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1 Mechanisms for Electron Uptake by *Methanosarcina acetivorans* During Direct  
2 Interspecies Electron Transfer

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20 Running title: Methanogen outer-surface cytochrome facilitates DIET

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28 **Abstract**

29 Direct interspecies electron transfer (DIET) between bacteria and methanogenic archaea  
30 appears to be an important syntrophy in both natural and engineered methanogenic  
31 environments. However, the electrical connections on the outer surface of methanogens  
32 and the subsequent processing of electrons for carbon dioxide reduction to methane are  
33 poorly understood. Here we report that the genetically tractable methanogen  
34 *Methanosarcina acetivorans* can grow via DIET in co-culture with *Geobacter*  
35 *metallireducens* serving as the electron-donating partner. Comparison of gene expression  
36 patterns in *M. acetivorans* grown in co-culture versus pure culture growth on acetate  
37 revealed that transcripts for the outer-surface, multi-heme, *c*-type cytochrome MmcA  
38 were higher during DIET-based growth. Deletion of *mmcA* inhibited DIET. The high  
39 aromatic amino acid content of *M. acetivorans* archaeellins suggests that they might  
40 assemble into electrically conductive archaeella. A mutant that could not express archaeella  
41 was deficient in DIET. However, this mutant grew in DIET-based co-culture as well as  
42 the archaeella-expressing parental strain in the presence of granular activated carbon,  
43 which was previously shown to serve as a substitute for electrically conductive pili as a  
44 conduit for long-range interspecies electron transfer in other DIET-based co-cultures.  
45 Transcriptomic data suggesting that the membrane-bound Rnf, Fpo, and HdrED  
46 complexes also play a role in DIET were incorporated into a charge-balanced model  
47 illustrating how electrons entering the cell through MmcA can yield energy to support  
48 growth from carbon dioxide reduction. The results are the first genetics-based functional  
49 demonstration of likely outer-surface electrical contacts for DIET in a methanogen.

50

51 **Importance**

52 The conversion of organic matter to methane plays an important role in the global carbon  
53 cycle and is an effective strategy for converting wastes to a useful biofuel. The reduction  
54 of carbon dioxide to methane accounts for approximately a third of the methane produced  
55 in anaerobic soils and sediments as well as waste digesters. Potential electron donors for  
56 carbon dioxide reduction are H<sub>2</sub> or electrons derived from direct interspecies electron  
57 transfer (DIET) between bacteria and methanogens. Elucidating the relative importance  
58 of these electron donors has been difficult due to a lack of information on the electrical  
59 connects on the outer surface of methanogens and how they process the electrons  
60 received from DIET. Transcriptomic patterns and gene deletion phenotypes reported here  
61 provide insight into how a group of *Methanosarcina* that play an important role in  
62 methane production in soils and sediments participate in DIET.

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## **Introduction**

66 The pathways for carbon and electron flux in methanogenic environments are of interest  
67 because of the biogeochemical significance of methane production in diverse soils and  
68 sediments as well as the importance of anaerobic digestion as a bioenergy strategy (1, 2).  
69 Diverse communities of bacteria convert complex organic matter primarily to acetate and  
70 carbon dioxide that are then converted by methanogenic archaea to methane. Low-  
71 potential electrons derived from the oxidation of organic compounds to acetate and  
72 carbon dioxide are delivered from the bacterial community to methanogens to provide the  
73 necessary reducing power for the reduction of carbon dioxide to methane.

74 Two fundamentally different mechanisms for this interspecies electron transfer  
75 are known. In direct interspecies electron transfer (DIET), electron-donating microbes

76 and methanogens establish direct electrical connections that enable electron transfer from  
77 the electron-donating partner to the methanogen to support carbon dioxide reduction (2-  
78 4). In interspecies H<sub>2</sub> transfer, the electron-donating partner transfers electrons to protons,  
79 generating H<sub>2</sub>, which functions as a diffusible electron carrier to H<sub>2</sub>-utilizing  
80 methanogens, which oxidize the H<sub>2</sub> to harvest electrons for carbon dioxide reduction (5-  
81 7). Formate can also serve as a substitute for H<sub>2</sub> (6, 8, 9).

82         The relative importance of DIET and interspecies H<sub>2</sub>/formate transfer in  
83 methanogenic soils/sediments or most anaerobic digesters is unknown. Measurements of  
84 H<sub>2</sub> turnover rates in methanogenic soils, sediments, and anaerobic digesters accounted for  
85 less than 10% of the electron flux required for the observed rates of carbon dioxide  
86 reduction to methane (10-12), suggesting that H<sub>2</sub> exchange was not the primary route for  
87 interspecies electron transfer (13). Those results do not rule out interspecies formate  
88 exchange, but rapid exchange between formate and H<sub>2</sub>/carbon dioxide in methanogenic  
89 environments prevents accurate assessment of formate fluxes (14). The relatively low  
90 reported rates of H<sub>2</sub> turnover are consistent with DIET, but a method for directly  
91 measuring the electron fluxes between cells in complex environments has not yet been  
92 developed.

93         An alternative strategy for elucidating the significance of interspecies H<sub>2</sub>/formate  
94 transfer and DIET might be to extrapolate from the composition of the microbial  
95 community and transcriptional or proteomic data (15-17). For example, *in situ* gene  
96 expression patterns of *Geobacter* and *Methanothrix* species, which were abundant in  
97 methanogenic rice paddy soils, suggested that they were participating in DIET (17). The  
98 likely participation of paddy-soil *Geobacter* species in DIET could be surmised from

99 high levels of expression for electrically conductive pili (e-pili) and a *c*-type cytochrome  
100 known to be important for DIET. High expression of genes for carbon dioxide reduction  
101 in *Methanotherix* species, which are unable to use H<sub>2</sub> or formate as electron donors,  
102 indicated that *Methanotherix* species were one of the electron-accepting partners for DIET.  
103 However, such analyses are far from comprehensive, in part because the full diversity of  
104 microbes that can participate in DIET is poorly understood. New genera of bacteria and  
105 methanogens capable of DIET are increasingly being identified (18-20). Furthermore,  
106 gene expression patterns diagnostic for ongoing DIET need to be elucidated for  
107 microorganisms, such as *Syntrophus* (18) and some *Methanosarcina* species (16, 19, 21-  
108 23) that have the physiological flexibility to participate in either DIET or interspecies  
109 H<sub>2</sub>/formate transfer.

110 Comparative transcriptomic analysis of *M. barkeri* growing via DIET versus  
111 interspecies H<sub>2</sub> transfer, revealed potential routes for intracellular electron flux for DIET  
112 that employ protein complexes and electron carriers that are also important for the  
113 conversion of carbon dioxide to methane with H<sub>2</sub> as the electron donor (21). Outer-  
114 surface electrical contacts for DIET were not definitively identified. *M. barkeri* lacks  
115 multi-heme outer-surface *c*-type cytochromes (24) that are important electrical contacts  
116 for extracellular electron exchange in some bacteria and archaea (13). *M. mazei*, which  
117 like *M. barkeri*, can reduce carbon dioxide with electrons derived from H<sub>2</sub> or DIET, has a  
118 gene for a five-heme, *c*-type cytochrome, but deletion of the cytochrome gene did not  
119 negatively impact DIET (19).

120 *M. barkeri* and *M. mazei* are physiologically classified as Type I *Methanosarcina*  
121 (22). Key physiological characteristics of Type I *Methanosarcina* are the ability to use H<sub>2</sub>

122 as an electron donor for carbon dioxide reduction as well as for energy conservation from  
123 the conversion of acetate to methane via intracellular H<sub>2</sub> cycling. Although Type I  
124 *Methanosarcina* can serve as the electron-accepting partner for DIET, they are typically  
125 most abundant in high energy environments with relatively fast rates of organic carbon  
126 turnover in which H<sub>2</sub> is more likely to be an intermediate in interspecies electron transfer  
127 (22).

128 In contrast, Type II *Methanosarcina* predominate in more stable, steady-state  
129 environments with slower rates of organic matter metabolism likely to favor DIET (22).  
130 Key physiological characteristics of Type II *Methanosarcina* include the inability to use  
131 H<sub>2</sub> as an electron donor, energy conservation during acetate metabolism via an Rnf  
132 complex, and the presence of an outer-surface multi-heme *c*-type cytochrome that is  
133 important for electron transfer to extracellular electron acceptors (22). The inability of  
134 Type II *Methanosarcina* to utilize H<sub>2</sub> or formate as an electron donor for carbon dioxide  
135 reduction, but to participate in DIET (22) is expected to simplify the study of their routes  
136 for electron flux during DIET.

137 In order to better understand DIET mechanisms in Type II *Methanosarcina*, we  
138 investigated DIET in *M. acetivorans*. *M. acetivorans* is the most well-studied Type II  
139 *Methanosarcina* and is genetically tractable (25-28). Transcriptomic and gene deletion  
140 studies (29) demonstrated that its multi-heme outer-surface *c*-type cytochrome MmcA is  
141 important for extracellular electron transfer to the humic substances analogue  
142 anthraquinone-2,6-disulfonate (AQDS). Here we report that *M. acetivorans* can function  
143 as the electron-accepting partner for DIET and provide insights into mechanisms for  
144 electron uptake and energy conservation during DIET-based growth.

## 145 **Results and Discussion**

### 146 ***Methanosarcina acetivorans* can participate in DIET**

147 Co-cultures of *M. acetivorans* and *G. metallireducens* metabolized ethanol to  
148 methane. As previously observed with co-cultures of *G. metallireducens* and other  
149 electron-accepting partners (16, 30, 31), an adaption period of 38-45 days was required  
150 for substantial methane to be produced in the initial co-culture. However, with  
151 subsequent transfer, ethanol was converted to methane without a substantial lag (Figure  
152 1).

153 After four transfers of the co-culture, the methane yield was 1.1 mol CH<sub>4</sub>/mol  
154 ethanol. Stoichiometric conversion of ethanol to methane yields 1.5 moles of methane,  
155 but a portion of the carbon and electrons is required for biomass production. The methane  
156 yield in the *G. metallireducens*/*M. acetivorans* co-culture falls within the range of 0.91  
157 mol CH<sub>4</sub>/mol ethanol to 1.31 mol CH<sub>4</sub>/mol ethanol yields which were obtained when *G.*  
158 *metallireducens* was the electron donating partner for co-cultures grown with other  
159 acetotrophic methanogens, such as *Methanotherix harundinacea*, *M. barkeri*, *M. mazei*, *M.*  
160 *vacuolata*, *M. horonobensis*, and *M. subterranea* (16, 19, 22, 23, 31).

161 Genes for enzymes specific to the carbon dioxide reduction pathway were more  
162 highly expressed in *M. acetivorans* growing in co-culture with *G. metallireducens* versus  
163 cells growing in pure culture on acetate (Figure 2, Supplementary Table S1a). This result  
164 is in accordance with the fact that carbon dioxide reduction is required to consume the  
165 electrons released from ethanol metabolism, accounting for one-third of the methane  
166 produced during DIET. Little or no carbon dioxide reduction is expected during growth  
167 solely on acetate. H<sub>2</sub> or formate cannot be the interspecies electron carrier between *G.*



168 *metallireducens* and *M. acetivorans* for carbon dioxide reduction because *G.*  
169 *metallireducens* cannot grow by metabolizing ethanol with the formation of H<sub>2</sub> or  
170 formate (32) and *M. acetivorans* is unable to use H<sub>2</sub> or formate as an electron donor (33).

171 Quantitative PCR of DNA extracted from the 4<sup>th</sup> transfer of triplicate co-cultures  
172 with primers targeting the 16S rRNA genes of *G. metallireducens* and *M. acetivorans*  
173 revealed that *G. metallireducens* accounted for 60 ± 10% (mean ± standard deviation) of  
174 the cells in the co-culture. Confocal and transmission electron microscopy also indicated  
175 a near-equal abundance of the two species (Figure 3a,b), and revealed that both species  
176 were typically in close proximity, often with more than one cell of each species adjacent  
177 to its DIET partner (Figure 3a,b).

#### 178 **Potential Role(s) for the Archaellum in DIET**

179 Higher magnification TEM images provided further insights into the interactions  
180 between *G. metallireducens* and *M. acetivorans* (Figure 3c-e). The outer surfaces of cells  
181 of the two species often appeared to be in direct contact (Figure 3c,d). However, there  
182 were instances in which filaments (diameter ca. 15 nm), consistent with the appearance of  
183 the *M. acetivorans* archaellum (33), appeared to emanate from *M. acetivorans* and  
184 connect to juxtaposed cells of *G. metallireducens* (Figure 3e,f).

185 Genes coding for archaella proteins were not more significantly expressed in  
186 DIET- versus acetate-grown cells (Supplementary Table S1) as might be expected  
187 because *M. acetivorans* also expresses archaella during growth on acetate (33). In order  
188 to evaluate whether the *M. acetivorans* archaella might play a role in DIET, a strain in  
189 which two genes for putative archaellin proteins, FlaB1 and FlaB2, were deleted, yielding  
190 a strain that did not express archaella (Supplementary Figure S1d). The archaella-

191 deficient strain did not form an effective DIET co-culture with *G. metallireducens* for  
192 over 150 days (Figure 4a). However, when the co-cultures were amended with granular  
193 activated carbon (GAC), the co-cultures initiated with the archaeella-deficient strain  
194 produced methane as effectively as co-cultures initiated with the parent *M. acetivorans*  
195 strain that expressed archaeella (Figure 4b).

196 GAC and other electrically conductive carbon materials can stimulate DIET  
197 between wild-type partners and can enable DIET when genes for key extracellular  
198 electron transport proteins that are otherwise essential for DIET, like e-pili, have been  
199 deleted (34-37). The DIET partners attach to the GAC rather than each other and the  
200 GAC serves as the conduit for long-range interspecies electron transfer (13). Archaeella  
201 are homologous to type IV pili (38) and the archaeellum of *Methanospirillum hungatei* has  
202 a conductance 4-fold higher than *G. sulfurreducens* e-pili, demonstrating that at least  
203 some archaeella can be electrically conductive and might have the potential to be involved  
204 in cell-to-cell electron transfer (39). The conductivity of a diversity of e-pili as well as the  
205 *Ms. hungatei* archaeellum are associated with a high abundance of aromatic amino acids  
206 (> 9 %) in the pilin/archaeellin monomers and no large gaps (> 40 amino acids) without  
207 aromatic amino acids (18). The high density of aromatic amino acids (FlaB1, 11.3%;  
208 FlaB2, 9.5%) and the lack of large aromatic-free gaps (largest gaps: FlaB1, 26 amino  
209 acids; FlaB2, 29 amino acids) in the *M. acetivorans* archaeellins suggest that they might  
210 yield conductive archaeella. The ability of GAC to rescue the archaeella-deficient strain to  
211 enable DIET is consistent with a possible archaeella role in long-range electron transport.  
212 However, other, more traditional roles of archaeella, such as conferring motility and  
213 facilitating attachment (40) might also help cells locate a DIET partner and/or establish

214 initial interspecies contact. In order to more definitively evaluate a role for the *M.*  
215 *acetivorans* archaeellum in interspecies electron transfer it will be necessary to follow the  
216 approach employed for evaluating the role of *Geobacter* e-pili in DIET (37) and construct  
217 a strain that expresses an archaeellum of with potentially low conductivity. However, such  
218 studies are technically difficult and well beyond the scope of the current investigation.  
219

## 220 **A Role for the Outer-Surface Cytochrome MmcA**

221 Gene expression and deletion studies have indicated that the outer surface multi-  
222 heme *c*-type cytochrome MmcA is an important component in *M. acetivorans* for  
223 electron transfer to the extracellular electron acceptor AQDS (29). Gene transcripts for  
224 MmcA were 5-fold higher ( $p=0.008$ ) during growth via DIET versus growth on acetate  
225 (Figure 2, Supplementary Table S1). Methane production was inhibited in co-cultures  
226 initiated with an MmcA-deficient strain of *M. acetivorans* for over 150 days (Figure 4a).  
227 These results suggest that MmcA may provide an important route for extracellular  
228 electron exchange during DIET.

229 Unlike the archaeella-deficient mutant, GAC did not rapidly rescue the growth of  
230 the MmcA-deficient mutant in co-culture (Figure 4b). The co-cultures initiated with the  
231 MmcA-deficient strain only grew after a very long lag period. The poor methane  
232 production even in the presence of GAC is consistent with the fact that MmcA is thought  
233 to be embedded in the membrane of *M. acetivorans* (25, 41). Thus, its role in  
234 extracellular electron transfer is expected to be facilitating transmembrane electron  
235 transport. Although GAC can enhance long-range electron exchange between the outer

236 cell surface of different species, it does not have a conceivable role in electron transfer  
237 across the cell membrane.

238 *M. acetivorans* has genes for four other putative *c*-type cytochromes, but the  
239 presence of these proteins in *M. acetivorans* has yet to be verified and deletion of the  
240 genes for each of the four cytochrome genes had no impact on extracellular electron  
241 transfer to AQDS even though several of the genes had higher transcript abundance when  
242 grown with AQDS as the electron acceptor (29). Transcript abundance for three of these  
243 putative cytochrome genes (MA0167, MA2925, MA3739) was higher in DIET-grown *M.*  
244 *acetivorans* than in acetate-grown cells (Supplementary Table S1). Further studies to  
245 attempt to document the expression of these proteins in *M. acetivorans* are warranted.

246

#### 247 **Potential role for Rnf and Fpo Complexes in DIET**

248 MmcA has the potential to exchange electrons with methanophenazine or the  
249 membrane-bound Rnf complex RnfCDGEAB (25, 42-44). Methanophenazine is an  
250 important membrane-bound electron carrier and the Rnf complex is physically associated  
251 with MmcA in the *M. acetivorans* membrane (25, 41). The Rnf complex oxidizes reduced  
252 ferredoxin with concomitant transport of sodium across the cell membrane from the cell  
253 interior to exterior (25, 42). It is proposed that the electrons from ferredoxin oxidation are  
254 transferred directly to methanophenazine during acetotrophic methanogenesis (25, 42,  
255 45) or to MmcA during reduction of extracellular electron acceptors such as Fe(III) and  
256 AQDS (25, 29, 46).

257 Transcripts for the majority of genes coding for Rnf subunits were more  
258 significantly expressed in DIET-grown cells than acetate-grown cells (Figure 2,

259 Supplementary Table S2), suggesting an enhanced role for the Rnf complex during DIET.  
260 It seems possible that during DIET the Rnf complex functions in the reverse direction  
261 proposed for extracellular electron transfer, i.e. accepting electrons to generate the  
262 reduced ferredoxin that is required for the first step in the reduction of carbon dioxide to  
263 methane (Figure 2). The most likely electron donor to the Rnf complex is MmcA, which  
264 is thought to exchange electrons with Rnf in other forms of *M. acetivorans* electron  
265 transfer (25) and, as noted above, is important for DIET (Figure 2). The ferredoxin  
266 reduction requires transfer of sodium to the interior of the cell via the Rnf complex  
267 (Figure 2). Ten genes coding for ferredoxin proteins and a gene coding for an unusual  
268 flavodoxin (FldA) that can replace ferredoxin as an electron donor under iron-limiting  
269 conditions (47) were more than 2 fold more highly expressed ( $p < 0.05$ ) in DIET-grown  
270 cells (Supplementary Table S1).

271         Although the pathway for the biosynthesis of methanophenazine has not been  
272 deciphered yet, it resembles respiratory quinones in that it has a polyprenyl side-chain  
273 connected to a redox-active moiety (48, 49). Geranylarnesyl diphosphate is a  
274 biosynthetic precursor of methanophenazine, and a homolog (MA0606) of the  
275 geranylarnesyl diphosphate synthase (MM0789) required for methanophenazine  
276 biosynthesis in *M. mazei* (50) was 2.42-fold ( $p = 0.01$ ) more highly expressed in DIET  
277 grown cells (Supplementary Table S1).

278         The pathway for carbon dioxide reduction to methane also requires reduced  $F_{420}$   
279 (51). The membrane-bound  $F_{420}$  dehydrogenase of *M. barkeri* can accept electrons from  
280 reduced methanophenazine to generate reduced  $F_{420}$  (52) and has been proposed to  
281 catalyze  $F_{420}$  reduction in a similar manner during *M. barkeri* DIET-based growth (21).

282 This reaction requires concomitant proton translocation from the outside of the cell to the  
283 cell interior. Genes for all but one of the Fpo subunits were more highly expressed during  
284 *M. acetivorans* growth via DIET versus growth on acetate (Figure 2; Supplementary  
285 Table S3). Therefore, electron transfer from MmcA to methanophenazine followed by  
286 electron transfer to Fpo is a likely route for generating  $F_{420}H_2$  to support carbon dioxide  
287 reduction during DIET (Figure 2).

288 As in other methanogens, methane production in *M. acetivorans* also requires an  
289 electron donor to reduce Coenzyme M 7-mercaptoheptanoylthreonine-phosphate  
290 heterodisulfide (CoMS-SCoB) to regenerate coenzyme M (25). It is proposed that during  
291 acetoclastic growth the membrane-bound HdrED complex accepts electrons from  
292 methanophenazine reduced by the Rnf complex to reduce CoMS-SCoB to HSCoM and  
293 HSCoB while pumping two protons from the interior of the cell across the cell membrane  
294 (25). Even though the HdrED complex is required for the conversion of acetate to  
295 methane, genes for components of this complex were more highly expressed during  
296 growth via DIET (Figure 2, Supplementary Table S4). Thus, HdrED is a likely catalyst  
297 for CoMS-SCoB reduction (Figure 2). An alternative strategy for reducing CoMS-SCoB  
298 is for HdrABC complexes to oxidize  $F_{420}H_2$  in an electron bifurcation reaction that  
299 reduces both ferredoxin and CoMS-SCoB (53, 54). Genes for components of the *M.*  
300 *acetivorans* HdrABC complexes were more highly expressed in DIET-grown cells,  
301 suggesting the possibility for multiple routes for electron flux during DIET  
302 (Supplementary Table S4).

303 The proposed route for electron flux during DIET (Figure 2) demonstrates the  
304 possibility for energy conservation from carbon dioxide reduction to methane with

305 electrons derived from DIET. The oxidation of two ethanols to acetate and carbon  
306 dioxide yields eight electrons required to reduce carbon dioxide to methane. The eight  
307 protons that are also generated from this ethanol metabolism must be consumed in order  
308 to prevent acidification within the DIET aggregates. Half of these protons are consumed  
309 with the proposed Fpo generation of  $F_{420}H_2$  (Figure 2). External sodium ions are needed  
310 for the proposed Rnf generation of reduced ferredoxin. This requirement can be met by  
311 the  $H^+/Na^+$  antiporter complex (MrpABCDEFG), which adjusts the  $H^+/Na^+$  ratio for  
312 optimal ATP synthesis by  $A_1A_0$  ATP synthase (55, 56). As might be expected, genes for  
313 components of this complex are more highly expressed in DIET-grown cells (Figure 2,  
314 Supplementary Table S2). The proposed consumption of ten positive charges in the  
315 reactions catalyzed by the Fpo and Rnf complexes consumes two more positive charges  
316 than the eight that are available from ethanol metabolism. However, the export of two  
317 sodiums during the reaction catalyzed by the MtrA-H complex and the two protons  
318 exported by HdrED yields a net exterior proton gradient to support ATP generation via  
319 ATPase. Detailed functional studies would be required to completely validate this model,  
320 but the model is based on previously proposed functions of these *M. acetivorans*  
321 components, supporting its feasibility.

## 322 **Implications**

323 The results demonstrate that *M. acetivorans* can serve as an electron-accepting  
324 partner for DIET and reveal potential outer-surface electrical contacts and routes for  
325 electron flux to support DIET-driven carbon dioxide reduction. This is significant  
326 because *M. acetivorans*, which is genetically tractable and one of the most intensively  
327 studied methanogens (25), is an excellent physiological model for the Type II

328 *Methanosarcina* species that are abundant in many methanogenic soils, sediments, and  
329 subsurface environments (22). The results also suggest that different genera of  
330 methanogens are likely to employ different strategies for electron uptake during growth  
331 via DIET. For example, although MmcA appears to be important for *M. acetivorans*  
332 DIET, some *Methanothrix* (31) and *Methanobacterium* (20) species can participate in  
333 DIET, but lack *c*-type cytochromes (24).

334 DIET mechanisms in *M. acetivorans* also appear to differ significantly from those  
335 described in *M. barkeri* (21). This is consistent with other substantial differences  
336 between Type I (i.e. *M. barkeri*) and Type II (i.e. *M. acetivorans*) *Methanosarcina*  
337 species (22). *M. barkeri* lacks MmcA and other *c*-type cytochromes (24). The lack of an  
338 Rnf complex in *M. barkeri* requires that electron transport through the membrane to  
339 generate reducing equivalents for carbon dioxide reduction relies on the Fpo complex  
340 (21).

341 The diversity of mechanisms for DIET in methanogens suggests that the strategies that  
342 rely on gene expression patterns to evaluate the importance of DIET in methanogenic  
343 systems will need to accommodate these differences. The mechanisms for extracellular  
344 electron exchange in the bacteria and archaea that predominate in anaerobic  
345 environments such as soils, sediments, anaerobic digesters, and intestinal systems are still  
346 poorly understood (13). For example, although multiple lines of evidence suggest that e-  
347 pili are important for extracellular electron transfer in some *Geobacter* species, a model  
348 for how e-pili interact with the rest of the *Geobacter* electron transport chain, which  
349 could aid in understanding how the archaellum of *M. acetivorans* might ‘plug in’ to  
350 membrane electron transport components during DIET, is not yet available (13).



351 However, the genetic tractability of *M. acetivorans* and the growing information on the  
352 biochemistry and function of its key proteins (25); as well as its ability to grow as either  
353 an electrogen (transporting electrons to extracellular electron acceptors) (29, 46), or an  
354 electrotroph (consuming electrons from an external source), as shown here, suggest that  
355 *M. acetivorans* is an excellent model microbe for further study of extracellular electron  
356 exchange in archaea.

## 357 **Materials and Methods**

### 358 **Parental strain adaption for co-culture at a compatible salinity**

359 *Geobacter metallireducens* (ATCC 53774) was routinely cultured at 30°C under  
360 anaerobic conditions (N<sub>2</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub>, 80:20, vol/vol) with ethanol (20 mM) provided as the  
361 electron donor and Fe(III) citrate (56 mM) as the electron acceptor in freshwater medium  
362 as previously described (57). *M. acetivorans* strain WWM1 ( $\Delta hpt$ ) (58), (a gift from  
363 William Metcalf at the University of Illinois) was routinely cultured at 37°C in HS-  
364 methanol-acetate medium under strict anaerobic conditions as previously described (27,  
365 59).

366 In order to obtain strains of both microbes that grew at compatible temperatures  
367 and salinities, both cultures were adapted to grow at 30°C in MA medium which  
368 consisted of the following components per liter: 0.35 g K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 0.23 g KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 0.5 g  
369 NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, 4 g NaCl, 1 ml 0.2% wt/vol FeSO<sub>4</sub>, 1 ml trace element solution SL-10 (DSMZ  
370 culture collection, medium 320), 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 10 ml Wolin's vitamin solution  
371 (DSMZ culture collection, medium 141), 0.3 mM L-cysteine·HCl, 1 ml 2.7% CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2  
372 H<sub>2</sub>O, and 1 ml 4.5% MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7 H<sub>2</sub>O. The sodium bicarbonate, Wolin's vitamins, L-

373 cysteine, CaCl<sub>2</sub>, and MgSO<sub>4</sub> solutions were added from sterile anoxic stocks after the  
374 base medium was autoclaved.

375 For co-culture experiments, *G. metallireducens* and *M. acetivorans* were grown  
376 with 20 mM ethanol provided as the electron donor and carbon dioxide as the electron  
377 acceptor at 30°C in MA media as previously described (16, 21). For comparative  
378 transcriptomic studies *M. acetivorans* was also grown in MA medium with acetate (40  
379 mM) as the sole electron donor.

### 380 ***M. acetivorans* mutants**

381 A mutant strain in which the gene for the multi-heme *c*-type cytochrome MmcA was  
382 deleted was described previously (29). A strain in which the genes for the archaellin  
383 monomer proteins FlaB1 and FlaB2 were deleted was constructed by replacing *flaB1* and  
384 *flaB2* genes with *pac* (puromycin resistance gene) (Supplementary Figure S1). The  
385 upstream and downstream regions of *flaB1/flaB2* were amplified by PCR with the  
386 following primer pairs:

387 TCTCTCGAGTTCCTTGAAGATATTAAGGTC/TCTAAGCTTAATGAATCACCTC  
388 AATATTGTG and

389 TCTGGATCCAGCTTGAAATCAAACCAC/TCTGCGGCCGCCACTGCAGCTATAA  
390 CAC, respectively. The DNA fragments of the upstream and downstream regions were  
391 digested with *XhoI/HindIII* and *BamHI/NotI*, respectively. The upstream fragment was  
392 ligated with pJK3 (27) and then the downstream fragment was ligated with the pJK3  
393 containing the upstream fragment. The constructed plasmid was linearized with *XhoI* and  
394 the linearized plasmid was used for transformation. The deletion of *flaB1/flaB2* was  
395 verified by PCR with primer pairs, TCTCTCGAGTTCCTTGAAGATATTAAGGTC

396 (P1)/CCGCCTGCAGTATTCGTTAC (P3) and ACTCTATGCTTGCAGCTGAC  
397 (P4)/TCTGCGGCCGCGCCACTGCAGCTATAACAC (P2) (Supplementary Figure S1).  
398 The replacement with the *pac* gene was verified by PCR with a primer pair,  
399 AGAGACCCTATCTTACCTGC (P5)/ TCTGCGGCCGCGCCACTGCAGCTATAACAC  
400 (P2) (Supplementary Figure S1). Absence of flagella in the deletion mutant strain was  
401 confirmed with transmission electron microscopy (Supplementary Figure S1).

#### 402 **Analytical techniques**

403 Ethanol in solution was monitored with a gas chromatograph equipped with a headspace  
404 sampler and a flame ionization detector (Clarus 600; PerkinElmer Inc., CA). Methane in  
405 the headspace was measured by gas chromatography with a flame ionization detector  
406 (Shimadzu, GC-8A) as previously described (60). Acetate concentrations were measured  
407 with a SHIMADZU high performance liquid chromatograph (HPLC) with an Aminex  
408 HPX-87H Ion Exclusion column (300 mm × 7.8 mm) and an eluent of 8.0 mM sulfuric  
409 acid.

#### 410 **Microscopy**

411 Cells were routinely examined by phase-contrast and fluorescence microscopy (BV-2A  
412 filter set) with a Nikon E600 microscope. For transmission electron microscopy (TEM), 7  
413 µl of cells were dropcast on plasma-sterilized carbon coated 400 mesh copper ultralight  
414 grids for 10 minutes. Liquid was wicked off and the grid was stained with 3 µL 2%  
415 uranyl acetate for 15-20 seconds before the liquid was wicked off and air-dried.  
416 Transmission electron microscopy was done on a FEI Tecnai 12 at 120kV, spot size 3,  
417 with a camera exposure of 200 ms.

418 Cells for confocal microscopy were harvested (1mL) and vacuumed gently onto a  
419 polycarbonate 0.2µm filter, washed with 1mL of wash buffer for 10 minutes, vacuumed,  
420 stained with the Live/Dead BacLight Bacterial Viability kit (Thermofisher) (1mL  
421 staining, 3 µL each stain per mL) for 10 minutes, vacuumed, destained with wash buffer  
422 for 10 minutes, vacuumed, and mounted on glass slides with cover slips and antifade  
423 reagent in glycerol. Cells were visualized on a Nikon A1R-SIME confocal microscope.

424

#### 425 **DNA extraction and quantitative PCR**

426 Genomic DNA was extracted from co-cultures with the MasterPure complete DNA  
427 purification kit (Lucigen). The proportion of *G. metallireducens* and *M. acetivorans* cells  
428 in co-cultures was determined with quantitative PCR using the following primer sets: (i)  
429 GS15-16Sq-f (5'-CAGCTCGTGTCTGAGATGT-3') and GS15-16Sq-r (5'-  
430 GTTTGACACCGGCAGTTTCT-3') which amplified a 106 bp fragment from the 16S  
431 rRNA gene of *G. metallireducens* and (ii) MA-16Sq-f (5'-  
432 GTAGTCCCAGCCGTAAACGA-3') and MA-16Sq-r (5'-  
433 CCCGCCAATTCCTTTAAGTT-3') which amplified a 132 bp fragment of the *M.*  
434 *acetivorans* 16S rRNA gene. Both *G. metallireducens* and *M. acetivorans* have three  
435 copies of the 16S rRNA gene in their genomes. Therefore, qPCR results were not  
436 influenced by unequal gene copy numbers. Standard curve analysis of both primer sets  
437 revealed that they had >95% efficiencies and melt curve analysis yielded a single peak  
438 indicating that they were highly specific.

439 Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) and  
440 an ABI 7500 real-time PCR system were used to amplify and to quantify all PCR

441 products. Each reaction mixture (25  $\mu$ l) consisted of forward and reverse primers at a  
442 final concentration of 200 nM, 5 ng of gDNA, and 12.5  $\mu$ l of Power SYBR Green PCR  
443 Master Mix (Applied Biosystems).

#### 444 **RNA Extraction**

445 Cells were harvested from triplicate 50 ml cultures of *M. acetivorans* grown alone with  
446 acetate (40 mM) provided as a substrate (acetate conditions), or 50 ml cultures of *M.*  
447 *acetivorans* grown in co-culture with *G. metallireducens* with ethanol (20 mM) provided  
448 as an electron donor (DIET condition). Cells were harvested during mid-exponential  
449 phase when ~18 mM methane was detected in the headspace.

450 Cells were split into 50 ml conical tubes (BD Sciences), mixed with RNA Protect  
451 (Qiagen) in a 1:1 ratio, and pelleted by centrifugation at 3,000 x g for 15 minutes at 4°C.  
452 Pellets were then immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C. Total RNA  
453 was extracted from cell pellets as previously described (61), and all six RNA samples (3  
454 acetate, 3 DIET) were cleaned with the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) and treated with Turbo  
455 DNA-free DNase (Ambion). PCR with primers targeting the 16S rRNA gene was then  
456 done on all samples to ensure that they were not contaminated with genomic DNA.  
457 mRNA was then further enriched from all samples with the MICROBExpress kit  
458 (Ambion), according to the manufacturer's instructions.

#### 459 **Illumina sequencing and data analysis.**

460 The ScriptSeq™ v2 RNA-Seq Library Preparation Kit (Epicentre) was used to  
461 prepare directional multiplex libraries. Paired end sequencing was then performed on  
462 these libraries with a Hi-Seq 2000 platform at the Deep Sequencing Core Facility at the  
463 University of Massachusetts Medical School in Worcester, Massachusetts.

464 Raw data was quality checked with FASTQC  
465 (<http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/>), and initial raw non-filtered  
466 forward and reverse sequencing libraries contained an average of 68,911,030 +/-  
467 21,863,730 reads that were ~100 basepairs long (Supplementary Table S5). Sequences  
468 from all of the libraries were trimmed and filtered with Trimmomatic (62) which yielded  
469 an average of 55,239,290 +/- 29,060,121 quality reads per RNAseq library.

470 All paired-end reads were then merged with FLASH (63), resulting in 32,159,242  
471 +/- 22,219,390 reads with an average read length of 134 +/- 28 basepairs. Ribosomal  
472 RNA (rRNA) reads were then removed from the libraries with SortMeRNA (64), which  
473 resulted in 4,959,312 +/- 2,340,361 mRNA reads.

#### 474 **Mapping of mRNA reads**

475 Trimmed and filtered mRNA reads from the triplicate samples for the two  
476 different culture conditions were mapped against the *M. acetivorans* strain C2A genome  
477 (NC\_003552) downloaded from IMG/MER ([img.jgi.doe.gov](http://img.jgi.doe.gov)) using ArrayStar software  
478 (DNASTar). Reads were normalized and processed for differential expression studies  
479 using the edgeR package in Bioconductor (65). All genes that were  $\geq 2$  fold differentially  
480 expressed with p-values  $\leq 0.05$  are reported in Supplementary Table S1.

#### 481 **Data Availability**

482 Illumina sequence reads have been submitted to the SRA NCBI database under  
483 BioProject PRJNA727272 and Biosamples SAMN19011637, and SAMN19011638.

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496

#### 497 **Ethics declarations**

498 The authors do not declare any conflicts of interest.

499

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- 692

## 693 **Figure Legends**

694 **Figure 1.** Ethanol consumption and production of methane and acetate in co-cultures  
695 established with *G. metallireducens* and *M. acetivorans* after four

696 successive transfers. Data are means and standard deviation of triplicate  
697 cultures.

698 **Figure 2.** Model for electron and proton flux in *Methanosarcina acetivorans* during  
699 direct interspecies electron transfer (DIET) with *Geobacter*  
700 *metallireducens*. Ethanol is provided as the source of electrons and the  
701 electron-donating partner (*G. metallireducens*) transfers those electrons to  
702 the electron-accepting partner (*M. acetivorans*) for carbon dioxide  
703 reduction to CH<sub>4</sub> through the proposed pathways shown. The degree of  
704 increased transcript abundance for subunits of the protein complexes is  
705 provided. See main text for more detailed explanation.

706 **Figure 3.** Images of *G. metallireducens*/*M. acetivorans* co-cultures. (a) Confocal  
707 microscopy image demonstrating aggregate size and cell distributions. (b-  
708 f) Transmission electron micrographs. Arrows point to archaella extending  
709 from the *M. acetivorans* surface. Abbreviations: M.a.: *M. acetivorans*;  
710 G.m.: *G. metallireducens*.

711 **Figure 4.** Methane production during initial establishment of co-cultures with *G.*  
712 *metallireducens* and various *M. acetivorans* strains grown with ethanol (20  
713 mM) provided as the electron donor in the absence (a) or presence (b) of  
714 granular activated carbon (GAC). Data are means and standard deviation  
715 of triplicate cultures.

716 GM: wild-type *G. metallireducens*; MA: wild-type *M. acetivorans*;

717  $\Delta mmcA$ : *M. acetivorans* strain lacking the gene for the multi-heme

718 cytochrome MmcA;  $\Delta flaB1 \Delta flaB2$ : *M. acetivorans* strain lacking the  
719 genes for the archaellins FlaB1 and FlaB2.  
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