 Archaeoglobales order is ensured mainly through  $H_2$  as energy source and requires both branches 217 of the reductive acetyl-CoA/Wood-Ljungdahl pathway for CO<sub>2</sub> fixation (Vorholt et al., 1997). 218 Moreover, Archaeoglobus fulgidus has been recently shown to grow on iron by directly snatching 219 electrons under carbon starvation during corrosion process (Jia et al., 2018). Furthermore, 220 Ferroglobus and Geoglobus species were shown to be exoelectrogens in pure culture in a microbial 221 electrosynthesis cell (Yilmazel et al., 2018) and were enriched during a study within a microbial 222 electrolysis cell (Pillot et al., 2018, 2019). Interestingly, some studies have shown that Geobacter

223 species are capable of bidirectional electron transfer using the same mechanism (Pous et al., 2016). 224 Hence, Archaeoglobales that have been shown already as exoelectrogens (Yilmazel et al., 2018) 225 could also be electrotrophs. It is not known how Archaea carry out exogenous electron transfer. As 226 previously discussed, the absence of H<sub>2</sub> production and the increasing current consumptions over 227 time suggest direct electron uptake from members of the communities developing on the 228 electrode, as for Acidithiobacillus ferroxidans (Ishii et al., 2015). Moreover, the qPCR (Supporting 229 Information Fig. S2) and MiSeq data (Fig. 3) highlighted a strong correlation between current 230 consumption and density of Archaeoglobales on the electrode ( $R^2$ =0.962). In the condition with 231 sulfate as electron acceptor, the proportion of Archaeoglobales represented 65.8% of total biodiversity providing 1.83 A.m<sup>-2</sup> of current consumption, compared to only 6.7% in the nitrate 232 233 condition and 3.8% in the oxygen condition for 0.72 and 0.36 A.m<sup>-2</sup> of current consumption, 234 respectively. Moreover, the majority of OTUs were affiliated to three Archaeoglobaceae genera, 235 mainly Archaeoglobus spp. and Ferroglobus spp. on sulfate and oxygen and Geoglobus sp. on 236 nitrate. Some Archaeoglobus are known to show anaerobic sulfate-reducing metabolism while 237 Ferroglobus spp. are not. Geoglobus sp. has never been described to perform nitrate reduction so 238 far, but it does harbor genes of nitrate- and nitrite-reductase-like proteins (Manzella et al., 2015). 239 The OTUs were related to some Archaeoglobales strain with 95-98% identities. Thus, we assume 240 that in our conditions, new specific electrotrophic metabolisms or new electrolithoautotrophic 241 Archaeoglobaceae species were enriched on the cathode. Moreover, a member of a new 242 phylogenetic group of Archaea was enriched up to 2.4% of total biodiversity on sulfate (OTU10 in 243 Fig. 4). While its metabolism is still unknown, we suggest that isolation of this electrotrophic 244 archaea in MES could enable the identification of a new archaeal phylogenetic group based on 245 electrotrophy.

246 The growth of *Archaeolgobales* species in presence of oxygen is a surprising finding.

247 Archaeoglobales have a strictly anaerobic metabolism, and the reductive acetyl-CoA pathway is

248 very sensitive to the presence of oxygen (Fuchs, 2011). This can be firstly explained by the low 249 solubility of oxygen at 80°C combined with the electrochemically oxygen reduction on electrode 250 in controls (data not shown). It hence results in an low oxygen or oxygen-free environment within 251 the carbon cloth mesh for anaerobic development of microorganisms into a protective biofilm 252 (Hamilton, 1987). This observation was also supported by the near absence of Archaeoglobales in 253 the liquid media (Fig. 3). In absence of other electron acceptors, some Archaeoglobales perform 254 carboxydotrophic metabolism to grow from CO, as demonstrated for Archaeoglobus fulgidus 255 (Sokolova and Lebedinsky, 2013; Hocking et al., 2015). This fermentative CO metabolism leads to 256 the production of acetate and transient accumulation of formate via the Wood-Ljungdahl 257 pathway, but no net ATP is really produced (Henstra *et al.*, 2007). The energy conservation 258 through this metabolism in Archaeoglobus fulgidus is still poorly understood (Hocking et al., 259 2015). A second hypothesis concerns direct interspecies electron transfer (DIET) (Kato et al., 260 2012; Lovley, 2017), with Archaeoglobales transferring electrons to another microorganism as an 261 electron acceptor. Research into DIET is in its early stages, and further investigations are required 262 to better understand the diversity of microorganisms and the mechanism of carbon and electron 263 flows in anaerobic environments (Lovley, 2017) such as hydrothermal ecosystems.

#### 264 Electrosynthesis of organic compounds

The pyruvate, the glycerol and the acetate accumulated, while another set of compounds that appear transiently were essentially detectable in the first few days of biofilm growth (Supporting Information Table S1). They included amino acids (threonine, alanine) and volatile fatty acids (formate, succinate, lactate, acetoacetate, 3-hydroxyisovalerate) whose concentrations did not exceed one micromole. Despite their thermostability, this transient production suggests they were used by microbial communities developing on the electrode in interaction with the primary producers during enrichment. 272 On the other hand, in presence of nitrate, sulfate and oxygen as electron acceptors, the liquid 273 media accumulated three main organic products acetate, glycerol, and pyruvate (Fig. 1). 274 Coulombic efficiency calculations (Fig. 2) showed that redox levels of the carbon-products 275 represented 71%–90% of electrons consumed, and only about 10%–30% of net electrons 276 consumed by electrotrophs during growth was used directly for biomass or transferred to an 277 electron acceptor. This concurs with the energy yield from the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway of 278 Archaeoglobales, with only 5% of carbon flux directed to the production of biomass and the other 279 95% diverted to the production of small organic end-products excreted from the cell (Fast and 280 Papoutsakis, 2012).

281 However, the production of pyruvate and glycerol warrants further analysis. Pyruvate is normally 282 a central intermediate of CO<sub>2</sub> uptake by the reducing route of the acetyl-CoA/WL pathway (Berg 283 et al., 2010). It can be used to drive the anabolic reactions needed for biosynthesis of cellular 284 constituents. Theoretically, the only explanation for improved production and accumulation of 285 pyruvate (up to 5 mM in the liquid media of sulfate experiment) would be that pyruvate-using 286 enzymes were inhibited or that pyruvate influx exceeded its conversion rate. Here we could 287 suggest that in-cell electron over-feeding at the cathode leads to significant production of 288 pyruvate. Indeed, in a physiological context, the production of pyruvate from acetyl-CoA via 289 pyruvate synthase requires the oxidation of reduced ferredoxins for CO<sub>2</sub> fixation (Furdui and 290 Ragsdale, 2000). The continuous electron uptake from the cathode would lead to a significant 291 reduction in electron carriers (including ferredoxins, flavins, cytochromes, and/or nicotinamides), 292 thus forcing the electrotrophic microbial community to produce pyruvate as a redox sink. 293 In the same context of pyruvate production, glycerol is produced by reduction of 294 dihydroxyacetone phosphate a glycolytic intermediate, to glycerol 3-phosphate (G3P) followed by 295 dephosphorylation of G3P to glycerol. In some yeasts, glycerol production is essential for 296 osmoadaptation but equally for regulating the NADH surplus during anaerobic growth (Björkqvist

*et al.*, 1997). A similar mechanism may operate in our conditions for the probable excess of NADH
 pool due to the electrode poised at -590 mV *vs* SHE, which would explain the accumulation of
 glycerol found in our experiments.

300 In an ecophysiological context, a similar pyruvate and glycerol production could occur on 301 hydrothermal chimney walls into which electric current propagates (Yamamoto et al., 2017). The 302 electrotroph biofilms would continually receive electrons, leading to the excess of intracellular 303 reducing power that would be counterbalanced by the overproduction of glycerol and pyruvate. 304 Moreover, glycerol is an essential compound in the synthesis of membrane lipids in Archaea and 305 probably also in biofilm formation and osmoadaptability (Desai et al., 2013; Shemesh and Chai, 306 2013). Pyruvate unites several key metabolic processes, such as its conversion into carbohydrates, 307 fatty acids or some amino acids. Furthermore, these products can serve as carbon and energy 308 sources for heterotrophic microorganisms or for fermentation. In our experiments, pyruvate and 309 glycerol concentrations varied over time, suggesting they were being consumed by heterotrophic 310 microorganisms. Acetate production would thus result from the fermentation of pyruvate or 311 other compounds produced by electrotrophic Archaeoglobales.

#### 312 Enrichment of rich heterotrophic biodiversity from electrotrophic Archaeoglobales

#### 313 community

314 During our enrichment experiments, the development of effective and specific biodiversity was 315 dependent on the electron acceptors used (Fig. 3). Heatmap analyses (Supporting Information Fig. 316 3) showed four distinct communities for the three electron acceptors and the initial inoculum. Thus, 317 at the lower taxonomic level of the biodiversity analysis, most OTUs are not shared between each 318 enrichment, except for one OTU of *Thermococcales* that was shared between the nitrate and sulfate 319 experiments. This suggests a real specificity of the communities and a specific evolution or 320 adaptation of the members of the shared phyla to the different electron acceptors available in the 321 environment. However, the various enrichments also showed the presence of Thermococcales 322 regardless of the electron acceptors used, thus demonstrating a strong interaction between 323 Thermococcales, heterotrophs, and Archaeoglobales, the only autotrophs. In a previous study, 324 enrichments on the anode of a microbial electrolysis cell showed a similar tendency, with 325 Archaeoglobales strongly correlated to Thermococcales (Pillot et al., 2018, 2019). Moreover, 326 members of these two groups have frequently been found together in various hydrothermal sites 327 on the surface of the Earth (Corre et al., 2001; Nercessian et al., 2003; Takai et al., 2004; Jaeschke 328 et al., 2012), where they are considered as potential primary colonizers of their environments (33 -329 36). This could point to a co-evolution and metabolic adaptation of these microorganisms to their 330 unstable environmental conditions in hydrothermal settings. After *Thermococcales*, the rest of the 331 heterotrophic biodiversity was specific to each electron acceptor. 332 On nitrate, two additional phylogenetic groups were retrieved: Desulfurococcales and Thermales. 333 OTUs of Desulfurococcales are mainly affiliated to Thermodiscus or Aeropyrum species, which are 334 hyperthermophilic and heterotrophic Crenarchaeota growing by fermentation of complex organic 335 compounds or sulfur/oxygen reduction (Huber and Stetter, 2015). 336 Concerning Thermales, a new taxon was enriched on cathode and only affiliated with 90 % 337 similarity to Vulcanithermus mediatlanticus. On sulfate, beside the large majority of 338 Archaeoglobales and Thermococcales (up to 94%–96%), this new taxon of Thermales (OTU 14, Fig. 339 S3) has also been enriched on the cathode, representing 2% of total biodiversity. Thermales are 340 thermophilic (30°C–80°C) and heterotrophic bacteria whose only four genera (Marinithermus, 341 Oceanithermus, Rhabdothermus, and Vulcanithermus) are all retrieved in marine hydrothermal 342 systems. They are known to be aerobic or microaerophilic. Some strains grow anaerobically with 343 several inorganic electron acceptors such as nitrate, nitrite, Fe (III) and elemental sulfur 344 (Albuquerque and Costa, 2014). All of the species *Thermales* can utilize the pyruvate as carbon 345 and energy source. The produced pyruvate would be a substrate of choice for this new taxon 346 which would use the sulfate and nitrate as electron acceptors.

347 Pseudomonadales and Bacillales were found in the oxygen experiment. Most Pseudomonas are 348 known to be aerobic and mesophilic bacteria, with a few thermophilic species, including the 349 autotrophic *Pseudomonas thermocarboxydovorans* that grows at up to 65°C (Lyons *et al.*, 1984; 350 Palleroni, 2015). There have already been reports of mesophilic *Pseudomonas* species growing in 351 thermophilic conditions in composting environments (Droffner *et al.*, 1995). Moreover, some 352 Pseudomonas sp. are known to be electroactive in microbial fuel cells, through long-distance 353 extracellular electron transport (Shen et al., 2014; Maruthupandy et al., 2015; Lai et al., 2016), 354 and were dominant on the cathodes of a benthic microbial fuel cell on a deep-ocean cold seep 355 (Reimers et al., 2006). In Bacillales, the Geobacillus spp. and some Bacillus sp. are known to be 356 mainly (hyper)thermophilic aerobic and heterotrophic *Firmicutes* (Vos, 2015). 357 Hydrothermal electric current: a new energy source for the development of primary 358 producers 359 The presence of so many heterotrophs in an initially autotrophic condition points to the 360 hypothesis of a trophic relationship inside the electrotrophic community (Fig. 5). This suggests

361 that the only autotrophs retrieved in all communities, the Archaeoglobales, might be the first 362 colonizer of the electrode, using  $CO_2$  as carbon source and cathode as energy source. Studies have 363 shown how modeling and field observations can be usefully combined to describe the relationship 364 between chemical energy conditions and metabolic interactions within microbial communities 365 (Lin et al., 2016; Dahle et al., 2018). However, the models predicted low abundances of Archaeoglobales (<0.04%) whereas on-field detection found abundances of more than 40% in the 366 367 inner section of the studied hydrothermal chimney (Dahle et al., 2018). Indeed, in these models, 368 the predicted H<sub>2</sub> concentration, based on observations, would be too low to support the growth 369 of hydrogenotrophic or methanogenic species (Lin et al., 2016). The authors concluded on a 370 probable H<sub>2</sub> syntrophy, with hydrogen being produced by heterotrophic microorganisms such as 371 fermentative Thermococcales species. Our study is the first evidence of the development of

372 hyperthermophilic electrotrophic/heterotrophic communities directly enriched from the natural 373 environment known to harbor natural electric current as a potential energy source. We can thus 374 conclude that this kind of electrolithoautotrophic metabolism is highly likely in deep-sea 375 hydrothermal ecosystems, which raises the question of the importance of this metabolism in the 376 primary colonization of hydrothermal vents. The hydrothermal electric current could make up for 377 the lack of  $H_2$  normally needed to sustain the growth of hydrogenotrophic microorganisms. 378 Indeed, the constant electron supply on the surface of a conductive chimney allows a new energy 379 source and long-range transfer between the electron donor (represented here by reduced 380 molecules such as H<sub>2</sub>S electrochemically oxidized on the inner surface of the chimney wall) and 381 the electron acceptor ( $O_2$ , sulfur compounds, nitrate, metals) present all over the external surface 382 of the chimney. This electrical current would thus allow primary colonizers to grow not just on all 383 the surface but also in the chimney structure. These primary colonizers would release organic 384 compounds used by the heterotrophic community for growth, as observed with the successive 385 production and consumption of organic compounds in our experiments. Moreover, migrating out 386 to larger potential growth surface would help to meet a wider range of physiological conditions 387 through pH, temperature and oxidoreduction gradients. This allows a wider diversity of growth 388 patterns than through chemolithoautotrophy, which is restricted to unstable and limited contact 389 zones between reduced compounds  $(H_2, H_2S)$  in the hydrothermal fluid and electron acceptors 390 around the hydrothermal chimneys, often precipitating together.

## 391 Conclusion

Taken together, the results found in this study converge into evidence of the ability of indigenous microorganisms from deep hydrothermal vents to grow using electric current and CO<sub>2</sub>. This ability seems to be spread across diverse phylogenetic groups and to be coupled with diverse electron acceptors. Through their electro-litho-auto-trophic metabolism, *Archaeoglobaceae* strains produce and release organic compounds into their close environment, allowing the growth of

397	heterotrophic microorganisms, and ultimately enabling more and more diversity to develop over
398	time. This metabolism could be one of the primary energies for the colonization of deep-sea
399	hydrothermal chimneys and the development of a complex trophic network driving sustainable
400	biodiversity. A similar mechanism could have occurred during the Hadean, allowing the
401	emergence of life in hydrothermal environments by constant electron influx to the first proto-
402	cells.
403	Experimental procedures
404	Sample collection and preparation
405	A hydrothermal chimney sample was collected on the acidic and iron-rich Capelinhos site on the
406	Lucky Strike hydrothermal field (37°17.0'N, MAR) during the MoMARsat cruise in 2014
407	(http://dx.doi.org/10.17600/14000300) led by IFREMER (France) onboard R/V Pourquoi Pas?
408	(Sarradin and Cannat, 2014). The sample (PL583-8) was collected by breaking off a piece of a high-
409	temperature active black smoker using the submersible's robotic arm, and bringing it back to the
410	surface in a decontaminated insulated box (http://video.ifremer.fr/video?id=9415). Onboard,
411	chimney fragments were anaerobically crushed in an anaerobic chamber under $H_2:N_2$ (2.5:97.5)
412	atmosphere (La Calhene, France), placed in flasks under anaerobic conditions (anoxic seawater at
413	pH 7 with 0.5 mg $L^{-1}$ of Na <sub>2</sub> S and N <sub>2</sub> :H <sub>2</sub> :CO <sub>2</sub> (90:5:5) gas atmosphere), and stored at 4°C.
414	Prior to our experiments, pieces of the hydrothermal chimney were removed from the sulfidic
415	seawater flask, crushed with a sterile mortar and pestle in an anaerobic chamber (Coy
416	Laboratories, Grass Lake, MI), and distributed into anaerobic tubes for use in the various
417	experiments.
418	Electrotrophic enrichment on nitrate, sulfate, and oxygen
419	MES were filled with 1.5 L of an amended sterile mineral medium as previously described (Pillot

420 *et al.*, 2018) without yeast extract, and set at 80°C and pH 6.0 throughout on-platform monitoring.

421 The electrode (cathode) composed of 20 cm<sup>2</sup> of carbon cloth was poised at the lowest potential

422 before initiation of abiotic current consumption (Supporting Information Fig S6) using SP-240 423 potentiostats and EC-Lab software (BioLogic, France). We thus used a potential of -590 mV vs( in 424 the nitrate and sulfate experiments and -300 mV vs SHE in the oxygen experiment. A similar 425 experiment at -300 mV vs SHE has been initiated in presence of sulfate (see SI Fig. S4) to confirm 426 the growth of electrolithoautotroph microorganisms without any  $H_2$  production possible. The 427 electrode poised as cathode served as the sole electron donor for electrotroph growth. For the 428 nitrate experiment, one system was supplemented with 4 mM of sodium nitrate. For the sulfate 429 experiment, a second system was supplemented with 10 mM of sodium sulfate, and the cathodic 430 chambers were sparged with  $N_2$ :CO<sub>2</sub> (90:10, 100 mL/min). For the oxygen experiment, a third 431 system was sparged with N<sub>2</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub>:O<sub>2</sub> (80:10:10, 100 mL/min) with initially 10% oxygen as electron 432 acceptor. All three systems were inoculated with 8 g of the crushed chimney ( $\sim 0.5\%$  (w/v)). 433 Current consumption was monitored via the chronoamperometry method with current density 434 and readings were taken every 10 s. An abiotic control without inoculation showed no current 435 consumption during the same experiment period. CycloVoltammograms (scan rate: 20 mV/s) 436 were analyzed using QSoas software (version 2.1). Coulombic efficiencies where calculates with 437 the following equation:

438 
$$CE (\%) = \frac{F \cdot n_e \cdot \Delta[P] \cdot V_{catholyte}}{\int_{t_0}^{t} I(t) \cdot dt} \cdot 100$$

439 I(t): current consumed between  $t_0$  and t (A)

440 F: Faraday constant

441 ne: number of moles of electrons presents per mole of product (mol)

442  $\Delta$ [P]: variation of the concentration of organic product between t<sub>0</sub> and t (mol.L<sup>-1</sup>)

443 V<sub>catholyte</sub>: volume of catholyte (L)

## 444 Identification and quantification of organic compound production

445 To identify and quantify the production of organic compounds from the biofilm, samples of liquid 446 media were collected at the beginning and at the end of the experiment and analyzed by <sup>1</sup>H NMR 447 spectroscopy. For this, 400 µL of each culture medium, were added to 200 µL of PBS solution 448 prepared in D<sub>2</sub>O (NaCl, 140 mM; KCl, 2.7 mM; KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 1.5 mM; Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 8.1 mM, pH 7.4) 449 supplemented with 0.5 mmol  $L^{-1}$  of trimethylsilylpropionic acid-d4 (TSP) as NMR reference. All the 450 1D <sup>1</sup>H NMR experiments were carried out at 300 K on a Bruker Avance spectrometer (Bruker, 451 BioSpin Corporation, France) operating at 600 MHz for the <sup>1</sup>H frequency and equipped with a 5-452 mm BBFO probe.

453 Spectra were recorded using the 1D nuclear Overhauser effect spectroscopy pulse sequence (Trd-454  $90^{\circ}$ -T<sub>1</sub>- $90^{\circ}$ -tm- $90^{\circ}$ -Tag) with a relaxation delay (Trd) of 12.5 s, a mixing time (tm) of 100 ms, and a 455  $T_1$  of 4  $\mu$ s. The sequence enables optimal suppression of the water signal that dominates the 456 spectrum. We collected 128 free induction decays (FID) of 65,536 datapoints using a spectral 457 width of 12 kHz and an acquisition time of 2.72 s. For all spectra, FIDs were multiplied by an 458 exponential weighting function corresponding to a line broadening of 0.3 Hz and zero-filled before 459 Fourier transformation. NMR spectra were manually phased using Topspin 3.5 software (Bruker 460 Biospin Corporation, France) and automatically baseline-corrected and referenced to the TSP 461 signal ( $\delta$  = -0.015 ppm) using Chenomx NMR suite v7.5 software (Chenomx Inc., Canada). A 0.3 Hz 462 line-broadening apodization was applied prior to spectral analysis, and <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>1</sup>H TOCSY (Bax and Davis, 1985) and <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>13</sup>C HSQC (Schleucher et al., 1994) experiments were recorded on selected 463 464 samples to identify the detected metabolites. Quantification of identified metabolites was done 465 using Chenomx NMR suite v7.5 software (Chenomx Inc., Canada) using the TSP signal as the 466 internal standard.

#### 467 **Biodiversity analysis**

Taxonomic affiliation was carried out according to (Zhang *et al.*, 2016). DNA was extracted from 1
g of the crushed chimney and, at the end of each culture period, from scrapings of half of the WE

470 and from centrifuged pellets of 50 mL of spent media. The DNA extraction was carried out using 471 the MoBio PowerSoil DNA isolation kit (Carlsbad, CA). The V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was 472 amplified using the universal primers 515F (5'-GTG CCA GCM GCC GCG GTA A-3') and 806R (5'-473 GGA CTA CNN GGG TAT CTA AT-3') (Bates et al., 2011) with Taq&Load MasterMix (Promega). PCR 474 reactions, qPCR, amplicon sequencing and taxonomic affiliation were carried as previously 475 described (Pillot et al., 2018). The qPCR results were expressed in copies number of 16s rRNA 476 gene per gram of crushed chimney, per milliliter of liquid media or per cm<sup>2</sup> of surface of the 477 electrode. To analyze alpha diversity, the OTU tables were rarefied to a sampling depth of 9410 478 sequences per library, and three metrics were calculated: the richness component, represented 479 by number of OTUs observed, the Shannon index, representing total biodiversity, and the 480 evenness index (Pielou's index), which measures distribution of individuals within species 481 independently of species richness. Rarefaction curves (Supporting Information Fig. S7) for each 482 enrichment approached an asymptote, suggesting that the sequencing depths were sufficient to 483 capture overall microbial diversity in the studied samples. The phylogenetic tree was obtained 484 with MEGA software v10.0.5 with the MUSCLE clustering algorithm and the Maximum Likelihood 485 Tree Test with a Bootstrap method (2500 replications). The heatmap was obtained using RStudio 486 software v3. The raw sequences for all samples can be found in the European Nucleotide Archive 487 (accession number: PRJEB35427).

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## 648 Figures



Figure 1. Current consumption (red continuous line); pyruvate (blue triangle), glycerol (yellow
square) and acetate (green cross) productions over time of culture for each electron-acceptor
experiment. The current was obtained from a poised electrode at -590 mV vs SHE for nitrate and
sulfate experiments and -300 mV vs SHE for oxygen.





658 **Figure 2.** Coulombic efficiency for organic products in presence of the different electron

acceptors.







- 0.050
- 669 **Figure 4.** Maximum Likelihood phylogenetic tree of archaeal OTUs retrieved on various
- 670 enrichments on the 293pb 16S fragment obtained in the barcoding 16S method (LM: Liquid
- 671 Media; WE: Working Electrode, cathode). Numbers at nodes represent bootstrap values inferred
- 672 by MEGAX. Scale bars represent the average number of substitutions per site.
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#### 698 SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION







719 Supplementary Information Figure S2. Quantification of 16S rRNA gene copies from Bacteria

720 (blue) or Archaea (orange) per gram of crushed chimney, per milliliter of liquid or per cm<sup>2</sup> of

721 working electrode. Error bar represent the standard deviation obtained on triplicates.



Supplementary Information Figure S3. Heatmap representation of the distribution of dominant OTUs (>0.05%) over the different electron acceptors (LM: Liquid Media; WE: Working Electrode, cathode). OTUs and samples clustering were performed with centroid average method and with Pearson distance measurement method. The red taxa represent the Archaea members and blue taxa, the Bacteria.







Supplementary information Figure S5: Representative confocal microscopy of the biofilm after 30 days of
 experiment on nitrate as electron acceptor. The green signal, corresponding to cells stained with Syto9 dye, allow
 to show the biofilm covering the interwoven carbon fibers.

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Time (days)	Benzoate like	Methanol	Formate	Cystine	Acetoacetate	Lactate	Threonine	Succinate	Ethanol	Alanine	Acetamide	2-Aminoisobutyric acid	3-hydroxyisovalerate
0	0,0056	0,0032	0 <i>,</i> 0085	0,0123	0,024	0,0066	0,0019	0,0013	0,0022	0	0	0,0048	0,0046
1	0	0	0,0615	0,0355	0	0,03	0,0115	0	0,177	0	0	0,067	0,0375
2	0,0294	0	0,0084	0,0302	0	0,024	0,0026	0,0022	0,0406	0	0	0	0,0076
3	0,0198	0,0108	0,0549	0,0237	0	0,015	0,0036	0	0,0375	0,0108	0	0,0051	0,0282
4	0,0242	0,1606	0,0218	0,0306	0	0,0106	0,004	0	0.0425	0,012	0,02	0,0042	0,0066
5	0,0255	0,0315	0,0705	0,0236	0	0,0315	0,003	0	0,0475	0,0105	0,0255	0,0065	0,0345
7	0,0544	0,009	0,0234	0,0177	0	0,0092	0,0042	0	0,0298	0,0138	0,0486	0,0152	0,0094
9	0,055	0,036	0,063	0,0138	0,044	0,037	0	0	0,086	0	0,054	0,028	0,081
11	0,0766	0,0092	0,0258	0,0096	0,0046	0,011	0,0022	0	0,0168	0,0202	0,0576	0,0196	0,0138
12	0,0762	0	0,017	0,0078	0,0154	0,0122	0,002	0	0	0	0,0692	0,0216	0,008
13	0,0948	0	0,0326	0,0012	0	0,0172	0	0	0,0336	0,0542	0,0394	0,012	0,0144
15	0,1034	0,0072	0,0236	0,0026	0	0,016	0,002	0	0	0,0936	0,0358	0,0132	0,0112
16	0,1161	0	0	0	0	0,0276	0,0087	0	0,0579	0,1785	0,0189	0,0081	0,0234
18	0,099	0,0046	0,0134	0	0	0,011	0,0012	0	0	0,1798	0,0106	0	0,0098
21	0,1284	0,0054	0,022	0,0194	0	0,013	0,004	0,0012	0,0064	0,2366	0,0064	0	0,0146

**Supplementary information Table 1:** Evolution of transient compounds (in mM) over the enrichment on Nitrate measured by NMR



Supplementary information Figure S6: Screening of potentials in abiotic and anaerobic conditions to select the lowest potential before water electrolysis.
 Potential are expressed vs. SHE.





779 **Supplementary Information Figure S7.** Rarefaction curves of 16S rDNA sequences for bacterial

780 and archaeal diversities in the different samples. Curves were calculated on OTUs at 97%

similarity.

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