Functional diversity of microbial communities in pristine aquifers inferred by PLFA- and sequencing -based approaches

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Abstract: Microorganisms in groundwater play an important role in aquifer biogeochemical 16 17 cycles and water quality. However, the mechanisms linking the functional diversity of microbial populations and the groundwater physicochemistry are still not well understood due to the 18 complexity of interactions between surface and subsurface. Within the framework of Hainich 19 (north-western Thuringia, central Germany) Critical Zone Exploratory of the Collaborative 20 Research Centre AquaDiva, we used phospholipid fatty acids (PLFAs) relative abundances to 21 link specific biochemical markers within the microbial communities to the spatio-temporal 22 23 changes of the groundwater physicochemistry. The functional diversities of the microbial 24 communities were mainly correlated with groundwater chemistry, including dissolved O₂, Fe_t and NH_4^+ concentrations. Abundances of PLFAs derived from eukaryotes and potential nitrite 25 26 oxidizing bacteria (11Me16:0 as biomarker for *Nitrospira moscoviensis*) were high at sites with 27 elevated O_2 concentration where groundwater recharge supplies bioavailable substrates. In anoxic 28 groundwaters more rich in Fet, PLFAs abundant in sulphate reducing bacteria (SRB), iron-29 reducing bacteria and fungi increased with Fet and HCO₃⁻ concentrations suggesting the 30 occurrence of active iron-reduction and the possible role of fungi in meditating iron solubilisation and transport in those aquifer domains. In NH_4^+ richer anoxic groundwaters, anammox bacteria 31 and SRB- derived PLFAs increased with NH_4^+ concentration further evidencing the dependence 32 33 of the anammox process on ammonium concentration and potential links between SRB and 34 anammox bacteria. Additional support of the PLFA-based bacterial communities was found in 35 DNA and RNA-based Illumina MiSeq amplicon sequencing of bacterial 16S rRNA genes, which 36 evidenced high predominance of nitrite-oxidizing bacteria Nitrospira e.g. Nitrospira *moscoviensis* in oxic aquifers zones and of anammox bacteria in NH_4^+ richer anoxic groundwater. 37 38 Higher relative abundances of sequence reads in the RNA-based data sets affiliated with iron-39 reducing bacteria in Fe_t richer groundwater supported the occurrence of active dissimilatory iron-40 reduction. The functional diversity of the microbial communities in the biogeochemically distinct 41 groundwater assemblages can be largely attributed to the redox conditions linked to changes in 42 bioavailable substrates and input of substrates with the seepage. Our results demonstrate the 43 power of complementary information derived from PLFA-based and sequencing-based 44 approaches.

45 **1. Introduction**

46 Continental and marine subsurface environments represent the largest habitat on Earth for 47 microbial life and therefore are of primary importance for energy fluxes on a global scale 48 (Edwards et al., 2012). In terrestrial ecosystems, complex interactions between the surface and 49 subsurface compartments, including aquifers, such as groundwater recharge and rainfall event-50 driven flow, influence the availability of O_2 , and the nature and abundance of bioavailable 51 organic matter (OM; Benner et al., 1995; Kalbus et al., 2006). Young and shallow groundwaters 52 tend to maintain the chemical characteristics of surface, i.e. higher O₂ levels and greater amounts 53 of bioavailable substrates (e.g. labile OM) which support aerobic heterotrophic microbial activity 54 (Landmeyer et al., 1996). In contrast, deep and especially fossil groundwaters tend to reflect the 55 chemistry of the aquifer materials. They have typically lower concentrations of O_2 and bioavailable substrates which cause facultative anaerobes to switch to terminal electron acceptors 56 with lower energy yield such as NO₃, MnO₂, FeOOH and SO_4^{2-} (Chapelle and Lovley, 1992). In 57 pristine aquifers low amount of OM typically results in a higher amount of terminal electron 58 59 acceptors than electron donors (Chapelle, 2001). As many chemolithoautotrophs can use a variety 60 of compounds to meet their energy needs in the dark subsurface, increasing numbers of studies 61 report an important chemolithoautotrophy in groundwater (Stevens and McKinley, 1995; 62 Emerson et al., 2015; Herrmann et al., 2015). However, it is still not well understood how the composition and function of microbial communities in groundwater depend on hydrology, 63 64 chemistry and the relationship to groundwater recharge dynamics.

There are a number of ways to assess the composition and function of microbial communities in groundwaters. Phospholipid fatty acids (PLFAs) are important constituents of microbial cell membranes. Because various PLFA structures are indicative of specific types or groups of bacteria in soil (e.g., Frostegård and Bååth, 1996; Frostegård et al., 2011) and aquifers (Green and Scow, 2000), PLFA-based studies are recognised as a valuable approach to infer the

70 presence of specific microbial groups and to show trends in the spatial distribution of active 71 microbial populations related to specific substrate utilization patterns in environments (e.g., 72 Torsvik and Øvreås, 2002; Schneider et al., 2012). PLFAs that are commonly associated to a 73 group or genus of bacteria are listed in Table 1. Additionally, the stable carbon isotope ratios $(\delta^{13}C \text{ values})$ of PLFAs reflect a combination of the source of microbial carbon and kinetic 74 75 isotope fractionation effects associated with the carbon assimilation pathway (e.g., heterotrophy, 76 autotrophy, methanotrophy; Teece et al., 1999; Zhang et al., 2003; Londry et al., 2004). 77 Although a wide range of carbon isotope effects have been measured, in general autotrophs are expected to have PLFA δ^{13} C values more negative than heterotrophs (Blair et al., 1985; Teece et 78 79 al., 1999; van der Meer et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2003; Londry et al., 2004; Schouten et al., 80 2004). In particular, large isotope effects have been associated with anammox bacteria that have PLFA δ^{13} C values as much as 47‰ more negative than the dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) 81 82 source (Schouten et al., 2004).

Despite PLFAs are widely used in microbial ecology, their potential to assess changes in 83 84 microbial community still remains the topic of much research efforts. One of the major 85 limitations of a PLFA-based study is the definitive identification of the lipid sources, since many 86 PLFAs commonly associated to a group or genus of bacteria (Table 1) may also be found, albeit in smaller amounts, in cell membranes of other organisms (Frostegård et al., 2011). A few 87 88 PLFAs are highly specific, for example ladderanes are characteristic membrane constituents of 89 anammox bacteria (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2002; 2005) and have commonly been used to infer 90 the presence of active anammox bacteria in diverse environments (Kuypers et al., 2003; Jaeschke 91 et al., 2009). As these organisms are capable of anaerobically oxidizing ammonium with nitrite to 92 molecular N₂, they play an essential role in N removal from marine (Dalsgaard et al., 2003; 93 Burgin and Hamilton, 2007) and lacustrine environments (Yoshinaga et al., 2011). Yet, their role

94 in aquifer environments is only starting to be considered (Humbert et al., 2009). Another 95 important limitation may reside in the PLFA extraction technique. Heinzelmann et al. (2014) 96 showed that the proposed method to separate the glycolipids and phospholipids is incomplete and 97 results significant in а proportion of glycolipids, betaine lipids and 98 sulfoquinovosyldiacylglycerols (SQDGs) in the phospholipids fraction. Therefore, PLFAs 99 fractions might also contain fatty acids derived from glycolipids, betaine lipids, and to some 100 extent SODGs, and thus might not only reflect the active biomass. 101 In attempt to overcome some of these limitations, we combined a detailed multivariate statistical analysis of PLFAs with PLFA δ^{13} C values, and DNA and RNA-based Illumina MiSeq 102 amplicon sequencing of bacterial 16S rRNA genes in groundwaters with very different redox 103 104 conditions and water chemistry (Kohlhepp et al., 2016). This approach allows parallel study of 105 microbial community composition and specific substrate consumption by evidencing specific 106 PLFAs that respond significantly to changes in the groundwater chemistry. Microbial community 107 structure and potential function assessed by PLFAs were confirmed by Illumina MiSeq amplicon 108 sequencing targeting 16S rRNA genes and transcripts, providing a more detailed insight into 109 bacterial community structure and taxonomic affiliation (Kozich et al., 2013). We showed that 110 such PLFA-based study has particular relevance and importance when trying to understand how 111 micro-organisms in groundwater interact with their environment. This study provides baselines 112 for future studies investigating the impact of changes in surface conditions on microorganism in 113 carbonate-rock aquifer ecosystems.

114 **2.** Sampling and methods

116 The sampled groundwater wells are part of the monitoring well transect of the Hainich 117 Critical Zone Exploratory (CZE: north-western Thuringia, central Germany) of the Collaborative 118 Research Centre (CRC) AquaDiva. AquaDiva aims to determine how deep can signals of surface 119 environmental conditions be traced into the Critical Zone (Küsel et al., 2016). The wells access 120 two distinct aguifer assemblages in marine sediments of the Upper Muschelkalk (mo) 121 lithostratigraphic subgroup (Germanic Triassic, Middle Triassic epoch) at different depths and 122 locations (Figure 1). Wells in the hilltop recharge areas (H1, H2) were not sampled, due to very 123 low groundwater levels or desaturation. Aquifers predominantly receive surface recharge in their 124 outcrop areas at the eastern Hainich hillslope. The lower aquifer assemblage (subsequently 125 referred to as HTL) represents one aquifer hosted in the Trochitenkalk formation (moTK), 126 whereas the upper aquifer assemblage (referred to as HTU) comprises several aquifers and 127 aquitards of the Meissner formation. The HTL, sampled at depths ranging from 41 m to 88 m 128 below the surface, is rich in O_2 , whereas the upper aquifer found at depths from 12 m to 50 m 129 below surface, is anoxic to sub-oxic. Both aquifer assemblages are found in alternating sequences 130 of limestones and marlstones that are partly karstified (Kohlhepp et al., 2016). More details on 131 the CZE and well constructions can be found in Küsel et al. (2016) and Kohlhepp et al. (2016).

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133 2.2. Groundwater sampling

Groundwater was sampled for chemical analyses and colloidal/particulate organic matter (POM) in June, September and December of 2014 (Table 2) during regular sampling campaigns within the coordinated joint monitoring program of the CRC. Groundwater samples were collected at locations H3, H4, and H5 (i.e. the lower topographic positions of the well transect, 138 Figure 1). Wells H3.2, H4.2, H4.3, H5.2 and H5.3 reach into the HTU, while wells H3.1, H4.1 139 and H5.1 access the HTL aquifers (Figure 1). The wells were originally drilled between 2009 and 140 2011, and were specifically designed sampling groundwater (micro)-organisms and particles. 141 Prior to sampling, stagnant water (at least three well volumes) was pumped out and discarded 142 until the physicochemical parameters pH, dissolved O₂ concentration, redox potential and 143 specific electrical conductivity remained constant. Subsequently, ~1000 L of groundwater were 144 filtered on site using a submersible pump (Grundfos SQE 5-70, Grundfos, Denmark) connected 145 to a stainless steel filter device (diameter 293mm, Millipore USA) equipped with a removable 146 pre-combusted (5 h at 500 °C) glass fiber filter (Sterlitech, USA) of fine porosity (0.3 µm) allowing a water flow of ca. 20 Lmin⁻¹. Filters with the collected particulates were carefully 147 148 removed and immediately stored at -80°C until analysis. Groundwater extraction temperature, 149 redox potential, specific electrical conductivity, pH and dissolved O₂ concentration were 150 monitored continuously during pumping in a flow-through cell equipped with the probes 151 TetraCon 925, FDO 925, Sentix 980, ORP 900 (WTW GmbH, Germany) and meter (Multi 3430 152 IDS, WTW GmbH, Germany).

During the sampling campaign of June 2014, groundwater was additionally sampled for nucleic acid extraction. The groundwater was transferred to sterile glass bottles and kept at 4°C. Within a few hours after sampling, five to six litres of groundwater were filtered through 0.2 μ m pore size polyethersulfone (PES) filters (Pall Corporation, USA), and 2 litres were filtered through 0.2 μ m pore size polycarbonate filters (Nuclepore, Whatman, United Kingdom) for extraction of DNA and RNA, respectively. Filters were immediately transferred to dry ice and stored at -80°C until nucleic acid extraction.

Concentration of the major anions (SO₄²⁻, Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, PO₄³⁻; PES filter <0.45 μ m) were 161 162 determined according to DIN EN ISO 10304-1 (2009a) using an ion chromatograph (DX-120, DIONEX, USA; equipped with an IonPac AS11-HC column and an IonPac AG11-HC pre-163 column). The redox sensitive parameters (Fe²⁺, NO₂⁻, NH₄⁺) were determined by colorimetry (DR 164 165 890, Hach Company, USA) according to manufacturer's protocol following APHA (1981) and 166 Reardon et al. (1966). The concentration of DOC and DIC (filter <0.45 µm) were determined by 167 high temperature catalytic oxidation (multi 18 N/C 2100S, Analytik Jena, Germany) according to 168 DIN EN 1484 (1997). Total S (S_t), Mn (Mn_t) and iron (Fe_t) were analysed by ICP-OES (725 ES, 169 Varian/Agilent, USA) according to DIN EN ISO 11885 (2009b). The acid and base neutralizing 170 capacity (ANC, BNC) by acid/base endpoint-titration was determined according to DIN 38409-7 (2005). The approximated concentrations of HCO_3^- and CO_2^- were converted from $ANC_{4,3}$ and 171 BNC_{8.2} by simple replacement (cCO₂⁻ (mmol L^{-1})=BNC_{8.2}(mmol L^{-1}); cHCO₃⁻ (mmol L^{-1}) 172 ¹)=BNC_{4,3} (mmol L^{-1})), assuming that other buffering species than those are negligible, in the 173 174 nearly pH-neutral waters (Wisotzky, 2011).

175 2.4. PLFA extraction and pre-treatment

To minimize external contamination, all material (including filters) and glass in contact with the samples during extraction and purification were baked at 500 °C for 5h to remove organic contaminants. Only trace level of 16:0 FAME has been detected in blank extracts. PLFAs were extracted from filters using a method slightly modified from Bligh and Dyer (1959) and Seifert et al. (2013). The filters were cut into small pieces and extracted in a phase solution of chloroform-methanol (2:1; v/v) with 0.005 M phosphate buffer. The solution was rotated and 182 shaken for 4 h. Chloroform and water (1:1; v/v) were then added to the mixture. After shaking, 183 the chloroform phase, containing the Bligh-Dyer-extract (BDE), was separated from the water-184 MeOH phase and, concentrated by a rotary evaporator. The BDE was then partitioned into the 185 conventionally defined neutral lipids (NL), glycolipid (GL) and phospholipid (PL) fractions by 186 chromatography (SPE 6 mL column) on pre-activated silica gel (Merck silica mesh 230-400, 2 g 187 pre-activated 1h et 100 °C) using chloroform (12 mL), acetone (12 mL) and methanol (48 mL). 188 respectively. The phospholipids were converted to fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) using mild-189 alkaline hydrolysis and methylation (White et al., 1979). The different fatty acids were then 190 separated using NH₂ column (Chromabond 3mL, 500 mg) with 3 mL of hexane/DCM (3:1; v/v) 191 for eluting the unsubstituted FAMEs; 3 mL of DCM/ ethylacetate (9:1; v/v) for the hydroxy 192 FAME and 6 mL of 2% acetic acid in methanol for unsaponifiable lipids. To quantify the 193 recovery, the standard, 1,2-dinonadecanoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphatidyl-choline (Avanti Polar 194 Lipids, Inc. USA), was added on clean pre-combusted glass filters that were treated exactly as the 195 samples following the above protocol. The formed C17:0 FAME was quantified to calculate a 196 mean recovery of 82%. To test the efficiency of the separation between the glycolipids and the 197 phospholipids, the glycolipid standard digalactosyl diglyceride (Sigma Aldrich) and the 198 phospholipid standard 1,2-dinonadecanoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphatidyl-choline were run through 199 the SPE column using the above protocol. The absence of phospholipid derived FA (C17:0) in 200 the glycolipid fraction and glycolipid derived FA (C17:2) in the phospholipid fractions points to 201 an efficient separation and thus a major origin of the studied FAME from phospholipid head 202 groups.

204 DNA was extracted from the PES filters using the Power Soil DNA extraction kit (Mo 205 Bio, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was extracted from 206 polycarbonate filters using the Power Water RNA Isolation Kit (Mo Bio, CA, USA). Traces of 207 co-extracted genomic DNA were removed using Turbo DNA free (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 208 Germany), and reverse transcription to cDNA was performed using ArrayScript Reverse 209 Transcriptase (Thermo Fisher Scientific) as described previously (Herrmann et al., 2012). DNA 210 and cDNA obtained from the groundwater samples from PNK51 were shipped to LGC Genomic 211 GmbH (Berlin, Germany) for Illumina MiSeq amplicon sequencing of the V3-V5 region of 16S 212 rRNA genes and transcripts, using the primer combination Bakt_341F/Bakt_805R (Herlemann et 213 al., 2011). Sequence analysis was performed using Mothur v. 1.36 (Schloss et al., 2009), 214 following the MiSeq SOP (http://www.mothur.org/wiki/MiSeq_SOP; Kozich et al., 2013). 215 Quality-trimmed sequence reads were aligned to the SILVA reference database (v 119; Quast et 216 al., 2013). Potential chimeric sequences were detected and removed using the uchime algorithm 217 implemented in Mothur. Taxonomic classification of sequence reads was based on the SILVA 218 reference database (v 119). To facilitate comparisons across samples, sequence read numbers per 219 sample were normalized to the smallest number of sequence reads obtained across all samples 220 using the subsample command implemented in Mothur. Raw data from 16S rRNA amplicon 221 Illumina sequencing were submitted to the European Nucleotide Archive database under the 222 study accession number PRJEB14968 and sample accession numbers ERS1270616 to 223 ERS1270631.

225 Ten percent of the PLFA extracts were used for peak identification and relative 226 quantification using a gas chromatograph (Trace 1310 GC) coupled to a triple quadrupole mass 227 spectrometer (TSO-8000: Thermo-Fisher, Bremen, Germany) at the Friedrich Schiller University 228 Jena, Institute of Inorganic and Analytical Chemistry (Germany). The GC was equipped with a 229 TG 5silms capillary column (60 m, 0.25 mm, 0.25-µm film thickness). Helium was used as carrier gas at a constant flow of 1.2 mL min⁻¹, and the GC oven was programmed to have an 230 initial temperature of 70 °C (hold 2 min), a heating rate of 11°C min⁻¹, and a final temperature of 231 232 320 °C, held for 21 min. The PTV injector was operated in splitless mode at an initial 233 temperature of 70 °C. Upon injection, the injector was heated to 300 °C at a programmed rate of 720 °C min⁻¹ and held at this temperature for 2.5 minutes. FAMEs were quantified relative to an 234 235 internal standard nonadecanoic acid-methyl ester (19:0) added prior to GC analysis. FAMEs were 236 identified based on the mass spectra and on retention time of standards. Standard nomenclature is 237 used to describe PLFAs. The number before the colon refers to the total number of C atoms; the 238 number(s) following the colon refers to the number of double bonds and their location (after the ' ω ') in the fatty acid molecule. The prefixes "me," "cy," "i" and "a" refer to the methyl group, 239 240 cyclopropane groups, and iso- and anteiso-branched fatty acids, respectively.

241 2.7. *PLFA distribution and statistical analyses*

The forty-seven PLFAs, expressed in %, were investigated in the different wells (Supplement Table S1). The sum of the PLFAs considered to be predominantly of bacterial origin (BactPLFA; $i15:0, a15:0, 15:0, 16:1\omega7, 16:0, cy17:0, 18:1\omega7, 18:0$ and cy19:0) was used as an index of the bacterial biomass (Bossio and Scow, 1998; Frostegård and Bååth, 1996). The fungal biomass (FunPLFA) was estimated from the sum of the relative abundance of the 18:2 ω 6c (Bååth et al., 1995), 18:3 ω 6c (Hamman et al., 2007) and 18:1 ω 9c (Myers et al., 2001); these were all significantly correlated with each other. Gram-positive (G+) bacteria were represented by the sum of PLFAs: *i*12:0, *i*13:0, *a*15:0, *i*15:0 (Kaur et al., 2005). Gram-negative (G-) bacteria included 16:1 ω 7c, cy17:0, 18:1 ω 7c and cy19:0 (Kaur et al., 2005). The ratios of FunPLFA/BactPLFA and G+/G- were calculated from the above PLFAs.

252 The PLFA data and twenty-nine environmental parameters were used for principal 253 component analysis (PCA) and redundancy analyses (RDA) using CANOCO for Windows, 254 version 5 (Microcomputer Power, Ithaca, New York, United States). Before regression, the data 255 were centered and standardized. We used PCA to emphasise strong variations and similarities of 256 the PLFA distributions between the wells and identify patterns in the dataset. RDA is used to 257 determine PLFA variations and similarities (response variables) that can be significantly 258 explained by different environmental parameters (explanatory variables). This technique helps to 259 identify the environmental parameters that have the highest effects on the PLFA distribution, i.e. 260 on the microbial communities in the different wells.

261 Additionally, we used variation partitioning analyses with conditional effects to determine 262 the variations in PLFA composition between the different wells that can be explained 263 significantly by the preselected environmental variables. To visualise the PLFAs acting 264 significantly with the environmental variables (predictor), we used PLFA-environmental 265 variables t-value biplots (Smilauer and Leps, 2014). These plots can be used to approximate the t-266 values of the regression between a particular PLFA and an environmental variable. The PLFAs 267 are represented by arrows projecting from the origin. Those with a preference for higher values of 268 the environmental variable are enclosed by a red (indicating positive relationship) circle. Inversely, those with preference for low values of the corresponding environmental variable havetheir arrow-tips enclosed by a blue (indicating negative relationship) circle.

271 2.8. Compound-specific stable isotope carbon measurements

272 The carbon stable isotope composition of pre-purified PLFAs were determined using a 273 GC-C-IRMS system (Deltaplus XL, Finnigan MAT, Bremen, Germany) at the Max-Planck-274 Institute (MPI) for Biogeochemistry, Jena. Analyses were performed using 50% of the total 275 amount of PLFA extracts. The gas chromatograph (HP5890 GC, Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto 276 USA) was equipped with a DB1-ms column (60 m, 0.25 mm ID, 0.52 um film thickness, 277 Agilent). The injector at 280 °C was operated in splitless mode with a constant flow of 1 mL min⁻ ¹. The oven temperature was maintained for 1 min at 70 °C, heated with 5 °C min⁻¹ to 300 °C and 278 held for 15 min, then heated with 30 °C min⁻¹ to 330 °C and hold 3 min. Isotope values, 279 280 expressed in the delta notation (%), were calculated with ISODAT version software relative to 281 the reference CO_2 . Offset correction factor was determined on a daily basis using a reference mixture of *n*-alkanes (n- C_{17} to n- C_{33}) of known isotopic composition. The carbon isotopic 282 283 composition of the reference *n*-alkanes was determined off-line using a thermal conversion 284 elemental analyser (TC/EA) (Thermo-Fisher, Bremen, Germany) interfaced to the DELTA V 285 PLUS irMS system via a Conflo III combustion interface (Thermo-Fisher, Bremen, Germany; Werner and Brand, 2001). The contribution of the methyl carbon derived from the methanol after 286 287 mild- alkaline hydrolysis and methylation of the PLFAs to the FAME was removed by isotopic mass balance, with $\delta^{13}C_{PLFA} = [(N_{PLFA} + 1) \times \delta^{13}C_{FAME} - \delta^{13}C_{MeOH}] / N_{PLFA}$ where N is the number 288 of carbon atoms in the PLFA and $\delta^{13}C_{FAME}$ stands for the measured values of the methylated 289 290 PLFAs (Kramer and Gleixner, 2006). The carbon isotope composition of MeOH used for derivatisation (δ^{13} C value = -31.13 ± 0.03) was determined off-line using a thermal conversion 291

292	elemental	analyzer	(TC/EA)	(Thermo-Fisher,	Bremen,	Germany)	interfaced	to the	DELTA	V
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293 PLUS irMS system via a Conflo III combustion interface (Thermo-Fisher, Bremen, Germany).

294 **3. Results**

295 3.1. Groundwater physicochemistry

296 The deeper aquifer assemblage, HTL (wells H3.1, H4.1 and H5.1), had higher mean concentration of O_2 (3.7 ± 1.0 mgL⁻¹) than the shallow aquifer assemblage, HTU (wells H4.2, 297 298 H4.3, H5.2 and H5.3). Groundwater extracted from HTU wells were anoxic with $O_2 < 0.02 \text{ mgL}^2$ ¹ (Supplement Table S2 and Figure 2) except for well H3.2 that had mean $O_2 = 2.4 \pm 0.7 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$. 299 No significant differences in the content of dissolved organic carbon (DOC: mean = 2.3 ± 1.0 300 mgL⁻¹) were measured between the different aquifers. The HTL had higher mean concentration 301 of sulphate $(183.5 \pm 110.9 \text{ mgL}^{-1})$ than the anoxic HTU $(76.4 \pm 3.1 \text{ mgL}^{-1})$. The highest 302 concentrations of nitrate were measured in the well H3.2 ($30.0 \pm 3.3 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$) of the HTU. Higher 303 mean concentrations of total iron (Fe_t = $0.1 \pm 0.08 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$), TIC (86.6 ± 7.0 mgL⁻¹) and HCO₃⁻¹ 304 $(4.69 \pm 0.07 \text{ mgL}^{-1})$, the latter measured as acid neutralizing capacity (Wisotzky, 2011), were 305 306 found in the anoxic groundwater of the wells H4.2 and H4.3 than of the wells H5.2 and H5.3 that had mean $Fe_t = 0.01 \pm 0.00 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$, $TIC = 75.6 \pm 5.4 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$ and $HCO_3^{-1} = 4.02 \pm 0.2 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$ (Figure 307 2). Inversely, mean concentrations of total sulphur ($S_t = 26.1 \pm 4.9 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$), sulphate (76.7 ± 14.8 308 mgL⁻¹) and ammonium (0.62 \pm 0.16 mgL⁻¹) were higher in the anoxic groundwater of the wells 309 H5.2 and H5.3 than of the wells H4.2 and H4.3 that had mean $S_t = 12.3 \pm 0.5 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$, $SO_4^{2-} = 37.6$ 310 \pm 2.0 mgL $^{\text{-1}}$ and NH4 $^{\text{+}}$ = 0.13 \pm 0.06 mgL $^{\text{-1}}$ (Figure 2 and Supplement Table S2). 311



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324 *3.2. PLFA distribution and statistical analyses*

325 The 16:1 ω 7c (mean 22.2 ± 8.9%), 16:0 (mean 13.4 ± 2.3%) and 18:1 ω 7c (mean 5.2 ± 2.6%), common in most bacteria, were the most abundant PLFAs in both aquifer assemblages 326 (Supplement Table S1). The PLFAs 10Me16:0 (mean $7.8 \pm 5.6\%$), $17:1\omega6c$ (mean $1.2 \pm 1.0\%$) 327 328 and i17:1 (mean $0.8 \pm 0.7\%$) derived from Deltaproteobacteria mainly encompassing SRB, iron-329 reducing or iron-oxidizing bacteria were dominant only in the anoxic groundwater, whereas the 330 11Me16:0 (mean $4.2 \pm 4.7\%$) were found in high relative abundance in the oxic groundwaters. 331 The [3]- and [5]- ladderane PLFAs specific to anammox bacteria were found in the anoxic wells 332 H5.2 and H5.3 and the sub-oxic well H3.2 in a relative abundance of up to 5.0%. The highest 333 fungal biomass, based on the FunPLFA ratios (Table 3), was observed in the anoxic wells H4.2 334 and H4.3 (mean 19.0 \pm 7.8), whereas the lowest in the anoxic wells H5.2 and H5.3 (mean 1.9 \pm 2). The Gram negative (G-) bacteria were more abundant than Gram positive bacteria (G+) in both HTU and HTL (Table 3: mean G+/G- ratio = 0.4 ± 0.2). The highest values of the G+/Gratios were in the anoxic wells H4.2 and H4.3 (mean 0.7 ± 0.1).

338	A PCA analysis explained 56.5% of the PLFA variation with PC1 explaining 29.1%;
339	PC2, 15.9% and PC3, 11.5% of overall variability (Figure 4). It separated the wells into the same
340	groups evidenced by the PCA analysis of the groundwater chemistry (Figure 3). The wells of the
341	HTU assemblage were separated along PC1; wells from sites H4.2/H4.3 separated from those of
342	the sites H5.2/H5.3 Along PC2, the wells were separated between the oxic (well H3.1, H4.1 and
343	H5.1), sub-oxic (well H3.2) and anoxic groundwaters (H4.2, H4.3, H5.2, H.5.3). The RDA
344	analyses showed that O_2 , Fe_t and NH_4^+ concentrations or O_2 , HCO_3^- and NH_4^+ concentrations
345	explained the greatest proportion (39.9%) of the PLFA variability (Figure 5). Well grouping
346	obtained using the RDA analysis was consistent with the results of the PCA. The first RDA axis
347	(21.5%) separated the anoxic wells of the upper aquifer according to Fe_t or HCO_3^- (wells H4.2
348	and H4.3) and NH_4^+ (wells H5.2 and H5.3) concentration. The second RDA axis (14.6%)
349	separated suboxic to oxic (mainly lower aquifer) from anoxic groundwater (upper aquifer
350	assemblage). In the following discussion, the wells are separated according the PCA and RDA
351	analyses into these three main groups.

To identify the individual effects of O_2 , Fe_t and NH_4^+ on the explained PLFA variation, we used variation partitioning with conditional effects implemented in Canoco 5 (Heikkinen et al., 2004; Roth et al., 2015). Because these environmental variables were the most significant factors, their combined variation was set to explain 100% of total PLFA variation in each RDA plot. In our case, the following eight fractions explained the PLFA distribution by effect of O_2 alone; a = 19.7%, effect of NH_4^+ alone; b = 22.0%, effect of Fe_t alone; c = 13.4%, and by combined effects of O_2 and NH_4^+ ; d = 22.3%, by combined effects of Fe_t and NH_4^+ ; e = 29.2%,

and by combined effect of O_2 and Fe_t ; f = 25.9%. The fraction g (-32.4%) explained the 359 360 combined effect of the three environmental variables (Figure 6). The PLFA-environmental variable O_2 t-plot (Figure 6A) showed that the % relative abundance of Me15:0, 16:1 ω 11c, 361 362 cy17:0, 11Me16:0, 18:1, 22:5 and 22:6 increased significantly with O₂ concentration whereas 363 10Me12:0, i13:0, a15:0, 17:1 and [5]-ladderane % relative abundance decreased with O₂ 364 concentration. The PLFA-environmental variable Fet t-values biplot (Figure 6B) showed that 10Me12:0, 17:1, 18:1w9c, 18:1w7c and 12:0 % relative abundance increased with Fet 365 366 concentration, whereas 10Me16:0, i17:1, [3]-ladderane and [5]-ladderane % relative abundance decreased. Inversely, the PLFA-environmental variable NH₄⁺ t-values biplot (Figure 6C) showed 367 368 that 10Me16:0, 17:1, [3]-ladderane and [5]-ladderane % relative abundance increased with NH₄⁺ 369 concentration, whereas 10Me12:0, 12:0, 18:1ω9c, 18:1ω7c and 17:1 % relative abundance 370 decreased.

371 3.3. PLFA $\delta^{13}C$ values

The PLFA δ^{13} C values for individual compounds ranged from -26 to - 68.8‰ (Supplement 372 Table S3 and Figure 7). The most negative mean δ^{13} C values were found in the anoxic 373 groundwater from location H5.2 and H 5.3 (-48.0 \pm 10.5‰ and -45.9 \pm 11.7‰, respectively) and 374 375 in the suboxic groundwater at the location H3.2 (-45.4‰ \pm 9.0) and coincided with the presence 376 of the [5]- and [3]-ladderane. In those wells, the *i*13:0 (-52.4 \pm 2.0%), *i*15:0 (-55.6 \pm 2.0%), 10Me16:0 (-56.1 $\pm 2.1\%$) and i17:1 (-44.3 $\pm 2.0\%$) were slightly ¹³C-depleted compared to both 377 [5]- and [3]-ladderane (-65.6 \pm 2.0‰). More positive mean PLFA δ^{13} C values were measured in 378 379 the anoxic wells H4.2 and H4.3 (-36.8% \pm 2.1) and in the oxic wells H5.1, H4.1 and H3.1 (- $35.3\% \pm 1.1$). In those wells, the δ^{13} C values of the i13:0, *i*15:0 and 10Me16:0 were in the same 380 range as the other PLFA (Figure 7). The most positive δ^{13} C values were measured for 16:1 ω 11c 381

and 11Me16:0 in the oxic wells H5.1 and H4.1 (mean -28.2‰ \pm 2.5) and for 18:1 ω 9c (mean -383 30.2‰ \pm 2.3) in the anoxic wells H4.2 and H4.3.

384 *3.4.* Bacterial community composition based on 16S rRNA gene sequences

385 Based on Illumina sequencing of DNA-based 16S rRNA gene amplicons, bacterial 386 communities were largely dominated by members of the phylum Nitrospirae and of Candidate 387 Division OD1, followed by Delta- and Betaproteobacteria, Planctomycetes, Alpha- and 388 Gammaproteobacteria (Figure 8A). Members of the Nitrospirae were especially abundant in the 389 groundwater of the anoxic wells H5.2 and H5.3 as well as the oxic wells H4.1 and H5.1, while 390 this phylum only contributed a minor fraction in the groundwater of the anoxic wells H4.2 and 391 H4.3 and the oxic wells H3.1 and H3.2 (Figure 8A). In addition, we performed sequencing of 16S 392 rRNA amplicons derived from the extracted RNA to get insight into which taxonomic groups 393 harbor protein synthesis potential as proposed by Blazewicz et al. (2013). RNA-based community 394 analysis targeting 16S rRNA sequences has traditionally been used as an approximation of the 395 currently active fraction of the microbial community. However, this interpretation is critical since 396 many cells may retain high ribosome contents even in a dormant state (Filion et al., 2009; 397 Sukenik et al., 2012) and thus, rRNA content of cells does not necessarily indicate current 398 metabolic activity, especially in low-nutrient environments such as groundwater (reviewed in 399 Blazewicz et al., 2013). Here, we used this approach to investigate whether key microbial groups 400 identified by PLFA-based analysis were supported to be metabolically active or have the 401 potential to resume metabolic activities based on the detection of the corresponding 16S rRNA 402 gene sequences on the RNA level. In general, members of the Candidate Division OD1 formed 403 only a minor part of the community obtained by RNA-based amplicon sequencing while 404 members of the phyla Nitrospirae, Planctomycetes, and Proteobacteria showed the largest relative abundances (Figure 8B). Members of the phylum Nitrospirae were especially highly represented
in the RNA-based analyses of wells H3.2, H4.1, and H5.2 and H5.3. Among the Proteobacteria,
Deltaproteobacteria were more frequently represented in the RNA-based analysis of communities
of wells H3.1, H3.2, H5.2, and H5.3 while Alphaproteobacteria showed a higher relative
abundance in the groundwater of wells H4.2, H4.3 and H5.1 (Figure 8B).

410 Bacterial phyla and classes may harbor organisms with a high diversity of different metabolisms. Therefore, as some source specific PLFA displayed strong relationships with the 411 412 environmental variables O_2 , NH_4^+ , and Fe_t , we specifically focused on groups potentially 413 involved in iron oxdiation and reduction, sulphate reduction, anammox, and nitrite oxidation. 414 Here, relative fractions of reads assigned to bacterial genera known to be involved in either of 415 these processes were summed up to get an estimation of the potential for these processes within 416 the microbial community with both DNA- and RNA-based analyses. On the level of DNA-based 417 sequencing, bacteria involved in iron oxidation accounted for 0.25 to 6.2% of the sequence reads 418 across sites (Figure 9A) while they accounted for 0.24 to 2.8% on the level of the RNA-based 419 analyses with the highest relative fraction of bacteria potentially involved in iron oxidation at 420 wells H5.1 and H5.3 (Figure 9B). Differences across sites and aquifers were more pronounced for 421 bacteria involved in iron reduction, which were accounted for by 0.16 to 3.7% of the sequence 422 reads on the DNA level but for 0.15 to 20.4% on the RNA level with the highest number of 423 sequence reads affiliated with known iron reducers in the groundwater of well H4.3 (Figure 9B). 424 Bacteria related to the genera Acidiferrobacter, Gallionella, and Sideroxydans were the most 425 frequent genera among the known iron oxidizers while members of the genera Albidiferax and 426 Ferribacterium dominated the iron reducing groups. Bacterial groups potentially involved in 427 sulphur reduction included the genera Desulfacinum, Desulfovibrio, Desulfosporosinus, 428 Desulfatiferula as the most frequent groups and accounted for 0.2 to 2.8% of the sequence reads 429 on the DNA level and 0.4 to 10.4% on the RNA level with the maximum in the anoxic well H4.2 430 (Figure 9). Anammox bacteria mostly represented by the Candidatus genera Brocadia and 431 Kuenenia accounted for 0.6 to 3.0% of the sequence reads on the DNA level and for 1.1 to 16.8% 432 on the RNA level with the highest fractions in the groundwater of the wells H3.1, H5.1, H5.2 and 433 H5.3 (Figure 9). Finally, we observed large fractions of potential nitrite oxidizers mostly related 434 to the genus Nitrospira with the vast majority of the Nitrospira-affiliated reads especially in the 435 lower aquifer assemblage showing a high sequence similarity to the 16S rRNA gene sequence of 436 Nitrospira moscoviensis (96 - 99%). Moreover, reads associated with the genus Nitrospira may 437 also include potential comammox organisms (Pinto et al., 2016). Relative fractions of sequence 438 reads affiliated with this genus on the DNA and RNA level were highest in the oxic groundwater 439 as the well H4.1 and lowest in the anoxic groundwater of wells H4.2 and H5.2 (Figure 9). Since 440 nitrifiers such as Nitrospira are known to retain a high ribosome content even if cells are not 441 active (Morgenroth et al., 2000), these results do not necessarily indicate high nitrite oxidation 442 activity at the time point of sampling but point to nitrite oxidizers forming a large fraction of the 443 microbial community with protein synthesis potential.

444 **4. Discussion**

445 4.1. PLFAs distribution

The PCA of PLFAs indicated that the oxic/suboxic and anoxic groundwaters had distinct bacterial communities, with the anoxic groundwater additionally differentiated into two distinct bacterial communities (Figure 4). Of the environmental variables tested, the variation partitioning showed that NH_4^+ , O_2 and Fe_t concentration explained 22.0%, 19.7% and 13.4% of the PLFA variations, respectively (Figure 6), and differentiated those three bacterial communities. Variation 451 partitioning analyses revealed, along those environmental variables, clusters of covarying PLFAs 452 that may originate from the same functional group of organisms or closely affiliated organisms 453 that react similarly to certain environmental conditions. While the ladderanes are unequivocally 454 attributed to anammox bacteria (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2002; 2005), the other PLFAs are not 455 exclusive to a phylogenetic or functional microbial group which complicates their use to 456 understand the role of microbes in environments. The t-value biplots of variation partitioning 457 analyses evidenced the PLFAs that significantly correlated with the environmental variables O₂ (Figure 6A) Fe_t (Figure 6B) and NH_4^+ (Figure 6C), and provided better insights into the 458 459 functional diversity of active microorganisms in the subdivided groundwaters. Additional 460 supports of the bacterial community structure, assessed by the PLFA patterns, were found in the 461 16S rRNA-based results. Although a large fraction of the microbial community remains poorly 462 classified and thus precludes the knowledge of the metabolic capacities, high sequence similarity 463 to genera known to be involved in iron oxidation or reduction, sulphate reduction, anammox and 464 nitrite oxidation allowed an estimation of the fraction of the microbial population potentially 465 involved in these processes. By combining the PLFA-based and sequencing-based approaches, 466 we aimed, here, to compensate for biases introduced by PCR as well as for the limited 467 phylogenetic resolution of PLFA-based analysis. This combined approach resulted in highly 468 supported evidences of some key microbial players and associated biogeochemical processes in 469 physicochemical distinct aquifer assemblages of the aquifer transect.

470 4.1.1. PLFA cluster in oxic to suboxic groundwater (wells 5.1, 4.1, 3.1 and (3.2))

A cluster of the covarying 20:4, 20:5, 22:5 and 22:6 PLFAs has to our knowledge heretofore never been observed in groundwater. Associations of those PLFAs have been commonly found in eukaryotes as microalgae (Volkman et al., 1989), fungi (Kennedy et al., 1993; Olsson, 1999), particularly ectomycorrhizal fungi (Shinmen et al., 1989), higher plants (Qi et al., 2004) and 475 protozoans (White, 1988). Protozoa act as detritivores and are expected to be key predators in the 476 microbial loop feeding on different subsets of the bacterial communities and other protozoa (Brad 477 et al., 2008; Akob and Küsel, 2011). Consistently, sessile and free swimming suspension feeding 478 flagellates, e.g., Spumella sp., mobile naked amoebae and ciliates could be detected in this aquifer with a cultivable protist abundance of up to 8.000 cells L^{-1} (Risse-Buhl et al., 2013). 18S 479 480 rRNA gene sequences also revealed high relative fractions of Spumella-like Stramenopiles, and 481 sequences affiliated with fungi and metazoan grazers. DNA based pyro-tag sequencing of fungal 482 internal transcribed spacer (ITS) sequences revealed a fungi community structure dominated by 483 Ascomycota and Basidiomycota (Nawaz et al., 2016) with the majority of the observed fungal 484 groups being involved in ectomycorrhizal symbioses. In general, the abundance of micro-485 eukaryotes in pristine groundwater is estimated to be low, because they are limited in nutrients, 486 space, and are unable to cope with oxygen limitations (Akob and Küsel, 2011). Consistently, they 487 are commonly found in higher concentrations in OM-rich contaminated groundwaters (Ludvigsen 488 et al., 1997). In pristine aquifers, the origin of those eukaryotic organisms is difficult to determine 489 as they may be autochthonous, allochthonous or both. In the studied sites, the close relation of 490 eukaryotic PLFA biomarkers with O_2 concentrations (Figure 6A) suggests their association with 491 recharging groundwater within larger conduits prone to faster water flow. Freshly introduced 492 surface OC and O_2 could fuel the heterotrophic bacterial growth in groundwater. This may 493 subsequently stimulate protists that selectively graze on the prokaryotic biomass and result in the 494 observed relationship between the eukaryotic PLFAs and the O₂ concentration. It is possible to 495 speculate that some surface microorganisms would also survive the transport from surface to the 496 aquifer (Dibbern et al., 2014), especially if the transport is fast. In this case, high cy17:0 to 497 $16:1\omega7c$ ratios (Table 3) may evidence physiological stress due to change of the environmental 498 conditions within the gram negative communities (Balkwill et al., 1998).

499 The 16:1011c and particularly the 11Me16:0 are major components of *Nitrospira* 500 moscoviensis (Lipski et al., 2001) cell membranes, an obligatory chemolithoautotrophic nitrite-501 oxidizing bacterium (NOB: Ehrich et al., 1995). In the oxic groundwater, the occurrence of 16S 502 rRNA gene sequence reads closely related to Nitrospira moscoviensis (Herrmann et al., 2015) 503 further supports the potential of 11Me16:0 as biomarker for Nitrospira moscoviensis and 504 confirms previous assumptions about an important role of nitrite oxidizers within the autotrophic 505 community of the lower aquifers (Herrmann et al., 2015). The correlation of 11Me16:0 and 506 16:1ω11c with O₂ (Figure 6A) indicated the occurrence of active nitrification in oxic zones of the 507 aquifers in agreement with observation of experiments (Satoh et al., 2003). Nitrospira use the 508 reverse tricarboxylic acid cycle as the pathway for CO₂ fixation (Lücker et al., 2010) which leads to small 13 C fractionation (2 - 6‰) between biomass and CO₂ (van der Meer et al., 1998). The 509 ¹³C-enrichment of 11Me16:0 and 16:1ω11c relative to the other PLFAs (up to 18‰ in well H4.1) 510 511 supports thus major Nitrospira contribution to those PLFAs found in oxic groundwaters (Figure 512 7).

513 4.1.2. PLFA cluster in anoxic Fe_t richer groundwater (wells H4.2 and H4.3)

514 In groundwater the concentration of dissolved iron is often inversely related to oxygen as O_2 515 in water will chemically oxidize iron that will precipitate as insoluble iron-hydroxides at neutral 516 pH. In the wells H4.2/4.3, the increase of the PLFAs 10Me12:0, 12:0, 17:1, 18:107c and 517 18:1 ω 9c with concentrations of Fe_t, Fe₂⁺ and HCO₃⁻ (Figure 5 and 6B) and the DNA- and RNA-518 based analyses (Figure 9) suggested degradation of OM by anaerobic iron-reducing bacteria. 519 Because many iron-reducing bacteria are highly versatile, i.e. they can use different metal 520 substrates as electron acceptors coupled to the oxidation of the OM (Coleman et al., 1993; 521 Lovley et al., 1993; Holmes et al., 2004), specific PLFAs linked to the reduction of iron in 522 anoxic environments are poorly described. The two most studied genera of IRB are Geobacter and *Shewanella* which contain most of those PLFAs (Coleman et al., 1993; Lovley et al., 1993;
Hedrick et al., 2009). However none of these PLFAs are specific to a certain genus or species.
The 17:1 is generally related to anaerobic SRB (Dowling et al., 1986) as *Desulfobulbus* (Parkes and Calder, 1985; Macalady et al., 2000) but also occur in dissimilatory iron-reducing bacteria as *Shewanella* (Coleman et al., 1993). The ability of some sulphate reducers to reduce iron rather than sulphate has long been recognized in groundwater (Coleman et al., 1993).

529 The 18:109c is common and abundant in fungi (Frostegård and Bååth, 1996; Kaiser et al., 530 2010), but may also occur in micro-algae (Arts et al., 2001) and gram-negative bacteria 531 (Kandeler, 2007). The 18:109c, 18:206,9 and 18:306 are typically used as fungi biomarkers in 532 soil (Frostegård and Bååth, 1996; Bååth and Anderson, 2003; Ruzicka et al., 2000) and more 533 particularly for saprotrophs (Etingoff, 2014). The correlations between 18:109c, 18:206,9 and 534 18:3\omega6 suggested a major fungal origin of those PLFAs in the studied groundwaters. In soil, 535 fungi are well known for their role in accelerating weathering and solubilisation of iron-536 containing minerals by excreting organic acids including phenolic compounds, siderophores, 537 and protons (Arrieta and Grez, 1971; Landeweert et al., 2001). By forming dense hyphae 538 tunnelling in soils and shallow rocks, fungi mediate and facilitate iron transport in plants and 539 increase iron availability in the environment (van Schöll et al., 2008). Therefore, several studies 540 have linked enhanced rates of iron cycling to the presence of fungal biomass (Gadd, 2010). 541 Moreover, in a recent study, it is been shown that rhizoplanes are important root channels for 542 preferential vertical transport from soil to seepage area of soil colloids including microbes 543 (Dibbern et al., 2014). Limitation of ferric iron may restrain the growth and activity of IRB in 544 subsurface (O'Neil et al., 2008). In the groundwater of wells H4.2 and H4.3, the close relation of 545 $18:1\omega9c$ and $18:2\omega6,9$ with Fe_t concentration (Figure 6B) suggested that fungal biomass may,

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by mediating and facilitating the transport of different types of organic/inorganic particles and colloids, play a key role in iron bioavailability and thus sustain IRB growth and activity.

548 4.1.3. PLFA cluster in anoxic NH_4^+ richer groundwater (wells H5.2 and H5.3 and (3.2))

549 To our knowledge, this is the first time phospholipid [3]-ladderane and [5]-ladderane, 550 which attest the presence of viable or recently degraded anammox bacteria (Jaeschke et al., 551 2009), have been identified in groundwater. The occurrence of anammox bacteria in those 552 groundwaters is consistent with the DNA- and RNA-based analyses (Figure 9) and coincided 553 with higher concentrations of ammonium (Figure 2). The difference between DIC and ladderanes δ^{13} C values of 55‰ was within the range previously reported for anammox in Black Sea 554 555 (Schouten et al., 2004), further suggesting that autotrophic carbon fixation pathways within the 556 diverse group of anaerobic ammonium-oxidizing bacteria are similar (Schouten et al., 2004). In 557 the sub-oxic (well H3.2) and anoxic groundwaters (well H5.2 and H5.3), the increasing 558 concentration of ladderane lipids derived from anammox bacteria with decreasing O_2 559 concentration (Figure 6A) agrees well with the reported high sensitivity of the anammox process 560 to O_2 (Kalvelage et al., 2011). Denitrification and anammox are the dominant nitrogen loss 561 pathways in aquatic ecosystems (Burgin and Hamilton, 2008; Koeve and Kähler, 2010). The 562 occurrence of lipids derived from anammox bacteria in those groundwaters indicates that the 563 anammox process may be critically important in the nitrogen loss from this part of the aquifer 564 assemblage.

High amounts of 10Me16:0 are typically found in SRB (Dowling et al., 1986; Vainshtein et al., 1992; Kohring et al., 1994) but also occur in anammox bacteria (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2002). Anammox bacteria strongly fractionate against ¹³C, producing ladderane lipids which are ¹³C-depleted by 47‰ compared to the inorganic carbon source (Schouten et al., 2004). Relative to ladderanes, SRB-derived lipids are expected to be ¹³C-enriched as cultured SRB under heterotrophic and autotrophic growth fractionated against ¹³C by up 27‰ (Londry et al., 2004). Therefore, the ¹³C-enrichment of 10Me16:0 (up to 19‰) relative to the ladderanes supported major SRB contribution to the 10Me16:0 found in these groundwaters. The i13:0, *i*15:0 and i17:1 are typically, as 10Me16:0, associated with SRB (Edlund et al., 1985; Kohring et al., 1994). In those groundwaters, similar δ^{13} C values, in the -44 to -56‰ range, also supported a common SRB origin of those PLFAs (Londry et al., 2004).

576 Variation partitioning analyses showed that the concentrations of [3]-ladderane, [5]ladderane, 10Me16:0 and i17:1 correlated with NH_4^+ concentration (Figure 6C). Many studies in 577 578 other aquatic environments showed that the relative importance of the anammox process is directly related to the availability of NH_4^+ (Dalsgaard and Thamdrup, 2002; Kuypers et al., 579 580 2003). Commonly, the breakdown of OM via ammonification or dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonia (DNRA) is presumed the major sources of NH₄⁺ for anammox (Kartal et al., 2007). 581 582 However, the recent discovery of comammox organisms capable of complete nitrification 583 underlines the complexity of the nitrogen cycle and the variability of ammonium sources for 584 anammox (van Kessel et al., 2015). The availability of OM is known as an additional important 585 factor influencing the anammox process. Higher anammox activity has been observed in OM-586 poor environments and interpreted as a decrease in competition for NO_2^- by heterotrophic 587 denitrifiers (Hu et al., 2011). Consistently, high anammox activity was observed in redox zones 588 associated to sulphate reduction or sulphur oxidation (Mills et al., 2006; Canfield et al., 2010; 589 Prokopenko et al., 2013; Wenk et al., 2013). In the groundwater of the wells H5.2 and H5.3, the 590 occurrence of anammox bacteria and SRB supported low groundwater-surface interactions which 591 likely threatened the availability of generically favourable electron acceptors and labile OM.

592 **5.** Conclusion

593 In this study, we used constrained ordination to evidence environmental variables that 594 significantly correlated with PLFA relative abundances in groundwater of distinct carbonate-rock 595 aquifer assemblages. This technique shows that the active subsurface microbial communities were mainly affected by variations in dissolved O_2 , Fe_t and NH_4^+ concentrations. Variation 596 597 portioning identified PLFA-based microbial functional groups that were directly supported by 598 results of DNA- and RNA-based amplicon sequencing targeting bacterial 16S rRNA genes. 599 Higher O₂ concentration resulted in increased eukaryotic biomass and higher relative fractions of 600 nitrite oxidizing bacteria (e.g. Nitrospira moscoviensis) but impeded anammox bacteria, sulphate-601 reducing bacteria and iron reducing bacteria. In anoxic groundwater, concomitant increase of 602 total iron (Fe_t), HCO₃⁻ and PLFAs abundant in gram-negative bacteria and fungi suggested the 603 occurrence of active dissimilatory iron-reduction and a possible role of fungi in meditating iron 604 solubilisation and transport in those aquifer assemblages. The relative abundance of PLFA derived from anammox bacteria correlated with NH_4^+ concentrations, showing the dependence of 605 the anammox process on the availability of NH₄⁺. Our study shows that different relationships 606 607 among the microbial community structures, estimated based on both the PLFA patterns and 16S 608 rRNA gene-targeted next generation sequencing, reflected changes in the physiological strategies 609 of microorganisms related to a decrease in substrate bioavailability and redox potential of the 610 groundwater.

611

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Lipid marker	Interpretation	references
branched PLFAs	Gram-positive bacteria	Harwood and Russell (1984)
mono-saturated PLFAs	Gram-negative bacteria	Wilkinson (1988)
10Me18:0	Actinomycetes	Zogg et al. (1997); Zelles (1999)
18:1ω9c. 18:2ω6c, 18:3ω6c, 18:3ω3c	Fungi	Frostegard and Bååth (1996)
10Me16:0, cy18:0(ω7,8)	Desulfobacter	Dowling et al. (1986)
11Me16:0. 16:1ω11	Nitrospira moscoviensis	Lipski et al. (2001)
i17 :1@7c, i15 :1@7c, i19:1@7c	Desulfovibrio	Edlung et al. (1985), Kohring et al. (1994)
17:1ω6, 15:1	Desulfobulbus	Parkes and Calder (1985), Macalady et al. (2000)
i17 :1 ω5, 10Me18:1 ω6, 11Me18:1 ω6	Thiobacillus	Kerger et al. (1986, 1987)
20:2@6, 20:3@6, 20:4@6, 22:5, 22:6	Fungi, <i>Protozoa,</i> Algea	Kennedy et al.(1993), Olsson (1999), White (1988); Volkman et al. (1989)
[3]-ladderane, [5]-ladderane	anammox	Sinninghe Damsté et al. (2002, 2005)

Table 1. Lipid markers proposed to represent a group or genus of microorganisms

well name	aquifer assemblage	well depth* (m)	Sampling dates	Stratigraphic unit	Notes
H3.1	HTL	42.7-46.7	June 14	moTK	well almost dry. Pumped only 100L
H3.2	HTU	15-22	June, September 14	moM	well dry in December 14
H4.1	HTL	44.5-47.5	June, September 14	moTK	well not accessible in December 14
H4.2	HTU	8.5-11.5	June, September 14	moM	well not accessible in December 14
H4.3	HTU	8.5-12.5	June, September 14	moM	well not accessible in December 14
H5.1	HTL	84-88	June, September, December 14	moTK	
H5.2	HTU	65-69	June, September, December 14	moM	
H5.3	HTU	47-50	June, September, December 14	moM	

Table 2: Well depths, sampling dates and stratigraphic units of the studied monitoring wells.

*depth of well screen section below surface; HTL: Hainich transect lower aquifer assemblage; HTU: Hainich transect upper aquifer assemblage; moTK: Upper Muschelkalk, Trochitenkalk formation; moM: Upper Muschelkalk, Meissner formation

	FunPLFA	std	G-	std	G+	std	FunPLFA /BactPLFA	std	G+/G-	std	cy17:0/16@7c	std
HTL	7.8	3.3	27.2	7.1	8.9	2.6	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1
HTU	8.2	9.2	29.4	8.0	11.4	4.4	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.0	0.0
H4.2/H4.3	19.0	7.8	25.5	4.5	16.3	1.5	0.5	0.2	0.7	0.1	0.0	0.0
H5.2/H5.3	1.9	2.0	34.0	8.4	9.5	3.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0

Table 3: FunPLFA/BactPLFA, G-/G+ and cy17:0/16:1007c ratios averaged in the upper aquifer (HTU) and lower aquifer (HTL) and in the anoxic groundwater at location H4 and H5.

PLFA	H3.2	std	H4.2	std	H4.3	std	H5.2	std	H5.3	std	H3.1	std	H4.1	std	H5.1	std
<i>i</i> 13:0	-39.2	3.5	-42.9		-37.7	0.8	-53.6	1.6	-51.2	10.3	-38.8		-40.7	1.8	-40.4	3.4
<i>a</i> 15:0	-40.3	0.7	-40.8		-35.9	0.3	-45.4	1.4	-43.0	2.8			-40.5	0.8	-37.1	1.5
<i>i</i> 15:0	-43.7	0.0	-47.4		-36.3	0.8	-55.0	3.3	-56.8	12.7			-46.0	0.8	-42.1	2.5
16:17ωc	-47.4	0.6	-37.9	1.6	-36.0	2.3	-44.9	2.3	-44.3	1.3	-42.1		-40.0	3.8	-40.2	2.1
16:1ω11c	-44.4	2.4	-40.5	1.8	-36.0	4.0	-36.0	1.7	-34.6	4.1	-39.4		-27.8	2.4	-28.1	0.7
C16:0	-45.2	3.0	-34.8	2.6	-34.4	1.2	-45.3	2.4	-42.9	3.4	-36.4		-34.3	1.0	-35.4	2.2
10Me16:0	-49.9	0.9			-42.7		-57.6	3.3	-54.6	7.4	-42.2				-40.0	2.2
11Me16:0	-30.5										-28.3		-26.5	0.6	-25.7	2.5
cy17:0											-33.2				-26.3	1.6
i17:1	-45.1						-42.6	2.0	-46.1							
18:1ω9c	-34.0	0.5	-30.2	0.1	-30.9	3.5	-36.7	1.8	-33.4	0.0	-32.1		-31.4	0.0	-31.0	1.4
18:1ω7c	-42.5	0.3	-32.5	0.3	-32.2	1.8	-39.6	2.3	-40.2	2.1	-32.4		-34.9	2.5	-34.6	1.2
18:1 ω5 c			-33.5		-30.0				-31.7		-35.1		-31.6			
18:0	-35.5	4.4	-42.1	1.0	-36.7	1.3	-36.1		-33.5		-32.9		-32.9		-31.5	1.7
cy19:0	-45.2															
20:4	-42.3												-33.1	1.0	-34.7	0.9
20:5	-41.0												-33.4	0.0		
[3]-lad	-62.9						-64.0	0.3	-63.7	0.8						
[5]-lad	-68.8						-67.0	0.9	-67.7	1.5						
mean	-44.6		-38.3	1.2	-35.4		-48.0		-46.0		-35.7		-34.9		-34.4	
std	9.4		5.4	1.0	3.5		10.5		11.4		4.5		5.5		5.5	

Table 4: PLFA δ^{13} C values averaged for the sampled month in the different wells



modified from Küsel et al. 2016

Figure. 1: Schematic geological cross section of the Hainich monitoring well transect (without karst features). The wells sampled for this study are numbered in black. The black colors in the wells indicate screen sections and accessed depths of the aquifer assemblages. Abbreviations: mm: Middle Muschelkalk; mo: Upper Muschelkalk; moTK: Trochitenkalk formation; moM & CB: Meissner formation with Cycloides-Bank; moW: Warburg formation; ku: Lower Keuper.



Figure 2: Variations of the chemical compositions of the groundwaters relevant for the discussion. HTL and HTU refer to the wells of the lower and upper aquifer assemblage, respectively.

Chemical compositions of the groundwater of the wells H4.2/4.3 and H5.2/5.3 of the HTU are given separately for comparison.

Schwab and al., FIG. 2



Figure 3: Principal component analysis (PCA) of the groundwater physicochemical compositions. Vectors indicate the steepest increase of the respective physicochemical parameter. The different wells are represented by dots with different colours: blue for oxic groundwater, yellow for sub-oxic groundwater, dark red and violet for anoxic groundwater richer in Fe_t and NH₄⁺. Note the separation between the lower and upper aquifer (HTL and HTU, respectively) and the anoxic wells at location H4.2/4.3 and H5.2/5.3.



Figure 4: Principal component analysis (PCA) of PLFAs composition. The different wells are represented by dots with different colours: blue for oxic groundwater, yellow for sub-oxic/oxic groundwater, dark red and violet for anoxic groundwater richer in Fe_t and NH_4^+ . Note the separation between the lower and upper aquifer (HTL and HTU, respectively) and the anoxic wells at location H4.2/4.3 and H5.2/5.3.



Figure 5: Redundancy analysis (RDA) of PLFAs, used as species, and the most significant environmental parameters $O_{2,} NH_4^+$ and Fe_t that explained 39.9% of the variability. The different wells are represented by dots with different colours: blue for oxic groundwater, yellow for sub-oxic groundwater, dark red and violet for anoxic groundwater richer in Fe_t and NH₄⁺.



Figure 6: Variation partitioning t-value biplots showing the PLFAs significantly correlated with the environmental variables (A) O_2 , (B) Fet and (C) NH_4^+ . Results of the significance test of the variation partitioning are shown in the associated table. The PLFAs are represented by arrows projecting from the origin. Concentration changes, between sampling data, of a particular PLFA is significantly related to concentration changes of the environmental variables, when the arrow-tip of those PLFA is enclosed within circles. The arrow-tip is enclosed within the red circle for positive correlation and inversely within the blue circle for negative correlation.



Figure 7: PLFA δ^{13} C values averaged in the different wells for June, September and December. The dotted and full lines represent the δ^{13} C values of 11Me16:0 and ladderanes associated with nitrite oxidizing bacteria (e.g. *Nitrospira moscoviensis*) and anammox bacteria, respectively.



- others
- Candidate Division TM7
- Verrucomicrobia
- Lentisphaerae
- Cyanobacteria
- Elusimicrobia
- Acidobacteria
- Chlorobi
- BD1-5
- Candidate Division OP3
- Firmicutes
- Bacteroides
- Actinobacteria
- Chloroflexi
- Gammaproteobacteria
- Alphaproteobacteria
- Planctomycetes
- Betaproteobacteria
- Deltaproteobacteria
- Candidate Division OD1
- Nitrospirae

Figure 8: Taxonomic classification (phylum level) of the bacterial communities in the groundwater of the eight different wells from the upper aquifer assemblages (HTU) or the lower aquifer (HTL). (A) Bacterial communities based on sequencing of 16S rRNA genes from extracted genomic DNA. (B) Bacterial communities based on sequencing of RNA-derived 16S rRNA amplicons.



others

- Nitrospira moscoviensis-related
- other nitrite oxidizers
- anammox bacteria
- sulfate reducers
- iron reducing bacteria
- iron oxidizing bacteria

Figure 9: Fractions of sequence reads affiliated with iron oxidizing or iron reducing bacteria, sulfatereducing bacteria, anammox bacteria, and nitrite oxidizers moscoviensis-related (Nitrospira and others) within the bacterial community (A) **DNA-based** analysis, (B) RNA-based analysis. Only those sequence reads were considered which were unambiguously classified to described taxa on the genus level.