A hydrogen dependent geochemical analogue of primordial carbon and energy metabolism

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Editorial Summary

Three iron minerals found in alkaline hydrothermal vents are shown to convert CO$_2$ and H$_2$ into formate, acetate and pyruvate in water, suggesting that such reactions could have paved the way for early metabolism.

Abstract

Hydrogen gas, H$_2$, is generated by alkaline hydrothermal vents through an ancient geochemical process called serpentinization in which water reacts with iron containing minerals deep within the Earth's crust. H$_2$ is the electron donor for the most ancient and the only energy releasing route of biological CO$_2$ fixation, the acetyl-CoA pathway. At the origin of metabolism, CO$_2$ fixation by hydrothermal H$_2$ within serpentinizing systems could have preceded and patterned biotic pathways. Here we show that three hydrothermal minerals—greigite (Fe$_3$S$_4$), magnetite (Fe$_3$O$_4$) and awaruite (Ni$_3$Fe)—catalyse the fixation of CO$_2$ with H$_2$ at 100°C under alkaline aqueous conditions. The product spectrum includes formate (up to 200 mM), acetate (up to 100 µM), pyruvate (up to 10 µM), methanol (up to 100 µM), and methane. The results shed light on both the geochemical origin of microbial metabolism and on the nature of abiotic formate and methane synthesis in modern hydrothermal vents.

Organic synthesis in hydrothermal vents is relevant to life's origin because the reactions involve sustained energy release founded in the disequilibrium between CO$_2$ and the vast amounts of molecular hydrogen, H$_2$, generated in the Earth's crust during serpentinization$^{1-9}$. Hydrogen has been a source of electrons and energy since there was liquid water on the early Earth and it fuelled early anaerobic ecosystems in the Earth's crust$^{1,8,10}$. In biochemistry, the acetyl-CoA pathway of CO$_2$ fixation uses the electrons and energy of H$_2$ to simultaneously supply three key requirements for life: reduced carbon in the form of acetyl groups, electrons in the form of reduced ferredoxin, and ion gradients for energy conservation in the form of ATP$^{11,12}$. The pathway is linear, not cyclic, it releases energy rather than requiring energy input and its enzymes are replete with primordial metal cofactors$^{13,14}$. It traces to the last universal common ancestor$^{15}$ and abiotic, geochemical organic syntheses resembling segments of the pathway occur in hydrothermal modern vents$^{2,3}$. Laboratory simulations of the acetyl-CoA pathway’s reactions include the nonenzymatic synthesis of thioesters from CO and methylsulfide$^{16}$, the synthesis of acetate$^{17}$ and pyruvate$^{18}$ from CO$_2$ using native iron or external electrochemical
potentials\textsuperscript{19} as the electron source. Enzymatic versions of those abiotic reactions occur in core energy metabolism of acetogens and methanogens\textsuperscript{11–14}, ancient anaerobic autotrophs that live from H\textsubscript{2} and CO\textsubscript{2} via the acetyl-CoA pathway and that still inhabit the crust today\textsuperscript{14}. Though the enzymes that catalyse the modern microbial reactions are well investigated\textsuperscript{11–14}, the catalysts promoting the abiotic reactions in vents today, and that might have been instrumental at life's origin, are poorly understood\textsuperscript{2}. A fully abiotic analogue of the acetyl-CoA pathway from H\textsubscript{2} and CO\textsubscript{2} as it occurs in life has not been reported to date.

To probe the mechanisms of hydrothermal metabolic reactions emulating ancient pathways, we investigated three different iron minerals that naturally occur in hydrothermal systems: greigite (Fe\textsubscript{3}S\textsubscript{4}), magnetite (Fe\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{4}), and the nickel iron alloy awaruite (Ni\textsubscript{3}Fe). Magnetite (Fe\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{4}) and awaruite (Ni\textsubscript{3}Fe) are common constituents of serpentinizing systems\textsuperscript{20} and are more stable under alkaline conditions than greigite\textsuperscript{21,22}. Fe\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{4}, like H\textsubscript{2}, is a main end product of serpentinization, it is formed from water dependent oxidation of iron(II) silicates\textsuperscript{23}. In chemical industry, iron based materials are the catalysts of choice for diverse industrial processes including Haber-Bosch (fixation of N\textsubscript{2}) and Fischer-Tropsch syngas (CO and H\textsubscript{2}) conversion to hydrocarbons\textsuperscript{7}. Ni\textsubscript{3}Fe is an intermetallic compound that forms in serpentinizing systems at high H\textsubscript{2} partial pressures and very low H\textsubscript{2}S fugacities\textsuperscript{5,20}, via the reduction of iron(II) and nickel(II) compounds. It is common in Ni-containing serpentinizing systems, where it is usually deposited as small grains\textsuperscript{20}. Fe\textsubscript{3}S\textsubscript{4} is formed under conditions of high H\textsubscript{2}S activity\textsuperscript{5,21}, as a transient intermediate in the conversion of mackinawite to pyrite\textsuperscript{22,24}; it shares structural similarity with the iron sulfur clusters of many modern enzymes\textsuperscript{6}. Iron sulfides can be found at the surface of hydrothermal vents as small compartments\textsuperscript{21} or as nanoparticles in hydrothermal plumes\textsuperscript{25} as well as in meteorites\textsuperscript{26}. Iron minerals have long been regarded as ancient catalysts\textsuperscript{5,16,27} although the key initial reaction connecting the inorganic and the organic world—CO\textsubscript{2} fixation with H\textsubscript{2} as the reductant—has not been reported using iron mineral catalysts under biologically relevant conditions\textsuperscript{19}. 
Results

Although very different in structure and composition (Fig. 1), greigite, magnetite and awaruite are geochemically synthesised in hydrothermal systems from pre-existing divalent iron and nickel minerals during serpentinization\textsuperscript{5,8,28}. X-ray diffraction (XRD) applied to our laboratory preparations of colloidal Fe\textsubscript{3}S\textsubscript{4} and Ni\textsubscript{3}Fe nanoparticles (for details of synthesis, see Methods) as well as commercial Fe\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{4} reveals their characteristic patterns of crystal structures (Fig. 1).

Building on evidence for catalytic reactivity in previous reports\textsuperscript{16–19}, we investigated the ability of greigite, magnetite and awaruite to promote the reduction of CO\textsubscript{2} with H\textsubscript{2} in water. Under very mild hydrothermal conditions—at 100 °C under 2 bar H\textsubscript{2}/CO\textsubscript{2} (80:20)—formate and acetate synthesis from H\textsubscript{2} and CO\textsubscript{2} occurs readily in nearly neutral and alkaline aqueous solution in the presence of Fe\textsubscript{3}S\textsubscript{4} (Fig. 2a). While only formate was detected at 20 °C, formate and acetate were found at 60 °C, which is close to the temperature of vent effluent (ca. 70°C) in the Lost City hydrothermal field (Fig. 2b)\textsuperscript{29}. At 100 bar, Fe\textsubscript{3}S\textsubscript{4} catalyses the synthesis of formate and methane from H\textsubscript{2} and CO\textsubscript{2} (Fig. 2c), but not from CO (Extended Data Fig. 4b). Here, methane and formate production is almost stoichiometric relative to hydrogen decrease. For 14 mM H\textsubscript{2} consumed, 1 mM of formate (1 H\textsubscript{2} per molecule of formate) and 2.3 mM of methane (4 H\textsubscript{2} per molecule of methane) are produced, leaving only 3.8 mM of H\textsubscript{2} that might go into acetate synthesis (which was below detection in this experimental setup). At 2 bar, formate accumulates to over 2 mM within 4 h, while acetate requires between 4 and 8 h to become detectable (Fig. 2d). Notably, formate and methane are the main products of abiotic organic synthesis observed in the effluent of modern serpentinizing hydrothermal systems\textsuperscript{9,30–33}.

We found that magnetite, like greigite, catalyses the aqueous synthesis of formate and acetate in the range of 10 µM to 1 mM from H\textsubscript{2} and CO\textsubscript{2}, but also the formation of methanol and pyruvate under mild (25 bar H\textsubscript{2}/CO\textsubscript{2}, 40:60 ratio and 100 °C) hydrothermal conditions (Fig. 3a). Pyruvate is a crucial intermediate of carbon and energy metabolism in all microbes and the main product of CO\textsubscript{2} fixation in autotrophs that use the acetyl-CoA pathway\textsuperscript{11}. It accumulates at 5–10 µM in the presence of Fe\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{4} across the pH range of 6–10, when either native iron (Fe) or H\textsubscript{2} is used as the reductant (Fig. 3a). Fe\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{4} generates a generally uniform product distribution across conditions tested, also when smaller amounts of catalyst are used (Extended Data Fig. 6b). Additionally, we investigated different amounts of Fe as a reductant, showing that its
impact on product concentrations is low even if a large excess of Fe was used. Both Fe and Fe$_3$O$_4$ formed a solid disc after the reaction, which probably hindered further oxidation of Fe and thus further accumulation of reduced carbon compounds (Extended Data Fig. 7a).

At 100 °C, awaruite catalyses the synthesis of acetate and methanol in the 10–100 µM range at pH 5–8 whereby either the native alloy itself, H$_2$, or native Fe can function as the reductant, albeit with differing efficiency and product distribution (Fig. 3b). At alkaline conditions, with either native Fe or H$_2$ as reductant, formate accumulates in the 200 mM range with 1 mmol metal atoms as catalyst. Physical contact between awaruite and native iron is not required for product formation (Extended Data Fig. 7b). In the case of awaruite, lower temperatures improved pyruvate synthesis (Fig. 4a), similar to previous studies. Pyruvate is formed under alkaline conditions at 70 °C (Fig. 4a), even at lower catalyst amounts than previously used (0.5 mmol metal atoms), and reaches 10 µM when higher amounts of catalyst are used (Fig. 4b). This suggests that pyruvate production in reactions with smaller amounts of awaruite likely occurs, but is below the detection limit of the $^1$H-NMR spectroscopy used here. Using even less Ni$_3$Fe (0.05 mmol metal atoms) is still effective for formate, acetate and methanol formation in thermal gradients from 100 °C to 30 °C (Extended Data Fig. 6a and c), conditions similar to those of natural alkaline hydrothermal vents. Catalysts are required for the reaction, controls without catalysts yielded only trace levels of product (Extended Data Fig. 2b and c and Supplementary Tabs. 6 and 7).

In some experiments using Ni$_3$Fe, we detected ethanol in concentrations up to over 100 µM (Extended Data Fig. 5b). We observed trace amounts of methane (ca. 19 ppm) in awaruite catalysed reactions (Extended Data Fig. 8), which is substantially less than detected in an earlier report using H$_2$ and CO$_2$ for 1–2 weeks at 500 bar and 200–400 °C with awaruite as the catalyst. The hydrothermal conditions we found for the synthesis of organics from H$_2$ and CO$_2$ over 16 hours with awaruite as catalyst are mild enough in terms of temperature and energetics to permit microbial growth. Of the catalysts employed, only awaruite showed minor alteration after reaction, probably due to mild oxidation (Fig. 1g–i). Formate accumulation catalysed by awaruite reflects the near-equilibrium interconversion of H$_2$-CO$_2$ and formate.

To avoid contamination, no organic buffers were employed in any of our experiments. Because Fe$_3$S$_4$ is sensitive to high pH, phosphate buffer was employed when greigite was the catalyst.
In the experiments with magnetite and awaruite, no buffers were used. In Figs. 3 and 4, blue bars indicate reactions where the starting pH was ~11 through addition of KOH to generate alkaline vent conditions; the pH measured at completion depends on the amount of utilised mineral and metal in addition to the amount of CO$_2$ dissolved and organic acid synthesised. No water loss, which would potentially distort the product concentrations, was detected in any of our experiments.

Sustained synthesis of reactive organic compounds was essential at the origin of metabolism and had to be thermodynamically favourable. Equations 1–5 show the redox reactions taking place between CO$_2$ and H$_2$ to form formate (1), methanol (2), acetate (3), pyruvate (4), and methane (5).

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\begin{align*}
H_2 + CO_2 & \rightarrow HCOO^- + H^+ \\
3 \ H_2 + CO_2 & \rightarrow CH_3OH + H_2O \\
4 \ H_2 + 2 \ CO_2 & \rightarrow CH_3COO^- + 2H_2O + H^+ \\
5 \ H_2 + 3 \ CO_2 & \rightarrow CH_3(CO)COO^- + 3 \ H_2O + H^+ \\
4 \ H_2 + CO_2 & \rightarrow CH_4 + 2 \ H_2O
\end{align*}
\]

The changes in Gibbs free energy, $\Delta G$, for six of the H$_2$-dependent reactions reported here are given in Table 1 (detailed datasets are shown in Supplementary Tabs. 2 and 3). The synthesis of observed products is close to equilibrium or exergonic. For most compounds and conditions, product generation did not reach equilibrium, indicating kinetic inhibition of the reactions. Only H$_2$-dependent reduction of CO$_2$ to formate approached equilibrium in the presence of greigite or awaruite (according experiments in Fig. 2a and 3b). Pyruvate and CH$_4$ production were only detected under specific conditions despite being exergonic in nearly all treatments. For example, in treatments with H$_2$ and magnetite, pyruvate generation was only detected under alkaline conditions (Fig. 3a), while in treatments with H$_2$ and awaruite, pyruvate generation was only detected under alkaline conditions and when the amount of mineral was increased (Fig. 4a). H$_2$-dependent reduction of formate to acetate (eq. 3 – eq. 1; $3H_2 + CHOO^- + CO_2 \rightarrow CH_3COO^- + 2 \ H_2O$) consistently reached similar $\Delta G$ values for each mineral regardless of pH and mineral amount (roughly $-72 \ \text{kJ mol}^{-1}$ for greigite, $-89 \ \text{kJ mol}^{-1}$ for magnetite, and $-115$...
kJ mol$^{-1}$ for awaruite at 100 °C), suggesting the possibility of shared features between the minerals’ catalytic mechanisms. None of the three minerals catalyses acetate synthesis to completion ($\Delta G << 0$), suggesting the possible presence of kinetic barriers and an opportunity for energetic coupling. For those reactions in which no H$_2$ was added, only native metals were available as reductant (Extended Data Figs. 3, 5a and 7), likely generating intermediate H$_2$ from water.
When greigite, magnetite or awaruite are used as catalysts, the synthesis of formate, acetate, methanol and pyruvate from H$_2$ and CO$_2$ under hydrothermal conditions is facile. The synthesis of formate and acetate is furthermore robust to the catalyst employed. The main product we observed is formate (Figs. 2–4), which is also the main organic product of abiotic organic synthesis found in alkaline hydrothermal vent effluent$^{9,31,37,38}$. We propose a mechanism for the catalysed two-electron reduction of CO$_2$ to formate for all three minerals (Extended Data Fig. 10).

Formate synthesis from H$_2$ and CO$_2$ was anticipated by earlier studies$^{39,40}$, and formate synthesis from CO$_2$ has been reported at high temperatures (>250 °C) and pressures (>300 bar) with hydrothermal minerals$^{41}$. But the amounts of formate that we observe with Ni$_3$Fe at moderate temperature and pressure (70°C to 100 °C in 25 bar H$_2$/CO$_2$ atmosphere), as well as the accumulation of acetate and pyruvate reveal an unexpected correspondence between the spontaneous H$_2$-dependent CO$_2$ reduction and metabolism. We see a clear tendency of Ni containing compounds to preferentially produce formate in high concentrations$^{18}$, while pyruvate accumulation is preferentially observed with Fe. These product-catalyst specificities are reflected in the active site metals of the corresponding enzymes of the modern acetyl-CoA pathway$^{11–13,42–47}$.

Under physiological conditions, the reducing power of H$_2$ is insufficient to reduce CO$_2$. Microbes studied so far reduce CO$_2$ with electrons from H$_2$ employing flavin-based electron bifurcation to synthesise reduced iron sulfur clusters in ferredoxin for CO$_2$ fixation$^{12,48}$. This biological CO$_2$ fixation usually also entails ion gradients$^{48,49}$. The reactions reported here require neither electron bifurcation nor ion gradients. With suitable inorganic catalysts that activate both H$_2$ and CO$_2$ to enable their reaction, products of the acetyl-CoA pathway (Fig. 2, 3 and 4) are formed without the addition of organic cofactors.

With the exception of ethanol, the reaction products we observe correspond exactly to those of the biological acetyl-CoA pathway to pyruvate$^{11}$ (Fig. 5). No other reaction products were observed. That is, the mineral catalysed H$_2$-dependent reduction of CO$_2$ delivers a very discrete subset of the possible chemical structures: one that constructs the backbone of carbon and
energy metabolism in primitive anaerobic autotrophs\textsuperscript{11–15}. The acetyl-CoA pathway\textsuperscript{11,14} entails eleven main enzymes totalling \~15,000 amino acid residues\textsuperscript{13,42–46} plus six organic cofactors each with its own complex biosynthesis\textsuperscript{14}. The bacterial and archael versions of the pathway involve evolutionarily unrelated enzymes but chemically similar methyl synthesis routes\textsuperscript{6,11,14}. The reactions of the acetyl-CoA pathway employed by modern metabolism (Fig. 5) involve the stepwise conservation of chemical energy during CO\textsubscript{2} fixation as acetyl-nickel, acetyl-thioester, acetyl-phosphate, and ATP synthesis via substrate level phosphorylation (marked with an asterisk in Fig. 5)\textsuperscript{11–14}. Although the nature of the catalyst bound intermediates of the biological pathway from H\textsubscript{2} and CO\textsubscript{2} to methane, acetate and pyruvate is known\textsuperscript{11–14}, the identity of the catalyst-bound intermediates of the mineral catalysed reactions is not.

Proposals for the nature of primordial CO\textsubscript{2} fixation and energy conservation at biochemical origins typically posit the participation of external energy sources\textsuperscript{50} such as UV light\textsuperscript{51}, heat, impact, pressure, electrical currents, or ion gradients\textsuperscript{28} to push organic synthesis forward. The reactions reported here require no additional energy source for a protometabolic acetyl-CoA pathway to unfold from H\textsubscript{2} and CO\textsubscript{2} other than the natural reactivity of two gasses and metal catalysts, indicating that neither membranes, though essential for the emergence of free-living cells\textsuperscript{6,52–54}, nor external potentials\textsuperscript{19,55} were required for primordial CO\textsubscript{2} fixation along an exergonic, H\textsubscript{2}-dependent, nonenzymatic pathway to C\textsubscript{3} products. The energy for the synthesis of compounds capable of phosphorylating ADP via substrate level phosphorylation\textsuperscript{6,11,12}—for reactions reported here, and for those of the enzymatically catalysed acetyl-CoA pathway—stems from the exergonic synthesis of biologically relevant organic compounds from H\textsubscript{2} and CO\textsubscript{2}. Our findings suggest that abiotic, geochemical versions of the energy releasing reactions underlying the acetyl-CoA pathway very likely preceded the enzymes that catalyse it today\textsuperscript{11,14,18,56}. The simplicity and primordial nature of these reactions furthermore suggests that metabolism elsewhere could initiate by a similar route.
Methods

General information. An overview of the performed experiments can be found in Extended Data Fig. 1, and relevant controls – in Extended Data Figs. 2 and 3 and Supplementary Tabs. 4–7. The quantity of each transition metal reagent tested as carbon fixation catalyst was normalised to contain the same number of mmol of metal atoms across the experiments. For example, “1 mmol metal atoms” corresponds to: 0.33 mmol greigite Fe$_3$S$_4$ (99 mg), 0.33 mmol magnetite Fe$_3$O$_4$ (77 mg), and 0.25 mmol awaruite Ni$_3$Fe (58 mg). Each reaction was performed in at least triplicate. Information on suppliers, grade and purity of all used reagents are listed in the Supplementary Information.

Synthesis of greigite (Fe$_3$S$_4$). Every piece of apparatus used in greigite synthesis was stored in an anaerobic chamber (Coy Laboratory Products) under a gas mixture of N$_2$/H$_2$/CO$_2$ (80:5:15) for at least 48 h before use, to remove the residual oxygen. Reagents for greigite synthesis were purged with N$_2$ before use unless otherwise stated. Amorphous FeO(OH) was synthesised as reported previously$^{57}$ and suspended in Milli-Q water (0.30 mol/L) under air atmosphere. After purging with N$_2$, this suspension was stored in a glass bottle under N$_2$/H$_2$/CO$_2$ (80:5:15). The solutions of Na$_2$S (1.0 M) and H$_2$SO$_4$ (2.0 M) were prepared as reported previously$^{58}$ and stored in a glass bottle under N$_2$. Greigite was synthesised in a solid-gas reaction system as reported previously$^{58}$ with slight modifications. In brief, amorphous FeO(OH) (0.66 mmol, 2.2 mL of water suspension) was aliquoted to a glass reaction vessel, and a test tube containing 1.0 mL of the Na$_2$S solution was placed in the vessel inside the anaerobic chamber. The vessel was sealed with an ETFE-coated butyl rubber stopper and an aluminium seal. Then, the vessel was removed from the anaerobic chamber and the headspace gas was replaced with Ar. After returning the vessel into the anaerobic chamber, H$_2$S gas was generated inside the vessel by injecting 0.5 mL of the H$_2$SO$_4$ solution to the Na$_2$S solution in the test tube using a disposable Myjector syringe (Terumo). The vessel was incubated at 80 °C for 3 hours. The resulting greigite suspension was collected by pipetting from several reaction vessels, washed with 0.5 M HCl and then rinsed with N$_2$-purged Milli-Q water in the anaerobic chamber as described previously$^{58}$.

CO$_2$ fixation catalysed by greigite. Synthesised greigite (0.33 mmol) was resuspended in 3 mL of potassium phosphate buffer (20 mM) of a designated pH. The greigite suspension was placed
in a fresh glass reaction vessel, which was then sealed with an ETFE-coated butyl rubber stopper and an aluminium seal. The vessel was then removed from the chamber, and the headspace gas was replaced with H₂/CO₂ (80:20) or CO₂ outside the chamber. The vessels were incubated at 100 °C over 4 to 24 h.

**HPLC analysis (greigite experiments).** Liquid phase components were analysed on a D-2000 LaChrom Elite HPLC system (Hitachi), equipped with Aminex® HPX-87H column (300 mm, 7.8 mm I.D.; Bio-Rad Laboratories) and an L-2400 UV detector at 240 nm and L-2490 RI detector as described previously. Supernatants obtained in the CO₂ reduction experiments were collected after centrifugation inside the anaerobic chamber. 10 µL of the obtained supernatants were directly injected into the HPLC circuit and chromatographed under an isocratic flow of 0.7 mL/min (Eluent: 10 mM H₂SO₄ in H₂O). The column temperature was maintained at 50 °C. Identities of the detected analytes were determined by the LC-MS system: Agilent 1200 HPLC (Agilent Technologies) coupled to an HCT Ultra mass spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics), using a Shodex® HILICpak VG-50 2D column (150 mm, 2 mm I.D.; Showa denko). The supernatant prepared as above was mixed with an equal amount of the eluent. Then, 5 µL of the mixture was injected into the HPLC circuit and chromatographed under an isocratic flow of 0.1 mL/min (Eluent: a mixture of acetonitrile and 0.25% ammonia water with 80:20 ratio). Column temperature was maintained at 30 °C.

**High-pressure measurements (greigite experiments).** A previously developed high-pressure incubation system was utilised for the high-pressure CO₂ (Fig. 2c) and CO (Extended Data Fig. 4b) reduction reactions in this study. The system consisted of an incubation vessel (stainless steel with Sulfinert® coating on its internal wall, volume 150 cm³; Swagelok), inflow/outflow tubes with valves (Swagelok), and a 500D automated syringe pump (Teledyne Isco). The greigite suspension was placed in the reaction vessel inside the anaerobic chamber. After sealing the vessel with inflow and outflow tubes, the headspace gas was replaced with H₂+CO₂ (80:20) through a rubber septum equipped with an inflow tube, via a needle. This vessel was then connected to the syringe pump via the inflow tube to complete the incubation system. Potassium phosphate buffer was injected by the syringe pump to reach a hydrostatic pressure of 100 bar. Incubation at 60°C started after H₂ and CO₂ were completely dissolved in the liquid phase (verified by GC analysis). Samples were periodically collected via the outflow tube while keeping the same hydrostatic pressure through automated pressure control of the syringe pump.
Gas analysis (greigite experiments). Gas phase measurements were carried out on a gas chromatograph GC-2014 (Shimadzu) as described previously. Depending on the target gas component, different columns and detectors were used: a Rt-QPLOT (30 m, 0.32 mm I.D, 10 μm F.T.; Restek) with flame ionization detector (FID) for CH₄, molecular sieve 13X column (2 m, 3 mm I.D.; Shimadzu) with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) for H₂ and CO, and activated charcoal column (2.0 m, 3 mm, 60/80 mesh; Shinwa Chemical Industries) with TCD for CO₂. Pure He and Ar were used as carrier gases for FID and TCD, respectively. The gasses were identified by GC-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) using two systems: 1) TQ8040 NX GC-MS (Shimadzu) equipped with a polar capillary column (TC-70, 30 m, 0.25 mm I.D., 0.25 μm F.T.; GL Sciences); 2) QP2010 Plus GC-MS (Shimadzu) equipped with Rt-Q-BOND (15 m, 0.32 mm I.D., 10 μm F.T.; Restek). Carrier gas in both systems was pure He.

Synthesis of awaruite (Ni₃Fe) nanoparticles. As previously reported, spent tea leaves can be used as sustainable hard template to synthesise native metal nanoparticles in the desired composition. For the synthesis of nanoparticular Ni₃Fe, washed and dried tea leaves were added into an aqueous solution of Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O and Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O (molar ratio of 3:1) and stirred at room temperature for 2 h. The mass ratio of tea leaves and metal precursors was set at 2:1. Due to the low decomposition temperature of the metal nitrate salt (below 200°C), metal oxide nanoparticles can be formed in the pore confinement of the template before its structural damage/combustion. The carbon-based tea leaf template was burned out in air atmosphere (at 550 °C for 4 h) and the resulting Ni₃Fe oxide was washed with 0.1 M HCl solution for 2 h and cleaned with deionised water. Finally, the product was treated in a reductive 10% H₂/Ar flow (100 mL/min) at 500 °C for 2 h to generate the intermetallic Ni₃Fe compound.

CO₂ fixation catalysed by magnetite (Fe₃O₄) and awaruite (Ni₃Fe). Awaruite and magnetite powder (commercial) were placed in a 1.5 mL glass vial. In the case of magnetite experiments and the awaruite experiments displayed in Fig. 2d, a clean PTFE-coated stir bar was added to the vial. All further awaruite experiments were conducted without stir bars. Then, the reaction vials were filled with 1.0 mL of Milli-Q water. Whenever the effect of an increased pH of the reaction mixtures was tested, solid KOH was added into the Milli-Q water before the reaction (45 mg/mL). KOH had been tested for contaminants via the ¹H-NMR analysis (Extended Data Fig. 9a). To prevent cross-contamination while allowing for the gas to easily reach the reaction mixture, the vials were closed with caps with punctured PTFE septa. The reaction vials (3–12)
were placed in a stainless-steel pressure reactor (Berghof or Parr) which was then sealed, flushed three times with ca. 5 bar CO₂, pressurised to a final value of 25 bar CO₂ (unless noted otherwise), and heated at the desired temperature (an external heating mantle was used) for 16 h. At a reaction temperature of 100 °C, a maximum pressure of ca. 30 bar was reached. After the reaction, the reactor was allowed to cool down to room temperature (3–4 h from 100 °C, 2–3 h from 70 °C) before sample analysis.\(^1\)\(^8\),\(^5\)\(^6\).

**Experiments with iron powder or hydrogen gas.** The experiments were performed according to the general procedure described above, except that 10 mmol (560 mg) Fe\(^0\) powder was first placed in the reaction vials, followed by the mineral tested and no stir bars were added. Further experiments exploring the impact of the amount of Fe\(^0\) powder are displayed in Extended Data Fig. 7a). Whenever H\(_2\) was used in the experiments, the pressure reactor was first flushed with CO₂, then pressurised with 10 bar of H\(_2\) and then brought to 25 bar by adding CO₂ again (H\(_2\)/CO₂ approximately 40:60).

**Work-up procedure for reaction mixtures (Ni\(_3\)Fe and Fe\(_3\)O\(_4\)).** The pH of individual reaction mixtures was determined via TRITEST L pH 1–11 pH papers (Macherey-Nagel) directly after the reaction. The values of the Ni\(_3\)Fe experiments were confirmed with a pH-Meter (Lab 875, SI Analytics) and a pH combination microelectrode (A 157 IDS, SI Analytics). The CO₂ dissolved in the reaction mixture during the reaction decreased the reaction pH values due to the formation of carbonic acid. Reaction mixtures that did not contain KOH were either treated with ca. 45 mg solid KOH per 1 mL reaction mixture to precipitate the metal ions as hydroxides (in the case of Fe\(_3\)O\(_4\) and Ni\(_3\)Fe experiments displayed in Fig. 3), or left untreated (in the case of Ni\(_3\)Fe). The treatment of individual experimental rows was also dependent on the visible concentration of metal ions in solution (since these ions have to be removed by precipitation as hydroxides prior to NMR measurements) and is additionally described in the according figure legends. All samples were then centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 10 min. The supernatant was then separated from the precipitate (catalyst) and stored at 4 °C overnight or longer until the NMR or HPLC analysis.

**NMR analysis (for awaruite and magnetite experiments).** Concentrations of formate, acetate, pyruvate and methanol (as methoxide) were determined by \(^1\)H-NMR, following the protocol established in Varma et al.\(^1\)\(^8\). The supernatant of the centrifuged samples was therefore mixed with sodium 3-(trimethylsilyl)-1-propanesulfonate (DSS) D\(_2\)O-solution as the internal standard.
NMR spectra were acquired on a Bruker Avance III – 600 or a Bruker Avance 300 spectrometer at 297 K, using a ZGESGP pulse program. 32 scans were acquired for each sample, the relaxation delay was set to 40 s (600 MHz) and 87 s (300 MHz), with a spectral width of 12315 ppm (600 MHz) or 11963 ppm (300 MHz). Analysis and integration were performed using MestReNova (10.0.2) software. Shifts of the measured products are depicted in Extended Data Fig. 9b.

**Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD).** XRD analysis was performed for pre- and post-reaction catalysts. For greigite, XRD specimen was prepared as described previously\(^5\). In brief, the sample was collected by centrifugation, and the obtained pellet was directly mounted as a slurry form on a silicon holder (SanyuShoko), and then sealed by using polyimide film (Nilaco Corporation) and vacuum grease (JEOL) to avoid possible desiccation and oxidation during the analysis. The specimen was analysed using a RINT2000 X-ray diffractometer (Rigaku) at room temperature for CuK\(\alpha_1, \alpha_2\) radiation scanning at a step interval of 0.02° 2\(\theta\) and a counting time of 2 seconds with a 2\(\theta\) range from 20° to 60°, operating at an accelerating voltage of 40 kV at 30 mA. In order to prepare specimens for magnetite and awaruite experiments, the samples were collected, washed with Milli-Q water and dried under vacuum. XRD patterns of these specimens were collected at room temperature by using a theta-theta diffractometer (Stoe) in Bragg-Brentano geometry for CuK\(\alpha_1, \alpha_2\) radiation scanning at a step interval of 0.04° 2\(\theta\) and a counting time of 6 seconds with a 2\(\theta\) range from 20° to 80°.

**Electron microscopy.** Electron microscopic observation was conducted for pre-reaction catalysts to check their morphology. For greigite, a specimen for scanning electron microscopy was prepared as described previously\(^5\). Briefly, in the anaerobic chamber, greigite was rinsed at least three times with N\(_2\)-purged Milli-Q water, dried at room temperature, and then mounted on an aluminium stub using carbon tape. The specimen was taken out from the anaerobic chamber, coated with platinum/palladium alloy with an ion sputter E102 (Hitachi) and observed on a JSM-6330F (JEOL) or JSM-7800F (JEOL) field-emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM) at an acceleration voltage of 5 kV. The magnetite sample was deposited on lacey carbon film-coated Cu grids (400 mesh), and observed on an H-7100 (Hitachi) transmission electron microscope at an acceleration voltage of 100 kV. The awaruite sample was collected and embedded in Spurr resin (hard mixture). Obtained resin blocks were trimmed using an EM TRIM milling system (Leica). Thin sections were cut from the resin blocks by using a microtome with a 35° diamond knife (Reichert Ultra-Cut), dispersed in Milli-Q water and
transferred from the water surface on lacy carbon film-coated Cu grids (400 mesh), and observed on an S-5500 (Hitachi) scanning transmission electron microscope at an acceleration voltage of 30 kV.

**Thermodynamic calculations.** For Gibbs free energy yield (ΔG) calculations, published values of ΔH and ΔG values were used\(^\text{63,64}\). The effect of temperature on the Gibbs free energy yield was calculated using the Gibbs-Helmholtz equation. Equilibrium constants at different temperatures were adjusted using the van’t Hoff equation (detailed equations in the Supplementary Information). Corrections based on non-standard pressures were estimated using partial molar volume changes of the reactions\(^\text{65}\). For any organic compounds that were not detected, an aqueous concentration of 0.1 µM was assumed. For CH\(_4\), a partial pressure of 10\(^{-7}\) bar was assumed when not detected. In reactions containing Fe\(^0\) as an electron donor (Supplementary Tab. 2), the H\(_2\) concentration was estimated by assuming H\(_2\)-dependent CO\(_2\) reduction to formate reached equilibrium. Final H\(_2\) and CO\(_2\) concentrations were estimated based on the measured products (subtracting 1 mol H\(_2\) per mole formate detected).
Table 1: Changes in Gibbs free energy $\Delta G$ for the CO$_2$ fixation product formation in kJ mol$^{-1}$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formate</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>-25.58</td>
<td>-19.56</td>
<td>-48.14</td>
<td>-2.56</td>
<td>-15.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methanol</td>
<td>ND</td>
<td>ND</td>
<td>-46.60</td>
<td>-46.60</td>
<td>-51.49</td>
<td>-50.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acetate</td>
<td>-71.00</td>
<td>-96.69</td>
<td>-108.59</td>
<td>-137.16</td>
<td>-120.03</td>
<td>-132.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pyruvate</td>
<td>ND</td>
<td>ND</td>
<td>ND</td>
<td>-57.18</td>
<td>ND</td>
<td>ND</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
The values of $\Delta G$ refer to the reactions as shown in equations 1–5. The conditions are those of reactions marked with asterisks in Figs. 2 and 3. Details of reaction conditions for columns 1–6: 1) 0.33 mmol Fe$_3$S$_4$, 100 °C, 24 h, pH 6.5, 2 bar H$_2$/CO$_2$ (80:20); 2) 0.33 mmol Fe$_3$S$_4$, 100 °C, 24 h, pH 10, 2 bar H$_2$/CO$_2$ (80:20); 3) 0.33 mmol, Fe$_3$O$_4$, 100 °C, 16 h, pH 6, 25 bar H$_2$/CO$_2$ (40:60); 4) 0.33 mmol, Fe$_3$O$_4$, 100 °C, 16 h, pH 9, 25 bar H$_2$/CO$_2$ (40:60); 5) 0.25 mmol, Ni$_3$Fe, 100 °C, 16 h, pH 6, 25 bar H$_2$/CO$_2$ (40:60); 6) 0.25 mmol, Ni$_3$Fe, 100 °C, 16 h, pH 8, 25 bar H$_2$/CO$_2$ (40:60). Columns 1, 3, 5: pH<7; Columns 2, 4, 6: pH>8. ND: not detected (no product was formed or product concentration was below the detection limit). Values of $\Delta G$ for product accumulation at 100 nM in these experiments (below the detection level) are given in Supplementary Tab. 3.
Figure 1: Characterisation of greigite (Fe$_3$S$_4$), magnetite (Fe$_3$O$_4$) and awaruite (Ni$_3$Fe) catalysts. The three powders are different in structure and morphology as seen from electron microscopy images (a, b, c), of which greigite and awaruite are freshly synthesised, magnetite is commercially obtained. Comparison of the XRD patterns of the minerals before the reaction (d, e, f) and after the experiments under the following conditions: Fe$_3$O$_4$ (h) and Ni$_3$Fe (i) for 16 h under alkaline conditions (potassium hydroxide added) under a H$_2$/CO$_2$ atmosphere. Fe$_3$S$_4$ (g), for 24 h at pH 6.5, stabilised by a phosphate buffer under a H$_2$/CO$_2$ atmosphere.
Figure 2: a Fixation of CO₂ with H₂, catalysed by greigite. b Effect of temperature on greigite catalysis. c Time course experiment of high-pressure methane and formate production from CO₂ and H₂ under greigite catalysis (liquid phase, 150 mL) at 100 bar and 60 °C. d Reaction progress over time at a 2 bar H₂/CO₂ atmosphere and 100 °C. All reactions were performed in water containing a phosphate buffer (3 mL for (a), (b) and (d), 150 mL for (c)). Flasks in the first two panels summarise the reaction parameters:
greigite is depicted in black. Catalyst amounts are normalised by the number of moles of metal atoms per mole of mineral compound, 0.33 mmol of greigite (Fe₃S₄) are equivalent to 1 mmol of metal atoms each. Individual experiments were performed under either CO₂ or H₂/CO₂ atmosphere. Red bars: pH<7, Blue bars: pH>7. ND: not detected (no product was formed or product concentration was below the detection limit). Circles correspond to the values of individual experiments. Values of 0 are not shown by the logarithmic scale. Asterisks indicate experiments for which the Gibbs free energy was calculated in Tab. 1. Concentration values and standard deviations of the experiments are listed in Supplementary Tab. 1, control experiments are shown in Extended Data Fig. 2a. The influence of pH (4–10) on the reactions catalysed by greigite is shown in Extended Data Fig. 4a).

**Figure 3:** Fixation of CO₂ with H₂, catalysed by a magnetite and b awaruite. All reactions were performed in water (1 mL). Flasks in each panel summarise the reaction parameters: hydrothermal minerals are depicted in black, additional iron powder in grey. Catalyst amounts are normalised by the number of moles of metal atoms per mole of mineral compound: 0.33 mmol of magnetite (Fe₃O₄), as well as 0.25 mmol of awaruite are equivalent to 1 mmol of metal atoms in each catalyst. Individual experiments were performed under either CO₂ atmosphere, H₂/CO₂ atmosphere, or CO₂ atmosphere with Fe powder as an electron source (also for H₂ formation from H₂O). Experiments without native Fe were performed with decontaminated stir bars, those containing native Fe were performed without stir bars due to the solidification of the Fe powder during the process. Red bars: pH<7, Blue bars: pH>7. ND: not detected (no product was formed or product
concentration was below the detection limit). Experiments performed at pH<7 were treated with KOH after the reaction as in Varma et al. Circles correspond to the values of individual experiments. Values of 0 are not shown by the logarithmic scale. Asterisks indicate experiments for which the Gibbs free energy was calculated in Tab. 1. Concentration values and standard deviations of the experiments are listed in Supplementary Tab. 1, control experiments are shown in Extended Data Figs. 2b and c (Ni₃Fe) and 3 (Fe⁰) and Supplementary Tabs. 4–7. Background levels of formate at least three orders of magnitude below experimental product concentrations (Ni₃Fe); background levels of acetate (ca. 10 to 20 µM) were observed in controls using Ni₃Fe as the catalyst. All background levels were subtracted before plotting (see Supplementary Information for all background values).

**Figure 4:** a Effect of temperature on Ni₃Fe catalysis. b Impact of Ni₃Fe catalyst amount. All reactions were performed in water (1 mL). Catalyst amounts are normalised to the number of moles of metal atoms per mole of mineral compound: 0.25 mmol of awaruite is equivalent to 1 mmol of metal atoms. Individual experiments were performed under H₂/CO₂ (40:60) atmosphere. All experiments were conducted without stir bars. Circles correspond to the values of individual experiments. Values of 0 are not shown by the logarithmic scale. All measurements were performed in at least triplicate (2.5 mmol Ni₃Fe in duplicate) ND: not detected (no product was formed or product concentration was
below the detection limit). Circles correspond to the values obtained in individual experiments. Values of 0 are not shown by the logarithmic scale. Concentration values and standard deviations of the experiments are listed in Supplementary Tab. 1, control experiments are shown in Extended Data Fig. 2b and c and Supplementary Tabs. 6 and 7.

**Figure 5:** Congruence between the acetyl-CoA pathway and reactions catalysed by three iron minerals found in hydrothermal vents. The chemical reactions summarise the acetyl-CoA pathway as it occurs in hydrogenotrophic bacteria and archaea as depicted in ref.11, with the exception of free formate later discovered in the archaeal pathway. The methenyl (=CH–), methylene (–CH2–), and methyl (–CH3) groups of the bacterial and archaeal pathway are bound to tetrahydrofolate and tetrahydromethanopterin, respectively, generically indicated as catalysts (⊥) here. Coloured boxes indicate products observed in reactions using iron mineral catalysts. An asterisk indicates the reaction sequence in which energy is conserved as ATP via substrate level phosphorylation in the biological pathway (the acyl-nickel, thioester and acyl-phosphate intermediates that the enzymatic pathway employs for the stepwise conservation of free energy in the exergonic conversion of the nickel-bound acyl group to ATP are not shown). All products shown were observed at temperatures ≤100 °C and obtained within <24 h, except methane in the case of greigite, which was observed over the course of 25 d (Fig. 2c). Methanol, methyl sulfide, methyl amines, and methoxy groups from coal can serve as methyl donors for the pathway11,67.

**Contributions**
W.F.M. wrote the initial draft of the main text and all authors edited the manuscript. W.F.M., H.T., J.M. and M.P. designed the awaruite experiments, M.P. performed the awaruite experiments and assembled the results for the main text and SI material. K.B.M. designed and performed the magnetite experiments, S.J.V. performed exploratory experiments with magnetite. Design of the greigite experiments was done by K.I. and Y.K., K.I. performed the experiments. H.T. and M.Y. designed and synthesised the awaruite nanoparticles and performed XRD and TEM measurements for magnetite and awaruite experiments. M.K.N. performed and interpreted the thermodynamics calculations. K.K., J.M., H.T. and M.P. formulated the H\textsubscript{2} reduction mechanism shown in the SI.

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**Data Availability Statement**

All data are available in the main text, Extended Data Figs. 1–10 and the Supplementary Information (Supplementary Materials and Methods, Supplementary Tables 1–7, Supplementary Figures 1–29 and Supplementary Equations).

**Competing Interests**
The authors declare no competing interests.
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