1	Groundwater cable bacteria conserve energy by sulfur disproportionation			
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13 Abstract

Cable bacteria of the family Desulfobulbaceae couple spatially separated sulfur oxidation and 14 15 oxygen or nitrate reduction by long-distance electron transfer, which can constitute the dominant sulfur oxidation process in shallow sediments. However, it remains unknown how 16 cells in the anoxic part of the centimeter-long filaments conserve energy. We found 16S rRNA 17 18 gene sequences similar to groundwater cable bacteria in a 1-methylnaphthalene-degrading culture (1MN). Cultivation with elemental sulfur and thiosulfate with ferrihydrite or nitrate as 19 20 electron acceptors resulted in a first cable bacteria enrichment culture dominated >90% by 16S rRNA sequences belonging to the Desulfobulbaceae. Desulfobulbaceae-specific fluorescence in 21 situ hybridization (FISH) unveiled single cells and filaments of up to several hundred 22 micrometers length to belong to the same species. The Desulfobulbaceae-filaments also 23 showed the distinctive cable bacteria morphology with their continuous ridge pattern as 24 25 revealed by atomic force microscopy. The cable bacteria grew with nitrate as electron acceptor and elemental sulfur and thiosulfate as electron donor, but also by sulfur disproportionation 26 27 when Fe(Cl)₂ or Fe(OH)₃ were present as sulfide scavengers. Metabolic reconstruction based on the first nearly complete genome of groundwater cable bacteria revealed the potential for 28 29 sulfur disproportionation and a chemo-litho-auto-trophic metabolism. The presence of different types of hydrogenases in the genome suggests that they can utilize hydrogen as 30 alternative electron donor. Our results imply that cable bacteria not only use sulfide oxidation 31 coupled to oxygen or nitrate reduction by LDET for energy conservation, but sulfur 32

disproportionation might constitute the energy metabolism for cells in large parts of the cablebacterial filaments.

35 **Main**

36 Introduction

Cable bacteria are filamentous multicellular microorganisms belonging to the family 37 Desulfobulbaceae (1). They appear in redox gradients where the cells of one end of the 38 39 filaments seemingly oxidize sulfide to sulfate (2). The electrons from sulfide oxidation can be 40 transported over several centimeters by long-distance electron transfer (LDET) to the sediment surface where they are used for oxygen or nitrate reduction (3-5). The electrons are transported 41 42 via conductive fibers in the periplasm leading to the distinctive morphology of a continuous ridge pattern over the whole length of cable bacteria (6). Since their first discovery in sediments 43 from Aarhus Bay (1), cable bacteria were found in many other marine sediments all over the 44 45 world (7) but also in a freshwater stream in Denmark (8) as well as in groundwater contaminated with hydrocarbons (9). So far, no attempts to cultivate cable bacteria in pure 46 culture or in a stable enrichment culture have been successful. Based on genome sequencing, 47 48 the cable bacteria known so far belong to a monophyletic sister clade of the genus Desulfobulbus with two proposed genera Candidatus Electrothrix and Candidatus Electronema 49 (10, 11). 16S rRNA gene sequences of groundwater cable bacteria formed a distinct 50 51 phylogenetic clade with the closest cultivable relative Desulfurivibrio alkaliphilus (12); a singlecelled rod-shaped alkaliphilic microorganism capable of sulfur disproportionation (12) and 52 sulfide oxidation with nitrate as electron acceptor (13). Surprisingly, we found 16S rRNA gene 53

sequences of groundwater cable bacteria in an enrichment culture (1MN) (14) which 54 55 anaerobically degrades 1-methylnaphthalene or naphthalene with ferric iron as electron acceptor. This culture contains two dominant organisms affiliated to Thermoanaerobacteraceae 56 and Desulfobulbaceae (Fig. 1B). The Thermoanaerobacteraceae were identified as the 57 degraders of naphthalene by stable isotope probing experiments and the detection of putative 58 genes encoding enzymes for naphthalene degradation (14). The Desulfobulbaceae shared 16S 59 rRNA gene identity of >98% with previously published sequences of groundwater cable bacteria 60 61 (9) (Fig. 1A). As iron-reduction and naphthalene-oxidation are in stark contrast to the environmental conditions where cable bacteria are usually found, the discovery of groundwater 62 cable bacteria in this chemo-organo-heterotrophic culture raised the question for their 63 64 metabolic role. Our hypothesis was that sulfur disproportionation plays a major role in energy conservation of cable bacteria. Therefore, we enriched the cable bacteria in the absence of an 65 66 organic electron source with elemental sulfur and Fe(OH)₃ as sulfide scavenger or terminal electron acceptor. After four consecutive transfers, we performed substrate turnover 67 experiments with culture 1MN where we simulated the conditions that cells of the cable 68 bacteria filaments might be facing along the geochemical gradients by adding sulfide, elemental 69 sulfur, or thiosulfate as electron sources. Additionally, we performed genome-resolved 70 metagenomics of the enrichment culture 1MN and our cable bacteria enrichment culture and 71 72 generated the first available, near complete genome (MAG Dsb 1MN) (Table S2, Fig. S3) of a groundwater cable bacterium, of which we elucidated the genetic potential. 73

75 Materials and methods

76 Cultivation of culture 1MN

77 The iron-reducing, 1-methylnaphtalene-degrading enrichment culture 1MN was enriched from 78 a former coal gasification site in Gliwice, Poland (14). It was grown in 125 ml serum bottles 79 filled with 65 ml anoxic freshwater mineral medium (15) and sealed with butyl rubber stoppers 80 under 80% N_2 and 20% CO_2 (Linde, Germany) atmosphere. The medium was reduced with 0.7 mM Na₂S and buffered to pH 7 with 30 mM carbonate buffer. 20 mM amorphous ferrihydrite 81 82 (16) served as sole electron acceptor and 0.35 mM 1-methylnaphthalene was added as electron donor and carbon source. Fresh cultures were started by inoculation with 10% from a previous 83 84 culture and incubated at 30° C.

85 Substrate turnover experiments

86 To investigate if sulfur and iron cycles are coupled in culture 1MN and to elucidate the function of MAG Dsb_1MN, 2% (v/v) of a 1MN culture grown with ferrihydrite and 1-methylnaphthalene 87 were transferred to fresh medium reduced with 0.7 mM Na₂S and amended with elemental 88 sulfur or thiosulfate in the presence or absence of ferrihydrite or nitrate as electron acceptor 89 90 (Table 1). In the presence of $Fe(OH)_3$, the reducing agent Na₂S was abiotically oxidized to 91 elemental sulfur or precipitated as black FeS. The media containing elemental sulfur were sterilized in an autoclave at 110° C for 30 min to prevent melting of the sulfur. No organic 92 93 substrate was provided for growth and all experiments of this study were conducted after four 94 consecutive transfers to exclude carryover of the methylnaphthalenes. Each of the different $_{95}$ cultivations was performed in two replicates inoculated with 2% (v/v) of the same source $_{96}$ culture in order to start with the same microbial community composition and two abiotic $_{97}$ controls.

98 Table 1: Incubation conditions for the substrate-turnover experiments with the cable bacteria

99 enrichment culture

E-Acceptor*	E-Donor*	Reducing agent	рН
8 mM NO ₃ ⁻	3 mM S ⁰	$0.7 \text{ mM Na}_2\text{S}$	6.4
8 mM NO_3	$3 \text{ mM } S_2 O_3^{2-}$	$0.7 \text{ mM Na}_2\text{S}$	6.4
30 mM Fe(OH)₃	3 mM S ⁰	$0.7 \text{ mM} \text{ Na}_2\text{S}$	6.4
30 mM Fe(OH) ₃	$3 \text{ mM S}_2 \text{O}_3^{2-}$	$0.7 \text{ mM} \text{ Na}_2\text{S}$	6.4
3 mM	S ⁰	10 mM FeCl_2	8.0
8 mM S	203 ²⁻	10 mM FeCl ₂	8.0

^{*}In the absence of nitrate and $Fe(OH)_3$, S^0 and $S_2O_3^{2-}$ served as both electron donors and electron acceptors

102 Analysis of the products of the substrate-turnover experiments

Serum bottles were homogenized by manual shaking and 600 μ l of the culture were sampled with a syringe through the stopper. Samples were processed immediately for further analyses to minimize oxygen exposure. For iron measurements, 20 μ l sample were dissolved in 180 μ l of 1M HCl for ~3 hours. Fe(II) concentrations were determined with the ferrozine assay on a 96well plate reader (Tecan, Switzerland) by measuring the absorbance at 560 nm (17, 18). For sulfide analysis, 20 μ l of sample were fixed in 400 μ l of a 1% zinc acetate solution. Sulfide 109 concentrations were measured within 2 hours by the methylene blue method (19) which was 110 downscaled to 96-well plate volumes (9). To this end, 100 μ l of the sample trapped in zinc acetate were mixed directly in the 96-well plate with 100 µl H₂O, 25 µl 4-Amino-N,N-111 112 dimethylaniline sulfate (ADMA) solution and oxidized to methylene blue with 25 μ l of ferric 113 ammonium sulfate solution. The absorbance of triplicate samples was measured at 670 nm on a 96-well plate reader. Sulfide concentrations were calculated from a standard curve derived 114 from different dilutions of a 100 mM Na₂S standard solution covering a range between 50 μM 115 and 5 mM. However, only dissolved sulfide and easily soluble S²⁻ were measured by this 116 117 method. For measuring total acid volatile sulfides (AVS), 100 μ l of sample were added to 7 ml of 6 M HCl in a tube with anoxic headspace containing a sulfide trap of 400 μ l 10% (w/v) zinc 118 119 acetate and incubated for 24 hours. The trapped sulfide was quantified as described above by the methylene blue method using a FeS standard for calibration. For ion chromatography, 100 120 121 μ l of sample were diluted in 900 μ l MilliQ water in an Eppendorf tube, immediately put on ice, and centrifuged for 15 min at 12,000 rpm to remove iron particles and cells. Major anions (NO₃⁻ 122 , NO₂, and SO₄²⁻) and cations (NH₄⁺) in the supernatant were measured by ion chromatography 123 with a Dionex aquion system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Dreieich, Germany). 124

125 Atomic force microscopy

For atomic force microscopy, 2 ml of culture 1MN were fixed for at least 24 hours in 2.5% glutaraldehyde at 4°C and afterwards centrifuged at 8000 rpm for 20 min. The supernatant was discarded and the pellet was resuspended in 200 μl MilliQ water. 20 μl of the cell suspension were dried for 2 h on a microscope glass slide and analysed with an atomic force microscope

(Nano Wizard, JPK Instruments, Germany) in contact mode using a CSC38/NO AL probe(Mikromasch, Tallinn, Estonia).

132 DNA extraction, T-RFLP and amplicon sequencing

133 For DNA extraction, at least 10 ml aliquots were centrifuged for 10 min at 18,000 g at 4°C. DNA was extracted from the pellet with a FastDNA Spin Kit for Soil (MP Biomedicals, Illkirch, France). 134 135 16S rRNA gene amplification and T-RFLP were performed as previously described using Ba27f (FAM-labelled) and 907r as primer for amplification and MSPI as restriction enzyme (20). For 136 amplicon sequencing, we used primers Pro341F and Pro805R (21) targeting 16S rRNA genes of 137 prokaryotes. The first stage PCR was performed in KAPA HiFi Hot Start Ready Mix (Roche, Basel, 138 Switzerland) by using 0.25 μ M of each forward and reverse primers ligated to Illumina overhang 139 adapters (Eurofins Genomics, Ebersberg, Germany) and 1 μ l of extracted DNA as template in a 140 141 total reaction volume of 25 μ l. After an initial denaturation step at 94 °C for 5 min, the PCR was performed in 30 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 30 s, annealing at 55 °C for 30 s, and 142 extension at 70 °C for 1 min, and a final extension at 70 °C for 5 min. The PCR amplicons were 143 144 purified using MagSi-NGSPREP Plus magnetic beads (Steinbrenner, Wiesenbach, Germany) according to the Illumina 16S metagenomic sequencing library preparation guide (part no. 145 15044223 Rev. B) with the modification that the beads were resuspended in 42.5 µL of elution 146 buffer EB (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). 40 µL of the supernatants were then taken for further 147 analyses. The subsequent index PCR was performed using the Nextera XT DNA Library 148 Preparation Kit v2 Set D (FC-131-2004) from Illumina (Munich, Germany) followed by a clean-up 149 150 according to the Illumina 16S metagenomic sequencing library preparation guide. DNA

concentrations were measured with a Qubit fluorometer (ThermoFisher Scientific, Dreieich, 151 152 Germany). The samples were normalized to a concentration of 4 ng/ μ L and 5 μ L of each sample were pooled in one ready-to-load sample, which was sequenced by GATC Biotech AG 153 154 (Konstanz, Germany) on an Illumina Miseq platform. The demultiplexed raw reads of 250-bps 155 length were processed using mothur by following the MySeq SOP (22, 23). The quality-filtered 156 and error-corrected sequences were clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at a defined cut-off level of 97% sequence similarity and classified by using the RDP classifier 157 158 (mothur-formated trainset 16)(24). Raw sequencing reads were deposited in the NCBI database 159 in Bioproject ID PRJNA523091.

160 Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH)

Cells were fixed in 2.5% final concentration of a 25% anoxic glutaraldehyde solution and stored 161 at 4° C for later analysis. For FISH, fixed samples were centrifuged at 8,000 rpm for 30 min in an 162 163 Eppendorf centrifuge, the supernatant was discarded, and the pellet was re-suspended with MilliQ water in one fifth of the original volume. 20 μ l of sample were transferred to wells of an 164 165 8-well microscope slide. The samples were dried at 46° C for 2 hours and dehydrated subsequently in 50%, 70%, and 98% ethanol for 3 min each. Hybridization and washing were 166 done according to a previously published protocol (25) at a formamide concentration of 35%. 167 We used different oligonucleotide probes for the detection of cable bacteria: probe DSB706 168 (Cy3, double-labelled; Biomers, Ulm, Germany) for Desulfobulbaceae (26) in general and probe 169 170 FliDSB194 (6-FAM, double-labelled; Biomers) (9) for groundwater cable bacteria in particular. Both probes match 100% with the 16S rRNA gene sequence of the only OTU of 171

Desulfobulbaceae present in the cable bacteria enrichments. Probe FliDSB194 was tested for its 172 173 specificity in silico and is not expected to hybridize under the conditions used with D. alkaliphilus (2 mismatches (MM)), D. propionicus (4 MM) and Ca. Electrothrix (6 MM) and no 174 16S rRNA gene sequence of any of these bacteria has been detected by amplicon sequencing. 175 176 As negative control, we used probe NON338 (27) (6-FAM, double-labelled; Biomers) representing the complementary sequence to EUB338 (28), the general probe for bacteria. As 177 additional negative control, we also applied probe CFX1223 (6-FAM, double-labelled; Biomers) 178 179 (29) targeting the Anaerolineaceae from the phylum Chloroflexi which were also present in the 180 cable bacteria enrichment cultures at minor relative abundance. Both probes showed no hybridization with the cable bacterial filaments (Fig. S7). After the washing step, cells were 181 counterstained with 2 μ g μ l⁻¹ 4',6-Diamidin-2-phenylindol (DAPI) for 3 min and embedded in 182 Citifluor AF1 (Citifluor, UK). Microscopy was performed with an eclipse epifluorescence 183 184 microscope (Nikon, Melville, USA) using NiS elements software (version 4.10.01, Nikon) for 185 imaging.

186 Genome-resolved metagenomics

We performed genome-resolved metagenomics on DNA extracted during a previously 187 published SIP experiment of culture 1MN grown on naphthalene for 72 days (14). Library 188 preparation and 150-bps paired-end Illumina HiSeq sequencing were performed at GATC 189 (Konstanz, Germany). Raw reads were trimmed and quality filtered with bbduk 190 (http://jgi.doe.gov/data-and-tools/bbtools/) SICKLE version 1.21 191 and (https://github.com/najoshi/sickle), and assembled and scaffolded with metaSPADES version 192

3.10.1 at default settings (30). For scaffolds longer than 1kb, 16S rRNA genes were identified 193 194 using CMsearch (31) and gene prediction was performed with prodigal in the meta mode (-p meta) (32). The predicted genes were taxonomically and functionally annotated using diamond 195 196 blastp (33) against the Uniref100 database (34). The scaffolds were binned into draft bins using 197 a tetranucleotide-frequency based emerging self-organizing map (ESOM) (35) and further 198 curated using GC, taxonomy and coverage information. The resulting bins were curated for scaffolding errors using ra2 (36) and again curated using GC, taxonomy and coverage 199 200 information. Quality of genomes was evaluated using 51 bacterial (37) and 38 archaeal single 201 copy genes (38).

202 Resequencing and strain analysis

203 We used the 1MN culture as inoculum for enrichment cultures predicted to select for cable bacteria physiology. To confirm the target cable bacteria population (MAG Dsb 1MN) was 204 205 present in the new enrichment cultures (lacking an organic carbon source) we sequenced the 206 metagenomic DNA followed by read QC as described above. Using GC content, coverage and 207 taxonomy information, we also reconstructed a near complete genome of this dataset. To test the similarity between the genome enriched with sulphur and the one of the organism that was 208 originally found in the 1MN culture we a) calculated the average nucleotide identity 209 (http://enve-omics.ce.gatech.edu/ani/) between the two reconstructed genomes (window size 210 211 1000 bs, step size 200 bps, minimum length 700 bps, minimum identity 70%, minimum 212 alignments 50). In addition, we visualized the similarity between the two genomes using 213 circoletto (39), based on blastn (e-value cutoff 1-e-10). Then, we used stringent read mapping

(40) and filtering for a maximum of three mismatches per read (equivalent to a sequencing
error rate of 2%). Newly generated reads were aligned to the reconstructed cable bacteria
genome MAG Dsb_1MN. SNP, insertion and deletion were calculated using default settings in
the Geneious software (41).

218 Availability of metagenomic data

Draft genome sequences were deposited in the NCBI database in Bioproject ID PRJNA475330 with the biosample accession numbers SAMN10188309, SAMN10188310, SAMN10188311, and SAMN10188512. The cable bacterial genome was uploaded to the Genoscope platform MAGE (42, 43) and annotated. Metabolic pathways were predicted by KEGG (44) pathway profiling of MAGE annotations.

224 Phylogenetic analyses

Phylogenetic trees of 16S rRNA gene sequences were calculated in the MEGA X software (45) 225 using the maximum likelihood method based on the Tamura-Nei model (46). For phylogenetic 226 placement of cable bacteria on the tree of life (beyond 16S rRNA gene analyses), we extracted 227 16 ribosomal proteins (47) using established methods (37). The ribosomal proteins were aligned 228 (48) with reference sequences of an in-house database consisting of 3800 dereplicated public 229 230 genomes from previous publications (38, 47, 49). Alignments were end-trimmed and manually inspected before concatenating them and building a tree using FastTree version 2.1.8 (50). The 231 232 resulting two-domain tree was pruned to a monophyletic subclade reflecting the position of the 233 cable bacteria.

234 Results

After only four consecutive transfers of enrichment culture 1 MN with sulfur as electron source, 235 236 one of the original 4 OTUs was no longer detectable (Thermoanaerobacteraceae) and our target of putative cable bacteria was enriched to a relative amplicon abundance of >90% (Fig. 1A, Fig. 237 238 1B, Fig S6). Complementary fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) with probe FliDSB194 (9) 239 specific for the cable bacterium and probe DSB706 (26) specific for the family Desulfobulbaceae 240 (both matched 100% with the 16S rRNA gene sequence of MAG Dsb 1MN) demonstrated that the cable bacterium was present in several hundred micrometer long filaments, but also in 241 shorter filaments as well as in individual cells (Fig. 1C, Fig. S5, Fig. S7, Fig. S8). The relative 242 243 proportion of these cell forms in the cable bacteria enrichment culture changed over the course of the experiment (Figure S7). The lengths of the filaments as well as the proportion of 244 245 filaments over single cells seemed to increase with incubation time. All observed filaments 246 were positive for probes FliDSB194 and DSB706 indicating that all cell forms belonged to the same cable bacteria represented by the genome sequence MAG Dsb_1MN (see below). Neither 247 248 the filaments nor the single cells hybridized with probe NON338 as a negative control (Fig. S7). Atomic force microscopy revealed that all observed filaments showed the typical cell envelope 249 250 with the continuous ridge pattern (1) confirming their morphology as cable bacteria (Fig. 1D). 251 So far, we were not able to detect the ridge patterns for single cells of the cable bacteria.

When the cable bacteria enrichment culture was provided with elemental sulfur or thiosulfate as electron source and nitrate as electron acceptor, the culture showed production of sulfate with concomitant reduction of nitrate to ammonia (Fig. 2A, Fig. S1A, Table S1). However, the

ammonium recovery was only 30%-60% of the nitrate reduced (Table S1) which might have 255 256 been caused by degassing of ammonia from the medium. Since nitrite was only detected at low concentrations (<100 µM), incomplete nitrate reduction to nitrite cannot explain this 257 observation. Nevertheless, the decrease in nitrate fits to the stoichiometric oxidation of sulfur 258 259 by dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (Fig. 2A, Fig. S1A, Table S1). This overall reaction might imply that the cable bacteria simply perform sulfur oxidation with nitrate as 260 electron acceptor. Indeed, the genome of the cable bacteria (MAG Dsb 1MN) encodes for 261 262 dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonia and a complete sulfate reduction pathway, which could have been operated in reverse (Fig. 3, Table S3). During days 5-12 of the incubation, one 263 of the two replicate incubations with $S_2O_3^{2-}$ as electron donor showed a high drop in NO_3^{-1} 264 concentration compared to a relatively low increase in SO_4^{2-} concentrations. This was only 265 observed once and might have been caused by issues during analysis of SO_4^{2-} on day 12. When 266 267 we added ferric iron instead of nitrate as electron acceptor to cultures with sulfur or thiosulfate as substrate for sulfur disproportionation, again an oxidation of elemental sulfur to sulfate 268 occurred coupled to the reduction of ferric iron. However, the stoichiometry and the 269 production of acid-volatile sulfides (AVS) indicated an abiotic reduction of ferric iron with 270 sulfide produced during disproportionation (Fig. 2B, Fig. S1B, Table S1). Indeed, we observed 271 272 sulfur and thiosulfate disproportionation when free sulfide was kept very low by Fe(II) as a 273 scavenger, indicated by a simultaneous increase of sulfate and AVS in a 1:3 or 1:1 ratio, respectively (Fig. 2C, Fig. S1C, Table S1). However, with longer incubation time less sulfide was 274 275 measured than expected (Table S1) which might have been caused by a) degassing of sulfide, b) electrons used for autotrophic carbon fixation, or c) pyrite formation which has been shownpreviously (51).

278 Sulfide can be toxic to cells but also thermodynamically inhibiting sulfur disproportionation. To test the effect of different sulfide concentrations on cable bacteria performing sulfide oxidation 279 with nitrate as electron acceptor (as previously described for the closest cultivated relative 280 281 Desulfurivibrio alkaliphilus (13)), we incubated our cable bacteria enrichment culture with nitrate as electron acceptor, elemental sulfur or thiosulfate as electron donors, and different 282 concentrations of sulfide from 0 to 2 mM as potentially inhibiting sulfide background 283 concentration. Sulfur oxidation or sulfur disproportionation did only take place at dissolved 284 sulfide concentrations lower than 120 µM and was completely inhibited at concentrations 285 higher than 300 μ M at pH 6.4 (Fig. S2). 286

To further elucidate the physiology of the cable bacteria (genome MAG Dsb_1MN), we 287 investigated the metagenome of DNA extracted during the growth phase of culture 1MN on 288 naphthalene after 72 days of incubation. We received 6.7 million paired reads, which 289 290 assembled into 141 scaffolds longer than 1 kbps. Binning of the scaffolds based on tetranucleotide frequencies led to four clearly separated genome bins, each belonging to a 291 different phylum (Fig. S3). The genome MAG Dsb 1MN revealed hits for 2,740 protein-coding 292 genes against the Uniref100 database. 37% of these genes coded for uncharacterized proteins. 293 With an estimated genome completeness of >98%, MAG Dsb 1MN shows the so far highest 294 completeness of all cable bacterial genomes (11). We additionally sequenced the metagenome 295 of our cable bacteria enrichment culture after substrate turnover experiments and 296

297 reconstructed a genome that has a 99.9% average nucleotide identity (0.08% SD, two-way) with 298 the original genome. Whole genome alignments based on blast are provided in Figure S9 and 299 indicated that the recovered genomes are nearly identical (only a few SNPs were detected, Fig. 300 S4). Within the community of the cable bacteria enrichment, we detected four different 301 organisms based on ribosomal protein S3 (rpS3) markers. The cable bacterium was the dominant organism with a coverage of 447 for the rpS3-carrying scaffold (on average). A 302 Chloroflexi sequence showed a coverage of 94 and the two other sequences (Actinobacteria 303 304 and Verrucomicrobia) were both detected with 11-fold coverage per rpS3 scaffold. Hence, also 305 the metagenomic data indicated that the cable bacteria (MAG Dsb 1MN) from culture 1MN 306 were successfully enriched with sulphur as electron source.

307 Metabolic pathway prediction confirmed that the cable bacteria (genome MAG Dsb 1MN) have potential for versatile sulfur metabolism including all proteins of dissimilatory sulphate 308 309 reduction, a sulfide-quinone reductase (SQR) and a thiosulfate reductase (PHS) (Fig. 3, Table 310 S3). The genome codes for all proteins of dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (DNRA) 311 confirming the results from our substrate-turnover experiments which showed ammonium 312 production with nitrate as electron acceptor (Table S1, Table S3). Genes for a terminal 313 cytochrome bd-II oxidase indicate the potential of oxygen reduction (Fig. 3, Table S3). 314 Intriguingly, the genome contains genes for four different types of hydrogenases suggesting hydrogen as alternative electron donor for cable bacteria. Specifically, electron bifurcating 315 F420-non-reducing (52) and Hyd-type hydrogenases (53) in the cytoplasm might provide 316 reduced ferredoxin and NADH for autotrophic CO₂ fixation (Fig. 3, Table S3). Membrane bound 317

Hyb- and Hyf-type hydrogenases could couple hydrogen oxidation to quinone, NAD⁺, or ferredoxin reduction. Alternatively, the enzymes could produce hydrogen when operated in reverse. In addition, a ferredoxin-NAD⁺ oxidoreductase (Rnf) complex could couple ferredoxin oxidation and NAD⁺ reduction to energy conservation by dislocation of protons or sodium ions (54). The proton motive force could be exploited for ATP generation by a F-type ATPase (Fig. 3, Table S3)(55).

Genes for the complete pathways of glycolysis/gluconeogenesis were present in the genome 324 325 (Table S1, Table S3). The genome is lacking a complete TCA-cycle since we could not detect genes for fumarate reductase and succinate synthase (Fig. 3). Genome MAG Dsb 1MN shows 326 potential for CO₂ fixation reflected by the presence of all genes of a Wood-Ljungdahl pathway. 327 So far, the composition of the conductive structures and the respective genes for a long-328 distance electron transfer are unknown. However, c-type cytochromes have been suggested to 329 be involved in electron conduction and as a capacitor (5). We found 15 genes coding for 330 331 different c-type cytochromes of which, for instance, multiheme cytochromes DmsE and PpcG are known to be involved in periplasmatic electron transfer during iron reduction (56, 57) 332 (Table S3). The genome encodes also for PilA, which might be involved in extracellular electron 333 334 transport (Table S3)(58).

335 Discussion

In laboratory enrichment cultures as well as in contaminated aquifers, hydrocarbon-degrading organisms are frequently associated with highly abundant bacteria of the family *Desulfobulbaceae* closely related to groundwater cable bacteria (9, 14, 59). We enriched 17 339 groundwater cable bacteria originating from the iron-reducing, naphthalene-degrading culture 340 1MN to more than 90% in relative abundance, only with elemental sulfur as electron source 341 and ferrihydrite as electron acceptor and sulfide scavenger. This supports the recent proposal 342 that the *Desulfobulbaceae* might be involved in sulfur-cycling during 1-methylnaphthalene 343 degradation in culture 1MN (14).

Specific fluorescence *in situ* hybridization for groundwater cable bacteria revealed that the *Desulfobulbaceae* were present as several hundred µm long filaments, but also shorter filaments and single cells. This contrasts with findings for marine cable bacteria where to our knowledge no single-celled state was observed so far. Atomic force microscopy revealed the typical cable bacterial morphology with the continuous ridge pattern for our cable bacteria enrichment, similar to the originally discovered monophyletic cluster of cable bacteria 16S rRNA sequences from marine and freshwater (10).

351 Since the discovery of cable bacteria, it has been a major question how the cells in the middle 352 of the filaments conserve energy because there is no visible reaction taking place in the suboxic 353 zone of the geochemical gradient. Obvious reactions are only the sulphide oxidation at the anodic end and oxygen reduction at the cathodic end of the filaments. In our substrate-354 turnover experiments with the cable bacteria enrichment culture we simulated the conditions 355 that cells in the cable bacteria filament are facing along the geochemical gradients. The results 356 presented here provide clear evidence that cable bacteria can conserve energy by sulfur or 357 thiosulfate disproportionation with FeCl₂ as sulfide scavenger (Fig. 2; Fig. S1). In this case, 358 359 energy could be conserved in all cells via substrate-level phosphorylation in the last step of a

reverse sulfate reduction pathway, when adenosinephosphosulfate (APS) is converted to 360 361 sulfate and ATP by a reverse operating sulfate adenylyltransferase (Sat) (Fig. 3, Table S3). We thus propose that the cable bacterial cells oxidize sulfide to elemental sulfur in a first step that 362 is coupled by LDET to oxygen reduction or nitrate reduction to ammonium. The sulfur is then 363 364 disproportionated by a reverse sulfate reduction pathway producing sulfate and sulfide. Hence, the role of LDET might be to provide elemental sulfur for the energy conserving sulfur 365 disproportionation. LDET thus mainly serves as an electron sink or acceptor for sulfide oxidation 366 367 by cable bacteria but no energy can be conserved in this step. A similar mechanism has been 368 demonstrated recently for Desulfurivibrio alkaliphilus (13). Transcriptomics indicated that D. alkaliphilus oxidizes sulfide to elemental sulfur in a first step, which can then be either 369 370 disproportionated or oxidized with nitrate as electron acceptor (13).

In contrast to D. alkaliphilus, our cable bacteria enrichment culture showed no sulfur 371 372 disproportionation or oxidation of sulfide at concentrations higher than 300 μ M indicating a 373 thermodynamic or toxic inhibition of sulfur disproportionation by free hydrogen sulfide. Since 374 this inhibition is complete and inhibiting energy conservation, the cable bacteria can also not 375 slowly oxidize the sulfide to lower concentrations where it could start off with growth. At the 376 slightly acidic pH of 6.4 during our substrate turnover experiments with nitrate most of the 377 sulfide was present as gaseous H_2S which can pass cell membranes (60) and consequently inhibit sulfur disproportionation. In contrast, at the alkaline pH during cultivation of D. 378 alkaliphilus (>pH 9.5) almost all sulfide is present as HS^{-} or S^{2-} which cannot pass the cell 379

380 membranes. This might be the reason why *D. alkaliphilus* can grow at higher sulfide 381 concentrations whereas our cable bacteria cannot (13, 61).

382 Recently, three genomes of marine Ca. Electrothrix and one genome of Ca. Electronema have been published based on single cell sequencing and metagenomics (11). In the following, we 383 provide an overview of the similarities and differences of these genomes to the genome MAG 384 385 DSB 1MN of our cable bacteria. While the genome size of 3.1 Mbps of MAG DSB 1MN is within the range of 2.7 to 4.0 Mbps reported for other cable bacteria, MAG DSB 1MN has a clearly 386 higher GC content of 57% compared to ~50% already distinguishing MAG DSB 1MN from other 387 cable bacteria. MAG DSB 1MN has several genes which might have been lost, reduced or 388 replaced in other cable bacteria such as the glycolytic enzyme enolase, a complete DsrKMJOP 389 complex and the NADH-quinone oxidoreductase (Nuo) enzyme complex (Table S3) (11). Like in 390 other cable bacteria and in D. alkaliphilus, a sulfide-quinone reductase (SQR) might oxidize 391 392 sulfide to elemental sulfur and the sulfate reduction pathway might be operated in reverse for energy conservation. No reverse-type dissimilatory sulfite reductase was observed which is in 393 accordance to other cable bacteria, D. alkaliphilus and also other sulfur disproportionating 394 Desulfobulbaceae such as D. propionicus. Kieldsen et al. (11) suggested energy conservation by 395 396 sulfur disproportionation by a polysulfide reductase (PSR) when cable bacteria are 397 disconnected from electron acceptors. So far, we were not able to detect genes encoding for this enzyme in MAG DSB 1MN. One of the main questions since the discovery of cable bacteria 398 is about the composition of the electron conductor. Based on metagenomic and proteomic 399 data, Kieldsen et al. hypothesized electrically conductive type IV pili (e-pili) might form 400

401 conductive superstructures in the periplasm. Our genomic data of MAG DSB_1MN also allow
402 for this possibility, since we also found the gene coding for PilA in the genome. The amino acid
403 sequence shows the same distribution of aromatic amino acids like electrically conductive e-pili
404 (Fig. S10) (58).

Interestingly, genome analysis revealed genes for hydrogenases indicating the potential of MAG 405 406 DSB 1MN to use hydrogen as alternative electron donor (Fig.3, Table S3). Hydrogen might be an alternative electron source for cable bacteria in organic-rich habitats where mainly 407 fermentation can take place. However, this is in contrast to the genomes of marine and 408 freshwater cable bacteria where a cytoplasmatic hydrogenase was detected only in Ca. E. 409 410 *aarhusiensis* and periplasmatic hydrogenases were absent (11). The presence of a complete Wood-Ljungdahl pathway for CO_2 fixation which is in accordance to previously published 411 genomes (11) and the absence of an organic C-source in our enrichment culture strongly 412 413 indicates the capability of MAG DSB 1MN of a chemo-litho-auto-trophic metabolism.

Our cable bacteria enrichment culture was also capable of nitrate reduction to ammonium 414 415 which was confirmed by genes encoding for nitrate and nitrite reductases in genome MAG DSB 1MN. Although we did not test for oxygen as electron acceptor, genes encoding for 416 cytochrome bd oxidase indicate that these organisms can reduce oxygen as terminal electron 417 acceptor (Fig. 3, Table S3). Nevertheless, groundwater cable bacteria showed oxygen reduction 418 in laboratory incubations of aquifer sediments (9). Intriguingly, genes encoding for a 419 cytochrome bd oxidase for oxygen as electron acceptor were absent in the genomes of Ca. 420 421 Electrothrix and *Ca*. Electronema (11).

422 These results allow us to suggest a new model for energy conservation of cable bacteria, which 423 provides an explanation of how each cell within the cable bacterial filament can conserve 424 energy (Fig. 4). Near the surface, cable bacteria perform the cathodic reaction, *i.e.* the 425 reduction of oxygen and nitrate to water and ammonium, respectively. So far, it is unclear if 426 cable bacteria conserve energy from oxygen reduction. For instance, closely related species 427 such as *Desulfobulbus propionicus* can reduce oxygen but show no growth with oxygen as electron acceptor (62). We propose that below the cathodic zone elemental sulfur is 428 429 disproportionated to sulfate and sulfide, whereas the sulfide is again oxidized to sulfur by LDET. The elemental sulfur can either be produced abiotically by fluctuating redox conditions or by a 430 431 long-distance electron transfer by the cable bacteria themselves. Hence, the apparent overall 432 reaction at the anodic part of the filaments is a net oxidation of sulfide to sulfate but energy is most likely conserved by sulfur disproportionation only. In natural sediments, chemo-organo-433 434 hetero-trophic, sulfate-reducing bacteria will be abundant all along the cable bacteria filament 435 and oxidize organic material with concomitant reduction of sulfate to sulfide (63) (Fig. 4). We propose that all cells of the cable bacteria can oxidize this sulfide to elemental sulfur by LDET 436 and the electrons are channeled through the cable filaments to the oxygen- or nitrate-reducing 437 cathodic end. In fact, this pathway provides an explanation for energy conservation throughout 438 439 the entire filament.

The energy-conserving sulfur disproportionation reaction requires low sulfide concentrations (64). This suggests that in sediments the anodic oxidation of sulfide is limited to the suboxic zone and a narrow zone at the measurable end of the sulfide gradient (Fig. 4) which is

443 characterized by low concentrations but high fluxes of sulfide. Hence, the functioning of cable 444 bacteria relies on a delicate equilibrium between the rate of electron removal by LDET (and consequent oxygen or nitrate reduction rates) and the sulfide reduction rates by sulfate 445 reducers (Fig. 4). Either a decrease of LDET, by e.g. lower oxygen supply, or higher sulfate 446 reduction rates could lead to increased sulfide concentrations along the filaments and 447 immediate inactivation of the cable bacteria function. This might explain the frequently 448 449 observed sudden disappearance of cable bacteria populations and LDET in marine sediments (65, 66). 450

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621

622 Author contributions

R.M. acquired the funding. H.M. and R.M. designed the strategy and experiments. H.M. and
S.M. performed the laboratory work and analyses. H.M. and A.J.P. performed genome-resolved
metagenomics. H.M. wrote the manuscript with revisions from all authors.

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627 Fig. captions

Fig. 1 Microbial composition in the obtained enrichment cultures. A) Maximum likelihood 628 629 phylogenetic tree of full length 16S rRNA gene sequences of Desulfobulbaceae retrieved from 630 the NCBI database in comparison to the cable bacteria (MAG Dsb 1MN) from culture 1MN (red frame). Partial sequences from amplicon sequencing (OTU 1) and sequences from the 631 632 metagenomes of culture 1MN (MAG Dsb 1MN) and the cable bacteria enrichment showed 100% similarity. Scale bar represents the number of substitutions per site. Known cable bacteria 633 are represented by full-length 16S gene sequences of Candidatus Electrothrix and Candidatus 634 635 Electronema. B) Changes in microbial community composition of culture 1MN in the presence of different electron donor and acceptor combinations. The relative abundances of the MAG 636 637 Dsb 1MN population and the Thermoanaerobacteraceae in the culture grown on 1-638 methylnaphthalene and ferrihydrite (top panel) were deduced from the average read coverage in the metagenome which confirmed previous results obtained from fingerprinting by T-RFLP 639 (14). The relative abundances in the absence of 1-methylnaphthalene were inferred from 640 641 fingerprinting by T-RFLP and confirmed by amplicon sequencing (Fig. S6). C) Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) of the cable bacteria enrichment culture grown with elemental sulfur as 642 electron donor and nitrate as electron acceptor stained with probe FliDSB194 specific for the 643 28

MAG Dsb_1MN cable bacteria population. **D)** Atomic force micrograph of filaments in culture 1MN grown with elemental sulfur and nitrate as electron acceptor showing the characteristic cell envelope of cable bacteria. The image displays the vertical deflection measured in contact mode.

Fig. 2 Development of concentrations of electron acceptor and sulfur species in the 1MN culture. Active cultures (filled symbols, solid lines) supplied with thiosulfate (left panel) or elemental sulfur (right panel) and electron acceptors **A**) nitrate, **B**) ferrihydrite, or **C**) at disproportionation conditions in comparison to abiotic controls (open symbols, dashed lines). Concentrations of nitrate (circles), Fe(II) (squares), sulfate (triangles), and acid volatile sulfides (AVS, diamonds) of one representative incubation is shown over the course of the experiment. Graphs of other replicate incubations are shown in Fig. S1.

Fig. 3 Metabolic potential of groundwater cable bacteria (MAG Dsb_1MN). The pathways were inferred from KEGG (44) pathway profiling on the Genoscopes platform MAGE (42, 43). The functions of enzymes involved in sulfur metabolism were inferred from the literature (13, 67).

Fig. 4 Conceptual model for energy conservation in groundwater cable bacteria. **A**), **B**) Filaments span the suboxic zone by a long-distance electron transfer. Within the suboxic zone and the anodic zone, sulfide is oxidized to elemental sulfur which is then used to conserve energy by sulfur disproportionation via a reverse sulfate reduction pathway. At the cathodic end, oxygen or nitrate reduction take place as electron accepting process for the LDET. Sulfide is provided all along the filament by sulfate-reducing bacteria. The sulfate is recycled by the

- cable bacteria providing a cryptic sulfur cycle in the suboxic zone. IM, inner membrane; OM,
- 665 outer membrane; EC, electric conductor.









electric conductor (pilA?, cytochromes?)



Outer membrane



concentration



cryptic sulphur cycle



