

1 Title: Unique metabolic strategies in Hadean analogues reveal hints for primordial

2 physiology

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26 **Abstract**

27 Primordial microorganisms are postulated to have emerged in H₂-rich alkaline Hadean
28 serpentinite-hosted environments with homoacetogenesis as a core metabolism. However,
29 investigation of two modern serpentinization-active analogues of early Earth reveals that
30 conventional H₂-/CO₂-dependent homoacetogenesis is thermodynamically unfavorable *in situ*
31 due to picomolar CO₂ levels. Through metagenomics and thermodynamics, we discover unique
32 taxa capable of metabolism adapted to the habitat. This included a novel deep-branching
33 phylum, “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*”, that exclusively inhabits Hadean analogues and harbors genes
34 encoding alternative modes of H₂-utilizing lithotrophy. Rather than CO₂, these metabolisms
35 utilize reduced carbon compounds detected *in situ* presumably serpentinization-derived:
36 formate and glycine. The former employs a partial homoacetogenesis pathway and the latter a
37 distinct pathway mediated by a rare selenoprotein – the glycine reductase. A survey of
38 serpentinite-hosted system microbiomes shows that glycine reductases are diverse and nearly
39 ubiquitous in Hadean analogues. “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*” glycine reductases represent a basal
40 lineage, suggesting that catabolic glycine reduction is an ancient bacterial innovation for
41 gaining energy from geogenic H₂ even under serpentinization-associated hyperalkaline, CO₂-
42 poor conditions. This draws remarkable parallels with ancestral archaeal H₂-driven methyl-
43 reducing methanogenesis recently proposed. Unique non-CO₂-reducing metabolic strategies
44 presented here may provide a new view into metabolisms that supported primordial life and
45 the diversification of LUCA towards *Archaea* and *Bacteria*.

46 During the Hadean eon (~4.6-4.0 Ga), H₂-rich hyperalkaline fluids generated from widespread
47 serpentinization of ultramafic rocks are thought to have been conducive for the evolution of
48 primordial life¹⁻⁷. Early microbial life is theorized to have catabolized H₂ through
49 homoacetogenesis^{4,8,9}, and recent studies point towards evolutionary antiquity of the central
50 enzyme of the pathway, the bifunctional CO dehydrogenase/acetyl-CoA synthase or
51 CODH/ACS¹⁰⁻¹². Our recent study also shows that an acetyl-CoA pathway-like chain of
52 reactions can proceed in the presence of hydrothermal iron minerals¹³, suggesting the pathway
53 preceded life and life simply encapsulated this into cells¹⁴. Protocells and the last universal
54 common ancestor (LUCA) are hypothesized to have evolved within alkaline hydrothermal
55 mineral deposits at the interface of serpentinization-derived fluid and ambient water (*e.g.*,
56 Hadean weakly acidic seawater)¹⁵⁻¹⁷. Although such interfaces no longer exist (*i.e.*, the Hadean
57 Earth lacked O₂ but most water bodies contain O₂ on modern Earth), some anaerobic terrestrial
58 and oceanic ecosystems harboring active serpentinization (*e.g.*, Lost City hydrothermal field)
59¹⁸⁻²⁵ have been identified as modern analogues of ancient serpentinization-associated alkaline
60 fluids. These are ideal ecosystems for investigating what kind of H₂ catabolism may have
61 supported early post-LUCA life venture away from the interface deeper into the hyperalkaline
62 hydrothermal systems. Gaining independence from the gradient at the interface was likely a
63 critical step in the evolution of life, and life likely headed towards the hyperalkaline fluids due
64 to their reliance on serpentinization-derived energy sources and their cellular machinery being
65 alkaliphilic (*i.e.*, moving towards the weakly acidic seawater would have been an unfavorable
66 transition)^{5,15-17}. However, microbiologists have yet to provide insight into such metabolic
67 strategies from extant organisms inhabiting modern analogues. In this study, we pair
68 metagenomics and thermodynamics to characterize uncultured putative anaerobic H₂ utilizers
69 inhabiting alkaline H₂-rich serpentinite-hosted systems (Hakuba Happo hot springs in Hakuba,

70 Japan and The Cedars springs in California, USA; $pH \sim 10.9$ and ~ 11.9 , respectively)²⁶⁻²⁸ and
71 elucidate lithotrophic catabolism that may have been relevant to early life.

72

73 **Thermogeochemistry**

74 To evaluate whether homoacetogenesis is viable *in situ*, we examined the *in situ* geochemical
75 environment and the thermodynamics of H_2 /formate utilization and homoacetogenesis. The
76 spring waters of both Hakuba and The Cedars contained H_2 (*e.g.*, 201–664 μM in Hakuba²⁸).
77 Formate, another compound thought to be abiotically generated through serpentinization, was
78 also detected in Hakuba (8 μM in drilling well #3²⁹) and The Cedars (6.9 μM in GPS1). Acetate
79 has also been detected *in situ* (4 μM in Hakuba²⁹ and 69.3 μM in The Cedars GPS1), suggesting
80 these ecosystems may host novel H_2 - and/or formate-utilizing homoacetogens.
81 Thermodynamic calculations confirm that H_2 and formate are reductants *in situ* (*i.e.*, $H_2 = 2H^+$
82 $+ 2e^-$ / $Formate^- = H^+ + CO_2 + 2e^-$): the Gibbs free energy yields (ΔG) for oxidation (coupled
83 with physiological electron carriers $NADP^+$, NAD^+ , and ferredoxin) are less than -4.78 kJ per
84 mol H_2 and -24.92 kJ per mol formate in Hakuba, and -10.73 and -22.03 in The Cedars
85 respectively (see Supplementary Results). However, serpentinite-hosted systems impose a
86 unique challenge to homoacetogenesis – a key substrate, CO_2 , is at extremely low
87 concentrations due to the high alkalinity. We estimate that the aqueous CO_2 concentration is
88 below 0.0004 nM in Hakuba (pH 10.7 and <0.1 μM TIC) and 0.003 nM in The Cedars (pH
89 11.9 and 35 μM TIC)^{26,28}. In Hakuba, H_2/CO_2 -driven acetogenesis (ΔG of -1.68 kJ per mol
90 acetate) cannot support microbial energy generation ($\Delta G \leq -20$ kJ per mol is necessary³⁰; Fig.
91 S1). Moreover, in both Hakuba and The Cedars, one of the first steps in CO_2 -reducing
92 homoacetogenesis, reduction of CO_2 to formate, is unfavorable based on the thermodynamics
93 presented above ($\Delta G > +24.92$ or $+22.02$ kJ per mol formate). Thus, catabolic reduction of CO_2
94 to acetate is thermodynamically challenging *in situ* and may only run if investing ATP (*e.g.*,

95 Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle [-6 ATP; ΔG of -361.68 kJ per mol acetate in Hakuba] or
96 reductive tricarboxylic acid [-1 ATP; -61.68 kJ per mol]). Under CO₂ limitation, autotrophs
97 are known to accelerate CO₂ uptake through HCO₃⁻ dehydration to CO₂ (carbonic anhydrase)
98 or carbonate mineral dissolution, but both only modify kinetics and are not effective in
99 changing the maximum CO₂ concentration (determined by equilibrium with carbonate species).
100 In addition, in Hakuba, the CO₃²⁻ concentration is too low (87.5 nM CO₃²⁻) for carbonate
101 mineral precipitation (*e.g.*, [CO₃²⁻] must exceed 38.5 μ M given K_s of 5x10⁻⁹ for CaCO₃ and
102 [Ca²⁺] of 0.13 mM).

103

104 Based on thermodynamic calculations, the energy obtainable from H₂/CO₂-driven
105 homoacetogenesis is too small to support life in many Hadean analogues (Fig. S2a), yet acetate
106 is detected in some of these ecosystems (Fig. S2b). Thus, CO₂-independent electron-disposing
107 metabolism may have been necessary for early life to gain energy from H₂ in the hyperalkaline
108 fluids of hydrothermal systems. Here, we explore the metabolic capacities of extant organisms
109 living in CO₂-limited Hadean analogues to gain insight into potential metabolic strategies that
110 LUCA or early post-LUCA organisms beginning diversification towards *Bacteria* and *Archaea*
111 may have utilized to thrive in alkaline serpentinite-active ecosystems.

112

113 **Diverse putative H₂- and formate-utilizing organisms**

114 Through metagenomic exploration of the two serpentinite-hosted systems (Table S1), we
115 discover a plethora of phylogenetically novel organisms encoding genes for H₂ and formate
116 metabolism (19 bins with 73.2-94.8% completeness and 0.0-8.1% contamination [86.1% and
117 3.8% on average respectively]; available under NCBI BioProject PRJNA453100) despite
118 challenges in acquisition of genomic DNA (15.7 and 18.9 ng of DNA from 233 and 720 L of
119 filtered Hakuba Happo spring water, respectively; RNA was below the detection limit). We

120 find metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) affiliated with lineages of *Firmicutes* (*e.g.*,
121 *Syntrophomonadaceae* and uncultured family SRB2), *Actinobacteria*, and candidate division
122 NPL-UPA2³¹ (Fig. S3). We also recovered MAGs for a novel candidate phylum, herein
123 referred to as “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*”, that inhabits both Hakuba and The Cedars and, to our
124 knowledge, no other ecosystems (Fig. 1a and S3). These genomes encode enzymes for
125 oxidizing H₂ and formate (*i.e.*, hydrogenases and formate dehydrogenases³²⁻³⁹; see
126 Supplementary Results), suggesting that organisms *in situ* can employ H₂ and formate as
127 electron donors.

128

129 “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*” has unique site-adapted metabolism

130 Inspection of the serpentinite-hosted environment-exclusive phylum “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*”
131 reveals specialization to H₂-driven lithotrophy potentially suitable for the low-CO₂ *in situ*
132 conditions (Fig. 1b). We discover that The Cedars-inhabiting population (*e.g.*, MAG BS5B28,
133 94.8% completeness and 2.9% contamination) harbors genes for H₂ oxidation ([NiFe]
134 hydrogenase Hox) and a nearly complete Wood-Ljungdahl pathway and an oxidoreductase
135 often associated with acetogenesis – NADH:ferredoxin oxidoreductase Rnf^{40,41} (Table S2 and
136 S3). One critical enzyme, the formate dehydrogenase, is missing from all three “*Ca.*
137 *Lithoacetigenota*” MAGs from The Cedars (and unbinned contigs), indicating that these
138 bacteria can neither perform H₂/CO₂-driven nor formate-oxidizing acetogenesis (Fig. 1b).
139 However, even without the formate dehydrogenase, the genes present can form a coherent
140 pathway that uses formate rather than CO₂ as a starting point for the “methyl branch” of the
141 Wood-Ljungdahl pathway (*i.e.*, formate serves as an electron acceptor; Fig. 1b). This is a
142 simple yet potentially effective strategy for performing homoacetogenesis while circumventing
143 the unfavorable reduction of CO₂ to formate. Coupling H₂ oxidation with this formate-reducing
144 pathway is thermodynamically viable as it halves the usage of CO₂ ($3\text{H}_2 + \text{Formate}^- + \text{CO}_2 =$

145 Acetate⁻ + 2H₂O; ΔG of -29.62 kJ per mol acetate) and, as a pathway, is simply an intersection
146 between the conventional H₂/CO₂-driven and formate-disproportionating acetogenesis (Fig.
147 1b). Although use of formate as an electron acceptor for formate-oxidizing acetogenesis is
148 quite common, no previous homoacetogens have been observed to couple H₂ oxidation with
149 acetogenesis from formate, likely because CO₂ has a much higher availability than formate in
150 most ecosystems.

151

152 Interestingly, the Hakuba-inhabiting “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*” (HKB210 and HKB111) also
153 encodes Hox for H₂ oxidation but lacks genes for homoacetogenesis (no homologs closely
154 related to The Cedars population genes were detected even in unbinned metagenomic contigs).
155 Perhaps this population forgoes the above H₂/formate-driven homoacetogenesis because the
156 estimated energy yield of the net reaction *in situ* (ΔG of -19.94 kJ per mol acetate) is extremely
157 close to the thermodynamic threshold of microbial catabolism (slightly above -20 kJ per mol)
158 and, depending on the actual threshold for “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*” and/or even slight changes
159 in the surrounding conditions (*e.g.*, ΔG increases by 1 kJ per mol if H₂ decreases by 20 μM
160 decreases in Hakuba), the metabolism may be unable to recover energy. Through searching the
161 physicochemical environment for alternative exogenous electron acceptors and MAGs for
162 electron-disposing pathways, we detected a low concentration of glycine *in situ* (5.4 ± 1.6 nM;
163 Table S4) and found genes specific to catabolic glycine reduction (see next paragraph). We
164 suspect that some portion of this glycine is likely geochemically generated *in situ*, given that
165 (a) glycine is often detected as the most abundant amino acid produced by both natural and
166 laboratory-based serpentinization (*e.g.*, H₂ + Formate = Formaldehyde ⇒ Formaldehyde +
167 NH₃ = Glycine)^{1,7,42-47} and (b) no other amino acid was consistently detectable (if glycine was
168 cell-derived, other amino acids ought to also be consistently detected).

169

170 For utilization of the putatively abiotic glycine, the Hakuba “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*” encode
171 glycine reductases (Grd; Fig. 2 and S4; Tables S2 and S3) – a unidirectional selenoprotein for
172 catabolic glycine reduction^{48,49}. Based on the genes available, this population likely specializes
173 in coupling H₂ oxidation and glycine reduction (Fig. 1b). Firstly, the genomes encode NADP-
174 linked thioredoxin reductases (NADPH + Thioredoxin_{ox} → NADP⁺ + Thioredoxin_{red}) that can
175 bridge electron transfer from H₂ oxidation (H₂ + NADP → NADPH + H⁺) to glycine reduction
176 (Glycine⁻ + Thioredoxin_{red} → Acetyl-P_i + NH₃ + Thioredoxin_{ox}). Secondly, though glycine
177 reduction is typically coupled with amino acid oxidation (*i.e.*, Stickland reaction in *Firmicutes*
178 and *Synergistetes*^{48,50}), similar metabolic couplings have been reported for some organisms
179 (*i.e.*, formate-oxidizing glycine reduction [via Grd]⁵¹ and H₂-oxidizing trimethylglycine
180 reduction [via Grd-related betaine reductase]⁵²). Thirdly, Grd is a rare catabolic enzyme, so
181 far found in organisms that specialize in amino acid (or peptide) catabolism, many of which
182 are reported to use glycine for the Stickland reaction (*e.g.*, *Peptoclostridium* of *Firmicutes* and
183 *Aminobacterium* of *Synergistetes*⁵³). Lastly, the population lacks any discernable fermentative
184 and respiratory electron disposal pathways and oxidative organotrophy (Table S2 and S3).
185 Moreover, reflecting the lack of other catabolic pathways, the Hakuba “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*”
186 MAGs display extensive genome streamlining, comparable to that of *Aurantimicrobium*^{54,55},
187 “*Ca. Pelagibacter*”⁵⁶, and *Rhodoluna*⁵⁷ (Fig. S6). Thermodynamic calculations show that H₂-
188 oxidizing glycine reduction is thermodynamically favorable *in situ* (ΔG° of -70.37 kJ per mol
189 glycine [ΔG of -85.84 in Hakuba]; Fig. S1). Further, based on the pathway identified, this
190 metabolism is >10 times more efficient in recovering energy from H₂ (1 mol ATP per mol H₂)
191 than acetogenesis utilizing H₂/CO₂ (0.075 mol ATP per mol H₂ based on the pathway
192 *Acetobacterium woodii* utilizes) or H₂/formate (0.075 mol ATP per mol H₂, assuming no
193 energy recovery associated with the formate dehydrogenase). We also detect glycine reductases
194 in The Cedars “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*”, indicating that it may also perform this metabolism (ΔG

195 of -76.87 in The Cedars, assuming $201 \mu\text{M H}_2$). Thus, we propose glycine as an overlooked
196 thermodynamically and energetically favorable electron acceptor for H_2 oxidation in
197 serpentinite-hosted systems.

198

199 Given the phylogenetic and metabolic uniqueness of these populations, we report
200 provisional taxonomic assignment to “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*” phylum. nov., “*Ca.*
201 *Thermoacetigena glycinireducens*” gen. nov., sp. nov. (HKB111 and HKB210), and “*Ca.*
202 *Psychroacetigena formicireducens*” gen. nov., sp. nov. (BS525, BS5B28, and GPS1B18) (see
203 Supplementary Results). Based on a concatenated ribosomal protein tree, this serpentinite-
204 hosted ecosystem-associated candidate phylum is closely related to a deep-branching group of
205 bacterial phyla (Fig. 1a) (e.g., *Caldiserica* [Caldisericota in GTDB phylogeny],
206 *Coprothermobacterota*, and *Dictyoglomi* [Dictyoglomota]⁵⁸), many of which have extremely
207 limited phylogenetic diversity (only 8, 1, and 2 genus-level lineages identified respectively via
208 cultivation and metagenomics [based on GTDB release 95]) and ecological distribution on
209 modern Earth. Comparative genomics shows that “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*” shares 623 core
210 functions (based on Bacteria-level COGs/NOGs predicted by eggno-mapper shared by the
211 two highest quality Hakuba and The Cedars MAGs HKB210 and BS5B28; Fig. 1c). When
212 compared with the core functions of two closest related phyla (*Caldiserica* and
213 *Coprothermobacterota*), 176 functions were unique to “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*”, including those
214 for NiFe hydrogenases (and their maturation proteins), selenocysteine utilization (essential for
215 Grd), and sodium:proton antiporter for alkaliphily. With *Coprothermobacterota*, 232 functions
216 were shared, including Grd, thioredoxin oxidoreductase (essential for electron transfer to Grd),
217 and additional proteins for NiFe hydrogenases and selenocysteine utilization, pointing towards
218 importance of H_2 metabolism and glycine reduction for these closely related phyla. More
219 importantly, among bacterial phyla in the deep-branching group, “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*”

220 represents the first lineage inhabiting hyperalkaliphilic serpentinite-hosted Hadean analogue
221 ecosystems, suggesting that these organisms may be valuable extant windows into potential
222 physiologies LUCA and/or early post-LUCA organisms may have taken (albeit with 4 billion
223 years of evolution in between; see discussion regarding Grd below).

224

225 **Widespread glycine reduction in serpentinite-hosted systems**

226 Uncultured members of *Chloroflexi* (Chloroflexota) class *Dehalococcoidia* inhabiting The
227 Cedars and *Firmicutes* (Firmicutes_D) class SRB2 in Hakuba and The Cedars also possess
228 glycine reductases (Table S3). In addition, these populations encode hydrogenases and formate
229 dehydrogenases, suggesting that they may also link H₂ and formate metabolism to glycine
230 reduction. Moreover, we further discover closely related glycine reductases in other studied
231 serpentinite-hosted systems (47~94% amino acid similarity in Tablelands, Voltri Massif, and
232 Coast Range Ophiolite) ^{18,19,24}. Phylogenetic analysis of the glycine-binding "protein B"
233 subunit GrdB reveals close evolutionary relationships between glycine reductases from
234 distant/remote sites (Fig. 2, S4, and S5). (Tablelands spring glycine reductase sequences were
235 not included in the analysis as they were only detected in the unassembled metagenomic reads;
236 4460690.3; 69.7~82.2% similarity to Hakuba SRB2). Overall, "*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*",
237 *Dehalococcoidia*, and SRB2 glycine reductases are all detected in at least two out of the seven
238 metagenomically investigated systems despite the diverse environmental conditions (*e.g.*,
239 temperature), highlighting the potential importance of glycine metabolism by these clades in
240 serpentinite-hosted systems. We suspect that glycine reduction may be a valuable catabolic
241 strategy as the pathway requires few genes/proteins (a hydrogenase, Grd, acetate kinase, and
242 thioredoxin oxidoreductase) and conveniently provides acetate, ammonia, and ATP as basic
243 forms of carbon, nitrogen, and energy.

244

245 Comparison of the topology of the GrdB (Fig. 2, S4, and S5) and ribosomal protein (Fig.
246 1a) trees hints towards vertical transfer of GrdB dating back to one of the deepest divisions in
247 the bacterial domain. Given the ecosystem specificity and deep phylogeny of the newly
248 discovered phylum and Grd, catabolic glycine reduction may be a relatively ancient
249 metabolism viable in serpentinization-related habitats, rapidly lost due to its low utility in
250 modern ecosystems (*e.g.*, no severe nutrient/electron acceptor limitation and no excess glycine
251 via abiotic generation), but repurposed by some anaerobes for the fermentative Stickland
252 reaction in organic-rich ecosystems (*e.g.*, faeces and biodigesters) where excess amino acids
253 are available but no favorable electron acceptors are accessible (*i.e.*, anaerobic). We identified
254 the first archaeal GRD (in Miscellaneous Crenarchaeota Group [MCG] or *Ca.* Bathyarchaeota
255 member BA-1; Fig. 2, S4, and S5), but phylogenetic analysis shows that the gene was gained
256 through horizontal transfer and whether this gene truly belongs to this clade remains to be
257 verified given that the source is a metagenome-assembled genome. Thus, the currently
258 available data suggests that Grd (and catabolic glycine reduction) is an ancient bacterial
259 innovation (*i.e.*, originated in *Bacteria*) developed post-LUCA and largely exclusive to the
260 domain *Bacteria*. Further investigation of Hadean analogues is necessary to verify the history
261 of Grd (still unclear based on Bayesian inference of GrdB phylogeny; Fig. S5), uncover other
262 basal Grd and explore whether glycine reduction (or Grd family proteins) can be dated back
263 further (more ancient *Bacteria* or LUCA; *i.e.*, necessary to find more basal bacterial and/or
264 archaeal homologs).

265

266 **Other characteristics of putative indigenous homoacetogens**

267 In contrast with members of “*Ca.* Lithoacetigenota”, several other putative homoacetogenic
268 populations encode the complete Wood-Ljungdahl pathway (Table S2 and S3), indicating that
269 other forms of acetogenesis may also be viable *in situ*. One putative homoacetogen in The

270 Cedars, NPL-UPA2, lacks hydrogenases but encodes formate dehydrogenases. Although the
271 NPL-UPA2 population cannot perform H₂/formate-driven acetogenesis, it may couple formate
272 oxidation with formate-reducing acetogenesis – another thermodynamically viable metabolism
273 (ΔG of -50.90 kJ per mol acetate in The Cedars; Fig. 1b). The pathway uses CO₂ as a substrate
274 but has lower CO₂ consumption compared to H₂/CO₂ homoacetogenesis and can produce
275 intracellular CO₂ from formate. In Hakuba, an *Actinobacteria* population affiliated with the
276 uncultured class UBA1414 (MAG HKB206) encodes hydrogenases and a complete Wood-
277 Ljungdahl pathway (Table S3) and, thus, may be capable of H₂/formate or the above formate-
278 disproportionating acetogenesis (Fig. 1b). Indeed, the UBA1414 population was enriched in
279 Hakuba-derived cultures aiming to enrich acetogens using the H₂ generated by the metallic
280 iron–water reaction ⁵⁹ (Fig. S7). Many populations encoding a complete Wood-Ljungdahl
281 pathway possess monomeric CO dehydrogenases (CooS unassociated with CODH/ACS
282 subunits; NPL-UPA2, *Actinobacteria*, *Syntrophomonadaceae* [Hakuba and The Cedars], and
283 *Dehalococcoidia* [The Cedars]; Table S2). Although CO is below the detection limit in Hakuba
284 (personal communication with permission from Dr. Konomi Suda), another study shows that
285 CO metabolism takes place in an actively serpentinizing system with no detectable CO ⁶⁰.
286 Given that CO is a known product of serpentinization ^{24,60}, it may be an important substrate for
287 thermodynamically favorable acetogenesis *in situ*. However, further investigation is necessary
288 to verify this.

289

290 Another interesting adaptation observed for all putative homoacetogens detected in Hakuba
291 and The Cedars was possession of an unusual CODH/ACS complex. Although *Bacteria* and
292 *Archaea* are known to encode structurally distinct forms of CODH/ACS (designated as Acs
293 and Cdh respectively for this study), all studied Hakuba/The Cedars putative homoacetogens
294 encode genes for a hybrid CODH/ACS that integrate archaeal subunits for the CO

295 dehydrogenase (AcsA replaced with CdhAB) and acetyl-CoA synthase (AcsB replaced with
296 CdhC) and bacterial subunits for the corrinoid protein and methyltransferase components
297 (AcsCDE) (Table S2). The *Firmicutes* lineages also additionally encode the conventional
298 bacterial AcsABCDE. Given that all of the identified putative homoacetogens encode this
299 peculiar hybrid complex, we suspect that such CODH/ACS's may have features that adapted
300 to the high-pH low-CO₂ conditions (*e.g.*, high affinity for CO₂ and/or CO). In agreement, a
301 similar hybrid CODH/ACS has also been found in "*Ca. Desulforudis audaxviator*" inhabiting
302 an alkaline (pH 9.3) deep subsurface environment with a low CO₂ concentration (below
303 detection limit ^{61,62}).

304

305 **Implications for primordial biology**

306 Based on one of the most plausible theories of the origin of life, LUCA inhabited alkaline
307 geochemically active sites ⁶³, like serpentinite-hosted systems widespread across Earth during
308 the Hadean to early Archean. Although reconstruction of the LUCA's physiology is
309 challenging ⁶⁴, energy acquisition through H₂-oxidation-driven CO₂ reduction to acetyl-CoA
310 (*i.e.*, H₂/CO₂ homoacetogenesis) is theorized to be a core feature of primordial metabolism ¹¹.
311 However, the free energy yield of such homoacetogenesis decreases with CO₂ limitation and
312 increasing temperature (Fig. S2a), suggesting that LUCA and/or early post-LUCA organisms
313 may have encountered CO₂-related thermodynamic challenges. Another study also points out
314 that CO₂ speciation towards a less bioavailable form (carbonate) under hyperalkaline pH may
315 have been a potential problem for primordial life ⁶⁵. At the interface of the alkaline fluids and
316 seawater where life is thought to have originated ^{7,15-17}, H₂ and CO₂ from the respective fluids
317 could have come in contact and allow CO₂-dependent H₂ utilization; however, CO₂-dependent
318 metabolism would have become thermodynamically, and perhaps kinetically ⁶⁶, challenging as
319 early post-LUCA organisms ventured away from the interface and deeper into serpentinite-

320 hosted systems. Through the investigation of CO₂-poor Hadean analogues, we discover a novel
321 Hadean analogue-exclusive alkaliphilic phylum that belongs to a deep-branching group of
322 bacterial phyla and possesses unconventional thermodynamically favorable less CO₂-
323 dependent H₂-oxidizing metabolic strategies (*e.g.*, coupled with formate or glycine reduction)
324 that may be compelling candidates for early H₂-dependent lithotrophy.

325

326 The thermodynamic and energetic favorability of catabolic H₂-oxidizing glycine reduction
327 mediated by GRD makes it a competitive metabolism for primordial *Bacteria*. Catabolic H₂-
328 utilizing glycine reduction also draws remarkable parallels with homoacetogenesis and
329 ancestral archaeal metabolism. Like homoacetogenesis, glycine reduction has a rare feature
330 thought to be essential for primordial metabolism – the ability to reductively synthesize acyl-
331 phosphate for substrate-level phosphorylation in the cytosol⁶⁷⁻⁷⁰ – indicating high utility for
332 ancient organisms. Glycine reduction also shares features with a metabolism recently proposed
333 to be ancestral in *Archaea* – H₂-oxidizing methyl-reducing methanogenesis^{71,72}. Both are
334 (nearly) domain-exclusive, potentially primordial, CO₂-independent, and energetically more
335 efficient than H₂/CO₂-driven acetogenesis (in terms of energy recovered per mol H₂). Moreover,
336 both utilize reduced serpentinization-derived carbon compounds, a thiol/disulfide electron
337 carrier as an electron donor, and NiFe hydrogenases as an upstream electron source (Fig. 3). It
338 is tempting to speculate that early post-LUCA *Bacteria* and *Archaea* both integrated geogenic
339 thermodynamically favorable electron acceptors to adapt to thrive under the extreme conditions
340 and interestingly occupied non-competing niches by using different acceptors (glycine and
341 methyl compounds respectively) and energy acquisition strategies (substrate-level
342 phosphorylation and proton motive force respectively), whereby allowing the two to co-exist
343 with little competition. If true, we may begin to speculate that, as *Bacteria* and *Archaea* weaned
344 themselves from serpentinite-hosted systems and explored the non-alkaline habitats of Earth,

345 GRD and MCR were connected to the methyl branch of the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway and
346 repurposed to facilitate CO₂ fixation⁷³ and CO₂-reducing methanogenesis respectively, both
347 CO₂-dependent pathways relevant today. However, further investigations are necessary to
348 verify because, unlike MCR, information on GRD is limited: glycine-mediated autotrophy was
349 only discovered recently, organisms still using GRD for catabolic glycine reduction are low in
350 diversity on modern Earth given the abundant availability of other electron acceptors, and the
351 geobiology of glycine-generating serpentinite-hosted systems have not been studied
352 extensively.

353

354 As was the case for MCR, metagenomic exploration of the uncharted rare biosphere
355 provided key data for genes and core pathways that provide a glimpse into how primordial life
356 or early bacteria may have proliferated (though we must still take caution in interpretation
357 given the uncertainty associated with metagenomics). The thermodynamic (i.e., more favorable
358 than the CO₂-reducing counterpart) and evolutionary (i.e., ancestral) parallels between archaeal
359 methyl-reducing and bacterial glycine-reducing H₂-dependent lithotrophy warrant
360 investigation of whether these metabolisms did indeed play a role in the formation or fixation
361 of the two domains. Further studies on the evolutionary origin, antiquity, and history of glycine
362 reduction will shed light on primordial way of life as well as bacterial/prokaryotic
363 diversification.

364

365 **Author contribution**

366 MKN and RN designed and performed metagenomic, phylogenetic, and thermodynamic
367 analyses, interpreted the data, and wrote the manuscript. ST performed sampling, DNA
368 extraction, and cultivation. HM, AT, and KK performed metagenomic sequencing and
369 metagenomic analysis. AI performed chemical measurements. SS supported chemical data

370 collection. HT and YK designed the project, supervised sampling and cultivation, and
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372

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380

381 **Competing interests**

382 The authors declare no competing interests.

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660 **Figures**

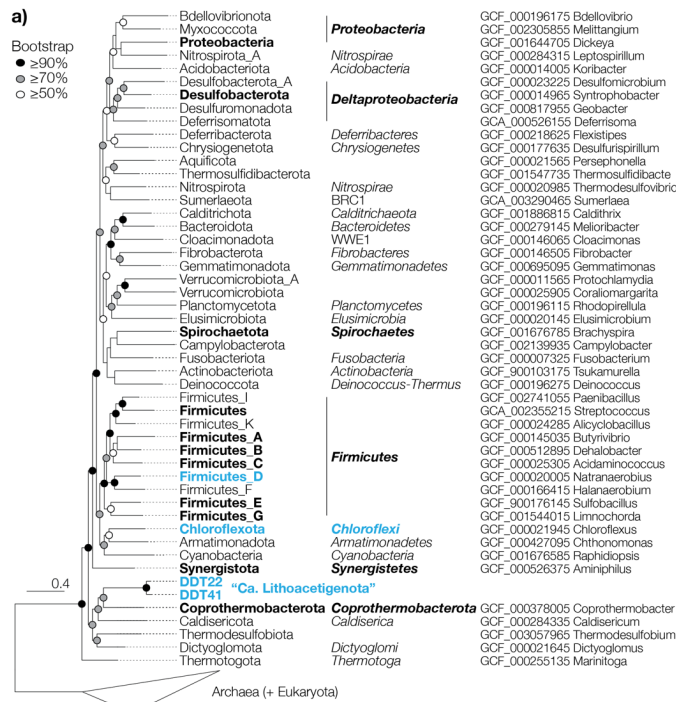
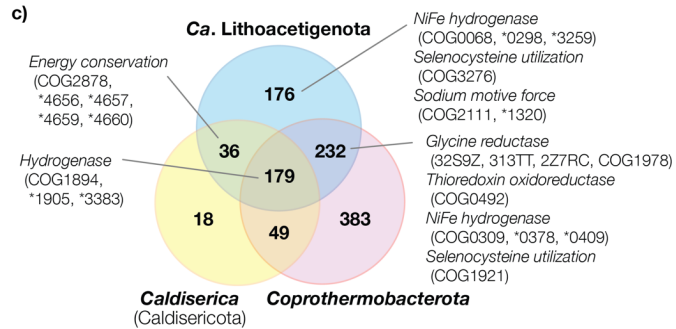
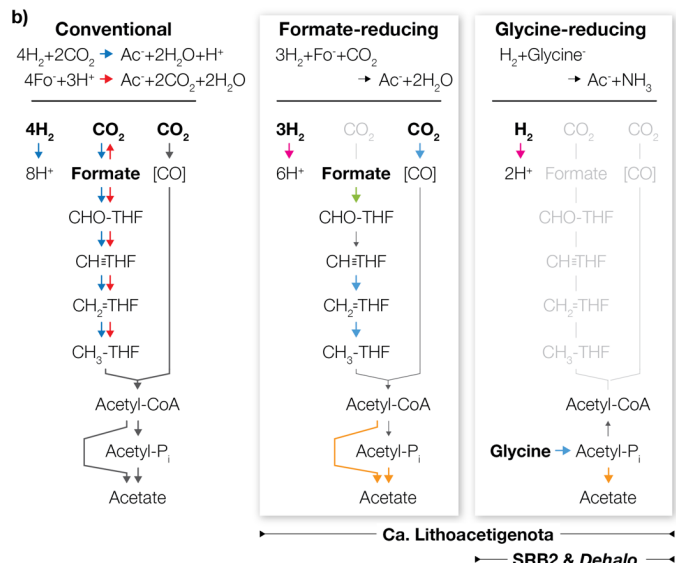


Figure 1. “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*” phylogeny, lithotrophic acetate generation pathways, and comparative genomics with neighboring phyla. (a) A maximum likelihood tree was calculated using PhyML using the LG model, 4 gamma categories, and 100 bootstrap replicates from a concatenated alignment of universally conserved ribosomal protein sequences from representative genomes of individual phyla aligned with MAFFT (default parameters) and trimmed with trimAl prior to concatenation. Bootstrap values were recalculated using BOOSTER. Phyla that possess glycine reductases (black+bolded) and phyla for which glycine reductases were detected in serpentinite-hosted systems are indicated (blue+bolded). Phylum names are shown for both NCBI taxonomy (italicized) and GTDB classification. (b) Metabolic pathways potentially adapted to the CO₂-limited hyperalkaline conditions encoded by “*Ca. Lithoacetigenota*” members and others: formate- and glycine-reducing acetate generation. Arrow colors indicate oxidative (pink), reductive (blue), ATP-yielding (orange), and ATP-consuming (green) steps. (c) Venn diagram of COGs/NOGs (as predicted by eggno-mapper) fully conserved across all members of each phylum (genomes included in GTDB release 95 with completeness ≥85% and contamination ≤5%). COGs/NOGs related to lithotrophy and alkaliphily are highlighted. * “COG” abbreviated.



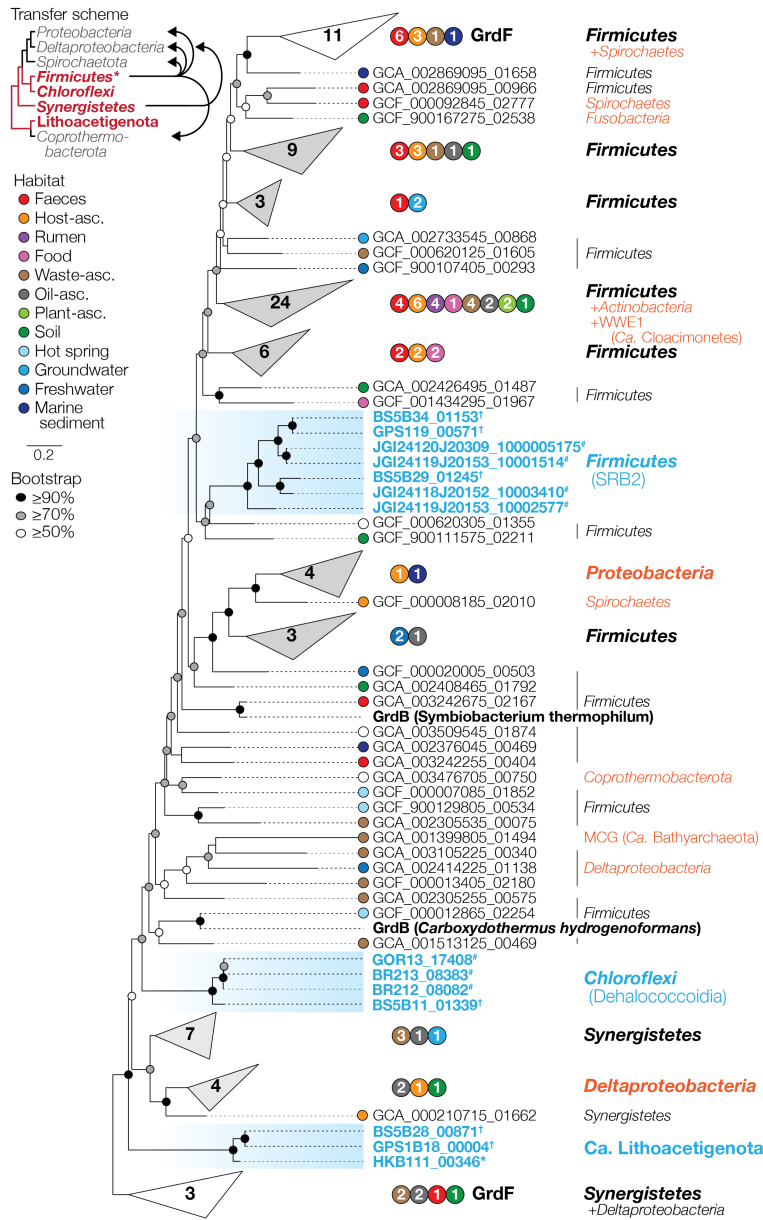
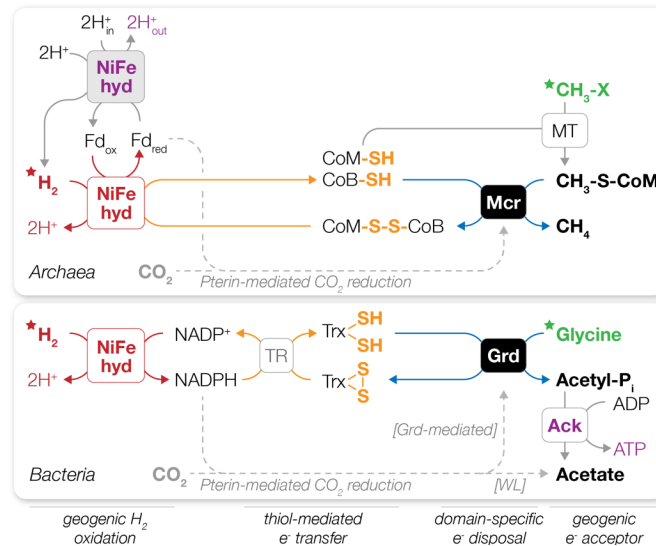


Figure 2. Phylogeny of serpentinite-hosted microbiome glycine reductase subunit GrdB homologs (Hakuba Happo hot spring*, The Cedars springs†, and other serpentinite-hosted system metagenomes#) and a brief scheme for evolutionary history of Grd. COG1978 homologs were collected from the representative species genomes in GTDB, filtered using a GrdB motif conserved across members of phyla known to perform glycine-reducing Stickland reaction and a GrdF motif conserved across sequences that form a distinct cluster around the biochemically characterized *Peptoclostridium acidaminophilum* sarcosine reductase subunit GrdF (see Methods and Supplementary Fig. S4), and clustered with 75% amino acid sequence similarity using CD-HIT (-c 0.75). A maximum likelihood tree was calculated as described in Fig. 1. For each sequence, the original habitat the isolate or MAG was obtained from is shown (white circle = unknown). Large sequence clusters were grouped (number of representative

736 sequences included are shown). Note that the outgroup is a cluster of uncharacterized
 737 *Synergistetes* and *Deltaproteobacteria* sequences that was inferred to function as GrdF given
 738 that it shares the motif found in the *Firmicutes* GrdF. Taxa thought to have gained GrdB
 739 through horizontal transfer are shown in orange. See Supplementary Fig. S4 for complete tree.
 740 In the brief scheme of Grd evolution, the cladogram topology is based on Fig. 1a. Vertical
 741 transfer (red lines in cladogram) and horizontal transfer (black arrows) inferred from tree
 742 structures are shown. Phyla that may have acquired Grd vertically (red) and horizontally (gray)
 743 are indicated. GTDB phyla belonging to *Firmicutes* were grouped together.
 744



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746

747 **Figure 3.** Proposed non-CO₂-reducing metabolic strategies of ancestral archaea and bacteria
 748 inhabiting serpentinite-hosted systems. Geogenic carbon compounds, in particular methyl
 749 groups for archaea and glycine for bacteria (marked by a green star), can serve as electron
 750 acceptors for the oxidation of geogenic H₂ (red star). The bacterial glycine-reducing H₂-
 751 dependent lithotrophy is strategically similar to the ancestral archaeal methyl-reducing
 752 methanogenesis recently suggested^{71,72}. Both reactions can be mediated by nickel-iron [NiFe]
 753 hydrogenase H₂ oxidation (red) and reduction of thiol/disulfide electron carriers (orange) and
 754 forgo pterin-mediated CO₂ reduction (gray dotted line). Energy recovery (purple) is contrasting
 755 between the two metabolisms: archaea employing proton motive force (membrane-bound
 756 proteins gray) and bacteria substrate level phosphorylation. Reactions are not balanced with
 757 H⁺, H₂O, and P_i. The pathways shown are based on “*Ca. Methanofastidiosum*”⁷⁴ and “*Ca.*
 758 *Thermolithoacetigena glycinireducens*”. NiFe hyd, NiFe hydrogenase; Fd, ferredoxin; CoM-
 759 SH, coenzyme M thiol; CoB-SH, coenzyme B thiol; CoM-S-S-CoB, heterodisulfide of
 760 coenzyme M and coenzyme B; Mcr, methyl-coenzyme M reductase; CH₃-X, methyl
 761 compounds; MT, methyltransferase; CH₃-S-CoM, methyl-coenzyme M; TR, thioredoxin
 762 reductase; Trx-(SH)₂, thioredoxin dithiol; Trx-S₂, thioredoxin disulfide; Grd, glycine reductase;
 763 acetyl-P_i, acetyl-phosphate; Ack, acetate kinase.

764 **Methods**

765 *Sampling site and sample collection*

766 The Hakuba Happo samples for geochemical and microbiological analysis were artificially
767 pumped from a drilling well (700 m in depth), which was previously described and named
768 Happo #3 (36° 42' N 137° 48' E ²⁸). For microbiological analysis, two spring water samples
769 were taken at different time points, 233 L taken in July 2016 (labelled HKB701) and 720 L
770 taken in October 2016 (labelled HKB702), respectively. To collect cells, samples were filtered
771 through a 0.1- μ m Omnipore™ membrane filter (Merck Millipore) using a 90 mm diameter
772 stainless-steel filter holder (Merck Millipore) attached to FDA Viton® tubing (Masterflex) at a
773 sampling site. After filtration, filters were immediately transferred to sterile tubes and frozen
774 in a dry ice-ethanol bath, transported in dry ice, and stored at -80°C until DNA extraction. For
775 NH_3 and amino acid analysis, water samples were collected in October 2017, filtered as
776 described above, transferred to dry-heat-sterilized nitrogen-purged 100-ml glass vials, and
777 stored at 4°C .

778

779 *Geochemical analysis*

780 The water temperature of hot spring water was measured using a thermometer (CT-430WP,
781 Custom Ltd.) at a site. The pH, oxidation reduction potential (ORP), electrical conductivity
782 (EC), and dissolved oxygen (DO) level were determined with portable devices, including a pH
783 meter (D-23, Horiba), an ORP meter (RM-30P, TOA-DKK), an EC meter (CM-31P, TOA-
784 DKK), and a DO meter (DO-31P, TOA-DKK), correspondingly. The ion concentrations of
785 Na^+ , K^+ , Ca^{2+} , and NO_3^- were determined using portable sensors (LAQUAtwin™ series,
786 Horiba). The *in situ* NH_3 concentration was determined by measuring aqueous NH_4^+ and
787 gaseous NH_3 (purged with N_2 gas, gas dissolved into deionized water, and measured dissolved
788 NH_4^+) of a sample stored as described above using high-performance liquid chromatography

789 (HPLC; Prominence; Shimadzu), then adding the two together. For amino acid quantification,
790 the sample was concentrated under a stream of nitrogen gas and then analyzed following
791 Shimadzu protocol no. L323 (<https://www.ssi.shimadzu.com/products/literature/lc/L323.pdf>)
792 using HPLC with minor modifications (fluorescence detector RF-20AXs; sodium hypochlorite
793 solution was not added for detection of proline). The Cedars spring concentrations of formate
794 and acetate were determined by Isotope-Ratio-Monitoring Liquid Chromatography Mass
795 Spectrometry (IRM-LCMS); Thermo- Finnigan Delta Plus XP isotope-ratio mass spectrometer
796 connected to LC IsoLink, as described by Heuer et al. ⁷⁵ and Ijiri et al. ⁷⁶.

797

798 *Thermodynamic calculations*

799 The Hakuba and Cedars calculations Gibbs free energy yield (ΔG) are based on ΔG°_f and ΔH°_f
800 values at 298 K, respective *pH* (10.8 and 11.9), and adjustment to the *in situ* temperatures (48
801 and 17°C) through the Gibbs-Helmholtz equation ⁷⁷. The effect of pressure was approximated
802 as described by Wang *et al* ⁷⁸. For both Hakuba and The Cedars calculations, the glycine
803 concentration (5.4 nM) was based on measurements from Hakuba. Formate, acetate, and NH₃
804 concentrations were based on respective measurements from Hakuba (8 μ M formate, 4 μ M
805 acetate, and 2.9 μ M NH₃) and The Cedars (6.9 μ M formate [average of 6.777 and 7.079 μ M
806 measured on September 2017], 69.3 μ M acetate [average of 69.601 and 68.967 μ M measured
807 on September 2017], and 1 μ M NH₃ [below detection limit]). For Hakuba, the H₂ concentration
808 measured in Hakuba drilling well #3 (DNA source) was used (201 μ M H₂). For The Cedars,
809 the highest detected H₂ concentration in Hakuba was used (664 μ M H₂ in drilling well #1).

810

811 *Metagenome sequencing, assembly and binning*

812 The filter was aseptically cut into 16 equal pieces using sterilized tweezers, and each piece was
813 placed in the bead-beating tube (Lysing Matrix E tube; MP Biomedicals). After DNA

814 extraction following the bead-beating method described previously ⁷⁹, the 16 DNA samples
815 were mixed and then stored at -80°C until used. Sequence libraries were prepared with Nextera
816 XT DNA Library Preparation kit (Illumina) with a genomic DNA fragment size ranging from
817 200 to 2,000 bp. These libraries sequenced on HiSeq2500 sequencing platform (Illumina) with
818 HiSeq Rapid SBS kit v2 (Illumina), generating paired-end reads up to 250 bp. The generated
819 sequences were trimmed using Trimmomatic v0.33 ⁸⁰ with a quality cutoff of 30, sliding
820 window of 6 bp, and minimum length cutoff of 78 bp. The trimmed sequences were assembled
821 using SPAdes v3.10.1 ⁸¹ with the “-meta” option and k-mer values of 21, 31, 41, 53, 65, and
822 77. The assembled contigs were binned using MaxBin2.2.1 ^{82,83}. The completeness and
823 contamination of each bin was checked using CheckM ⁸⁴. These bins were manually curated
824 as described in our metagenomics study ⁴⁰. Genes were then annotated using Prokka v1.12 ⁸⁵
825 and eggno-mapper ⁸⁶. For interpretation and comparison of microbial metabolism, bin
826 genomes were also constructed from public metagenomic data generated from The Cedars ²⁰
827 (trimmed with sliding window of 6, quality cutoff of 20, and minimum length of 68 bp through
828 Trimmomatic v0.33, normalized using BBMap 36.99 ([https://jgi.doe.gov/data-and-](https://jgi.doe.gov/data-and-tools/bbtools/)
829 [tools/bbtools/](https://jgi.doe.gov/data-and-tools/bbtools/)) with target and minimum coverages of 40 and 2, assembled using SPAdes
830 v3.10.1 with the “-meta” option and k-mer values of 21, 33, 45, 55, 67, and binned through
831 MaxBin2.2.1) and were then analyzed collectively.

832

833 *Phylogenomic and phylogenetic analysis*

834 For tree construction, sequences were aligned with MAFFT ⁸⁷ v7.453 (default parameters) and
835 trimmed using trimAl ⁸⁸ v1.2rev59 (-gt 0.9). For ribosomal protein trees, a concatenated
836 alignment of universally conserved ribosomal proteins ⁸⁹ was used. Protein sequences were
837 retrieved by downloading the GTDB ⁹⁰ database and predicting protein sequences using Prokka
838 ⁸⁵ 1.14 (--kingdom Bacteria/Archaea --rnammer --addgenes --mincontiglen 200). Maximum

839 likelihood trees were calculated using PhyML⁹¹ v3.3.20190909 using the LG⁹² model and 100
840 bootstrap replicates (-b 100 -d aa -m LG -v e). Bootstrap values were recalculated using
841 BOOSTER⁹³. Sequence clustering was performing through CD-HIT⁹⁴ v4.8.1. For glycine
842 reductase GrdB and sarcosine reductase GrdF, conserved motifs were predicted by first
843 identifying fully conserved residues in the sequence cluster including the biochemically
844 characterized *Peptoclostridium acidaminophilum* GrdF (see Supplementary Fig. S4;
845 YxNx(6)GGE x(34,38) CGD x(27,35) GPxF[NF]AGRYG x(150,181)
846 IHGGYDRx(6)[IP]x(4)PxD x(19,20) TTGTGTx(7)F x(12) [HILV]), then identifying fully
847 conserved residues in the phylogenetic clusters (see Supplementary Fig. S4) that include GrdB
848 from phyla known to perform the Stickland reaction (*Firmicutes*, *Spirochaetes*, and
849 *Synergistetes*) subtracting any sequences clusters that contain the GrdF motif above
850 (YxNx(6)GGE x(34,38) CGD x(27,35) GPxF[NF]AGRYG x(157,178) AHGGxD[QTAP] x(8)
851 RV[IL]PxD x(19,20) TxGNxTxV). Bayesian trees were calculated using Phylobayes (MPI)
852 v1.8 using the LG model with 4 gamma categories (-lg -ncat 1 -dgam 4) with four chains (chain
853 length 10000; -x 1 10000) of which three chains that converged (maxdiff=0.1859,
854 meandiff=0.014) were used for determination of a consensus tree with a burn-in of 1000 (nodes
855 with posterior probability less than 0.8 were collapsed; bpcomp -c 0.8 -x 1000 1).

856

857 *Data availability*

858 The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available in the
859 National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) under BioProject PRJNA453100 and
860 BioSamples SAMN08978938-SAMN08978962.