

1 **Shifting microbial communities sustain multi-year iron reduction and methanogenesis in**
2 **ferruginous sediment incubations**

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17 Type: Research Article

18

19 **Abstract**

20 Reactive Fe³⁺ minerals can influence methane (CH₄) emissions by inhibiting microbial
21 methanogenesis or by stimulating anaerobic CH₄ oxidation. The balance between Fe³⁺ reduction,
22 methanogenesis, and methane oxidation in the ferruginous Archean oceans would have
23 controlled CH₄ fluxes to the atmosphere, thereby regulating the capacity for CH₄ to warm the
24 early Earth under the Faint Young Sun. We studied CH₄ and Fe cycling in anoxic incubations of
25 ferruginous sediment from the Archean ocean analogue Lake Matano, Indonesia over three
26 successive transfers (500 days total). Iron reduction, methanogenesis, methane oxidation, and
27 microbial taxonomy were monitored in treatments amended with 10 mM ferrihydrite or goethite.
28 After three dilutions, Fe³⁺ reduction persisted only in bottles with ferrihydrite. Enhanced CH₄
29 production was observed in the presence of goethite. Methane oxidation was observed throughout
30 incubations, although stoichiometry suggested that Fe³⁺ was not the sole electron acceptor. 16S
31 rRNA profiles continuously changed over the course of enrichment, with ultimate dominance of
32 unclassified members of the order Desulfuromonadales in all treatments and Rhodocyclaceae in
33 treatments amended with CH₄. Microbial diversity decreased markedly over the course of
34 incubation, with subtle differences being observed between ferrihydrite and goethite. These
35 results suggest that Fe³⁺-oxide mineralogy and availability of electron donors could have led to
36 spatial separation of Fe³⁺-reducing and methanogenic microbial communities in ancient
37 ferruginous marine sediments, potentially explaining the persistence of CH₄ as a greenhouse gas
38 throughout the Archean.

39

40

41 **INTRODUCTION**

42 Anoxic and ferruginous conditions were common in Archean oceans (Poulton & Canfield, 2011).
43 In Archean seawater, Fe would have undergone extensive redox cycling via microbial
44 photoferrotrophy or abiotic photo-oxidation of dissolved Fe^{2+} to Fe^{3+} followed by microbial
45 respiration of Fe^{3+} to Fe^{2+} (Kappler et al., 2005 ; Crowe et al., 2008a ; Konhauser et al., 2005).
46 Indeed, Fe^{3+} reduction evolved early in Earth's history (Craddock & Dauphas, 2011 ; Johnson et
47 al., 2008) and may have contributed extensively to organic matter oxidation in the Archean
48 (Vargas et al., 1998).

49 Elevated atmospheric methane (CH_4 ; 100-1000 ppmv in the Archean vs. ~2 ppmv in the
50 modern atmosphere) could have played a role in the Archean greenhouse effect that sustained
51 temperatures warm enough for liquid water under considerably lower solar radiation (Pavlov et
52 al., 2000 ; Haqq-Misra et al., 2008 ; Kasting, 2005). The source of Archean CH_4 was likely
53 hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis ($\text{CO}_2 + 4 \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$; (Ueno et al., 2006 ; Battistuzzi
54 et al., 2004). However, this form of methanogenesis typically yields minimal free energy and is
55 outcompeted by metal-reducing organisms with a higher affinity for H_2 than methanogens in the
56 presence of poorly crystalline Fe^{3+} (e.g. ferrihydrite; Lovley & Phillips, 1987 ; Lovley &
57 Goodwin, 1988 ; Zhou et al., 2014). Ferrihydrite reduction can also outcompete acetoclastic
58 methanogenesis ($\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^- + \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{CH}_4 + \text{CO}_2$) due to the higher affinity for acetate (CH_3COO^-
59) by Fe^{3+} -reducing bacteria compared to methanogens (Lovley & Phillips, 1986), although
60 acetoclastic methanogenesis likely evolved late in Earth's history (Fournier & Gogarten, 2008).
61 Ferruginous oceans would have further suppressed CH_4 emissions if Fe^{3+} played a role in
62 supplying electron acceptors for CH_4 oxidation, either as the direct oxidant, or indirectly through
63 the regeneration of sulfate through oxidation of reduced sulfur compounds (Sivan et al., 2014).

64 Methane oxidation coupled directly to Fe^{3+} reduction is thermodynamically favorable
65 according to the free energy yield with ferrihydrite ($\text{CH}_4 + 8 \text{Fe}(\text{OH})_3 + 15\text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{HCO}_3^- + 8\text{Fe}^{2+}$
66 $+ 21\text{H}_2\text{O}$; $\Delta G_r^0 = -571 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \text{ CH}_4$) and goethite ($\text{CH}_4 + 8 \text{FeOOH} + 15\text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{HCO}_3^- + 8\text{Fe}^{2+} +$
67 $13\text{H}_2\text{O}$; $\Delta G_r^0 = -355 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \text{ CH}_4$) as terminal electron acceptors. We would expect to observe a
68 stoichiometric ratio of 1 CH_4 oxidized per 8 Fe^{3+} reduced and, based on energetic yields, the
69 preferential use of ferrihydrite over goethite as the electron acceptor in this putative metabolism.
70 In addition, accumulating geochemical evidence for microbial CH_4 oxidation coupled to, or
71 stimulated by, Fe^{3+} reduction is widespread across modern anoxic ecosystems and anaerobic
72 digester communities (Sivan et al., 2011 ; Segarra et al., 2013 ; Beal et al., 2009 ; Amos et al.,
73 2012 ; Riedinger et al., 2014 ; Noroi et al., 2013 ; Crowe et al., 2011 ; Sturm et al., 2015 ;
74 Egger et al., 2015 ; Zehnder & Brock, 1980 ; Sivan et al., 2014 ; Fu et al., 2016 ; Rooze et al.,
75 2016). However, robust and direct evidence for this putative metabolism in the form of stable
76 enrichment cultures or microbial isolates remains elusive.

77 Despite the possible importance of coupled Fe and CH_4 cycling in the Archean Eon,
78 long-term studies of Fe^{3+} reduction under low organic carbon and high CH_4 conditions remain
79 sparse. Lake Matano, Indonesia is one of the only modern analogues for the ferruginous Archean
80 oceans (Crowe et al., 2008a). Despite the presence of Fe^{3+} oxides that might be expected to
81 suppress methanogenesis, CH_4 accumulates to 1.4 mM in anoxic deep waters (Crowe et al.,
82 2008a ; Crowe et al., 2011 ; Crowe et al., 2008b ; Crowe et al., 2007). Methanotrophy is a key
83 carbon fixation process in Lake Matano's oxic-anoxic transition zone, and the dearth of other
84 oxidants (<100 nM nitrate and sulfate) suggests that Fe^{3+} might be the primary electron acceptor
85 in methanotrophy (Sturm et al., 2015 ; Crowe et al., 2011). In this study, we examined the
86 influence of CH_4 and Fe^{3+} mineral speciation on CH_4 and Fe biogeochemistry together with

87 microbial community composition over three successive dilutions (500 total days of incubation)
88 of anoxic Lake Matano sediments.

89

90 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

91

92 **Sample collection and storage**

93 A 15-cm sediment core from 200 m water depth in Lake Matano, Sulawesi Island, Indonesia
94 (2°26'S, 121°15'E; *in situ* sediment temperature ~27°C) was sampled in November 2010 and
95 sub-sampled at 5 cm increments. Sediments from 0-5 and 5-10 cm depth were fluffy and black,
96 and 10-15 cm was dark gray. Sediments were sealed in gas-tight bags with no headspace
97 (Hansen et al., 2000) and stored at 4°C until incubations began in March 2015.

98

99 **Enrichment medium and substrate synthesis**

100 A modified artificial freshwater medium lacking nitrate and sulfate was developed based on the
101 pore water composition of Lake Matano sediments (S.A. Crowe and D.A. Fowle, unpublished
102 work). The medium contained 825 µM MgCl₂, 550 µM CaCO₃, 3 mM NaHCO₃, 3.5 µM
103 K₂HPO₄, 5 µM Na₂HPO₄, 225 µM NH₄Cl, 1 µM CuCl₂, 1.5 µM Na₂MoO₄, 2.5 µM CoCl₂, 23
104 µM MnCl₂, 4 µM ZnCl₂, 9.4 µM FeCl₃ and 3 mM Na₂NTA, 0.07 µM vitamin B₁₂, 0.4 µM biotin,
105 and 68.5 µM thiamine. Filter-sterilized vitamin solutions were added after autoclaving.
106 Ferrihydrite (Fe(OH)₃) and goethite (FeOOH) were synthesized as described in Schwertmann &
107 Cornell (1991) and added to enrichments to 10 mM as described below.

108

109 **Inoculation of enrichment and amendments**

110 The sediment was pre-treated for 36 days at 30°C in 100% N₂ headspace to deplete endogenous
111 organic carbon, electron donors, and reactive electron acceptors. After pre-treatment, sediment
112 from the 0-5 cm depth layer was inoculated in a ratio of sediment to medium of 1:5 (v/v) in an
113 anoxic chamber (97% N₂ and 3% H₂; Coy Laboratory Products, Grass Lake, MI, USA).
114 Sediment slurry (35 mL) was aliquoted into 70 mL sterile serum bottles, stoppered with sterile
115 butyl stoppers (Geo-Microbial Technologies, Ochelata, OK, USA; pre-boiled in 0.1 N NaOH),
116 and crimped with aluminum seals. Ferric iron was added either as ferrihydrite or goethite to 10
117 mM. Bottles were purged with 99.99% N₂ for 1 hr, and CH₄ amendments were injected with 10
118 mL 99.99% CH₄ and 5 mL 99% ¹³CH₄ (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Tewksbury, MA,
119 USA). Controls were autoclaved at 121°C for 1 hr on day 0 and again on day 6 of the 1°
120 enrichment. All treatments were duplicated, and bottles were incubated in the dark at 30°C with
121 shaking at 200 rpm.

122 After 50 days, the volume of all cultures was reduced to 5 mL, and 30 mL of fresh media
123 was added to each bottle, constituting a 6-fold dilution. These 2° enrichments were amended
124 with an additional 10 mM of either ferrihydrite or goethite. All bottles were purged with 99.99%
125 N₂ for 1 hr, and all bottles except N₂ controls were injected with 8 mL 99.99% CH₄ and 2 mL
126 99% ¹³CH₄. Controls were autoclaved again at 121°C for 1 hr. DL-Methionine (10 μM) was
127 added as a sulfur source. After 303 days, cultures were diluted 10-fold with fresh media into new
128 serum bottles (3° enrichment) with the same substrate and headspace composition as the 2°
129 enrichment. A schematic of the incubation and dilutions is shown at the top of Figures 1-3.

130

131 **HCl-extractable Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ and soluble Fe²⁺**

132 Samples were taken from each bottle in the anoxic chamber using a 22-gauge needle and plastic
133 syringe. Plasticware was stored in the anoxic chamber for at least 24 hr to minimize O₂ sample
134 contamination. For HCl-extractable Fe²⁺ analyses, 100 μL of sediment slurry was extracted with
135 400 μL 0.5 N HCl in the dark for 1 hr, followed by centrifugation at 10,000 x g for 1 min,
136 injection of 10 μL of supernatant into 990 μL of 10 mM FerroZine reagent in 46 mM HEPES
137 (pH 8.3), and measurement of absorbance at 562 nm (Stookey, 1970). For HCl-extractable Fe³⁺,
138 100 μL of sediment slurry was incubated overnight in 0.5 N HCl and 0.25 M NH₂OH-HCl in the
139 dark, followed by centrifugation and measurement as above, and subtraction of HCl-extractable
140 Fe²⁺ as in Kostka & Luther (1994).

141

142 **Methane oxidation**

143 Samples were collected for δ¹³C-DIC analysis by 0.2 μm membrane filtration of medium into
144 crimp top autosampler vials (Thermo Scientific National Target LoVial) and analysis as
145 described in Brandes (2009). Rates of ¹³CH₄ oxidation to ¹³C-DIC were calculated over the linear
146 period of δ¹³C-DIC increase based on the method in Scheller et al. (2016). First, the δ¹³C-DIC
147 values were converted into fractional abundances (¹³F = (¹³C/¹²C + ¹³C)), and then DIC production
148 from CH₄ oxidation was calculated using the following formula:

$$149 \quad \Delta[\text{DIC}] = ([\text{DIC}]_n(^{13}\text{F}_n)) - ([\text{DIC}]_0(^{13}\text{F}_0)) / ^{13}\text{F}_{\text{CH}_4}$$

150 Where [DIC]_n and ¹³F_n are equal to the total DIC concentration (mM) and fractional abundance
151 of ¹³C in the DIC at time n respectively. [DIC]₀ and ¹³F₀ are the total DIC concentration (mM)
152 and fractional abundance of DIC at time 0 respectively, and ¹³F_{CH₄} is the fractional abundance of
153 ¹³C in the CH₄.

154

155 **Methane in headspace**

156 Headspace (50 μ L) was sampled using a gastight syringe and injected into a gas chromatograph
157 (SRI Instruments 8610C, Torrance, CA, USA) with a HayeSep N column and flame ionization
158 detector to measure headspace CH₄ concentrations. A CH₄ standard (1000 ppm, Airgas, USA)
159 was used for calibration.

160

161 **16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing**

162 Samples (2 mL) of sediment used for inoculating incubations (hereafter, “sediment inoculum”)
163 were taken in February 2015 (prior to pre-treatment) and after incubation for 15 days (1°
164 enrichment), 72 days (2° enrichment) and 469 days (3° enrichment). Nucleic acid was extracted
165 and purified using a PowerSoil Isolation Kit following the manufacturer’s protocol (Catalog #
166 12888; MO BIO, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and UltraClean® 15 Purification Kit (MO BIO
167 Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA). 16S rRNA gene amplicons were synthesized from extracted DNA
168 with V4 region-specific barcoded primers F515 and R806 (Caporaso et al., 2011) appended with
169 Illumina-specific adapters according to Kozich et al. (2013) using a C1000 Touch Thermocycler
170 (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) and QIAGEN Taq PCR Master Mix (QIAGEN, Venlo, Netherlands).
171 Thermal cycling conditions were as follows: initial denaturing at 94°C (5 min), 35 cycles of
172 denaturing at 94°C (40 sec), primer annealing at 55°C (40 sec), and primer extension at 68°C (30
173 sec). Amplicons were checked for correct size (~400 bp) on a 1% agarose gel and purified using
174 Diffinity RapidTips (Diffinity Genomics, West Henrietta, NY, USA). Amplicon concentrations
175 were determined fluorometrically on a Qubit™ (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham,
176 Massachusetts, USA). Amplicons were pooled at equimolar concentrations (4 nmol), and
177 sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq running MiSeq Control software v.2.4.0.4 using a 500 cycle

178 MiSeq reagent kit v2 with a 5% PhiX genomic library control, as described by Kozich et al.
179 (2013). Sequences were deposited as NCBI accession numbers SAMN04532568-04532641 and
180 SAMN05915184-05915222.

181

182 **16S rRNA gene amplicon sequence analysis**

183 Demultiplexed amplicon read pairs were quality trimmed with Trim Galore (Babraham
184 Bioinformatics) using a base Phred33 score threshold of Q25 and a minimum length cutoff of
185 100 bp. Reads were then analyzed using mothur (Schloss et al., 2009) following its MiSeq
186 standard operating procedure. High quality paired reads were merged and screened to remove
187 sequences of incorrect length and those with high numbers of ambiguous base calls. Merged
188 reads were dereplicated and aligned to the ARB SILVA database (release 123; available at
189 http://www.mothur.org/wiki/Silva_reference_alignment). Sequences with incorrect alignment
190 and those with homopolymers longer than 8bp were filtered out. Unique sequences and their
191 frequency in each sample were identified and then a pre-clustering algorithm was used to further
192 de-noise sequences within each sample. Sequences were then chimera checked using UCHIME
193 (Edgar et al., 2011). Reads were then clustered into OTUs at 97% similarity based on
194 uncorrected pairwise distance matrices. OTUs were classified using SILVA reference taxonomy
195 database (release 123, available at http://www.mothur.org/wiki/Silva_reference_files). Chao 1
196 (species richness), phylogenetic diversity, and Shannon index (species evenness) estimates were
197 generated using mother after normalization to 4000 sequences per sample.

198

199 **RESULTS**

200 **Iron reduction**

201 *1° enrichment.* Over the first 10 days of incubation, HCl-extractable Fe^{2+} increased from 10 to 25
202 mM in ferrihydrite treatments (Fig. 1a) and from 10 to 20 mM in goethite treatments (Fig. 1b).
203 From day 6 to 10, HCl-extractable Fe^{3+} (7 and 12 mM in ferrihydrite and goethite treatments,
204 respectively) was completely consumed in all bottles except autoclaved controls with ferrihydrite
205 (data not shown). Iron reduction rates were identical with and without CH_4 (Fig. 1a, b). Initial
206 autoclaving did not suppress Fe^{3+} reduction. A second round of autoclaving on day 6 slightly
207 suppressed further activity. From day 10-28, HCl-extractable Fe^{2+} fluctuated in ferrihydrite
208 treatments (Fig. 1a) and declined slightly in goethite treatments (Fig. 1b). Soluble Fe^{2+} was
209 consistently <1% of HCl-extractable Fe^{2+} , and sediment-free controls did not reduce Fe^{3+} (data
210 not shown).

211 *2° enrichment.* After 1:6 dilution and 10 mM ferrihydrite addition on day 50, HCl-extractable
212 Fe^{2+} increased from 3 to 4 mM over the first two days, and then remained constant through the
213 final time point (day 497) in bottles with and without added CH_4 (Fig. 1a). After 10 mM goethite
214 addition on day 50, HCl-extractable Fe^{2+} increased from 2 to 3 mM after a two-day lag period.
215 Thereafter, HCl-extractable Fe^{2+} rose to 4 mM by day 497 in goethite treatments with added
216 CH_4 ; without CH_4 , HCl-extractable Fe^{2+} dropped back to 2 mM (Fig. 1b). Autoclaved controls
217 had no activity. Black magnetic minerals formed in all ferrihydrite treatments except autoclaved
218 controls (Fig 1a). No magnetic minerals formed in goethite treatments (Fig. 1b).

219 *3° enrichment.* After 1:10 dilution and addition of 10 mM ferrihydrite on day 352, HCl-
220 extractable Fe^{2+} doubled in the first week in N_2 treatments and bottle CH_4 -1 (Fig. 1a). Bottle
221 CH_4 -2 displayed similar activity after a two-week lag period. After an additional 100 days, HCl-
222 extractable Fe^{2+} had increased to 2 mM in CH_4 treatments and 1 mM in the N_2 treatment by day
223 466. Goethite treatments had minimal activity after the first week of 3° enrichment (Fig. 1b).

224 Autoclaved controls had no activity. As in the 2° enrichment, magnetic minerals formed in the
225 presence of ferrihydrite (Fig. 1a), but not goethite (Fig. 1b).

226

227 **Methane production**

228 Goethite treatments consistently displayed higher CH₄ production than those with ferrihydrite
229 (Fig. 2). Methanogenesis started during the initial period of Fe³⁺ reduction, and stopped after
230 HCl-extractable Fe³⁺ was completely consumed in the 1° enrichment (day 10). Methanogenesis
231 continued throughout the 3° enrichment. Negligible CH₄ was produced in treatments with
232 ferrihydrite, except for bottle N₂-2 in the 3° enrichment.

233

234 **Methane oxidation**

235 *1° enrichment.* ¹³C incorporation into DIC began on day 6 in both ferrihydrite and goethite
236 treatments and continued throughout the 1° enrichment (Fig. 3a,b). Ferrihydrite treatments
237 showed lower ¹³C enrichment of the DIC pool but higher total DIC production (totaling to 1.7
238 and 1.1 μM CH₄ d⁻¹ for bottles 1 and 2, respectively) than goethite treatments, which had greatest
239 δ¹³C enrichment, but minimal DIC production (0.2 and 0.8 μM CH₄ d⁻¹ for bottles 1 and 2,
240 respectively). Autoclaved controls showed neither ¹³C incorporation nor DIC production.

241 *2° enrichment.* Both ferrihydrite treatments displayed ¹³C enrichment (Fig. 3a), but declined in
242 DIC, precluding calculation of CH₄ oxidation rates. Initial pH of 8 declined to 7.6, 6.7 and 6 in
243 the autoclaved, N₂ and CH₄ treatments, respectively. DIC in goethite treatments with CH₄
244 dropped to undetectable values within three weeks, suggesting sampling or analytical error,
245 which precluded accurate isotopic measurement at these time points. These data are thus not
246 considered further. Autoclaved and N₂ controls did not show pH changes.

247 3° enrichment. Bottle CH₄-2 with ferrihydrite was the only treatment with significant ¹³C
248 incorporation into DIC over the first 15 days (Fig. 3a). DIC also increased over the same interval
249 in both ferrihydrite-amended bottles; calculated CH₄ oxidation rates were 32 and 7 μM d⁻¹ in
250 bottle 1 and 2, respectively. The pH dropped from 8.2 to 7.1 and 7.9 in bottles 1 and 2,
251 respectively, over the first 15 days. By day 470, ¹³C enrichment and DIC concentrations in both
252 ferrihydrite-amended bottles had returned to a level similar to that at the start of the 3°
253 enrichment. Autoclaved controls did not exhibit any change in DIC and pH. Goethite treatments
254 had initial DIC concentrations (3-5 mM) higher than those in previous enrichments. In the
255 goethite-amended autoclaved controls and bottle CH₄-1, DIC concentrations dropped over the 3°
256 enrichment. Only goethite-amended bottle CH₄-2 increased in DIC, without concurrent ¹³C
257 enrichment.

258

259 **Microbial taxonomy**

260 *Inoculum*. 16S rRNA gene amplicons from the sediment inoculum were dominated by those
261 classified as Bathyarchaeota (25%), formerly Miscellaneous Crenarchaeotal Group (MCG; Fig.
262 4) and unclassified Archaea (11%).

263 1° enrichment. After 15 days of incubation with Fe³⁺ substrates, species, richness, evenness and
264 phylogenetic diversity decreased relative to the inoculum in all treatments (Fig. 4).
265 Geobacteraceae (Deltaproteobacteria) became dominant (22-36%) in all ferrihydrite treatments
266 (Fig. 4a); the dominant OTU had 97% similarity to *Geothermobacter* sp. Ferrihydrite-amended
267 bottle CH₄-1 was enriched in the Betaproteobacteria, specifically Comamonaceadeae (17%) and
268 Rhodocyclaceae (9%; Fig. 4a). Bathyarchaeota persisted in goethite treatments (11-25%; Fig.
269 4b).

270 2° enrichment. By day 72, all treatments had lower species richness, phylogenetic diversity, and
271 evenness. Unclassified Desulfuromonadales dominated both ferrihydrite and goethite enrichments
272 (34-68% and 39-53% with ferrihydrite and goethite, respectively). The dominant OTU had 98%
273 similarity to *Geobacter hephaestius*. Bathyarchaeota were depleted compared to the 1°
274 enrichment (Fig. 4). Geobacteraceae declined in ferrihydrite enrichments (2-18%; Fig. 4a).
275 Campylobacteraceae (Epsilonproteobacteria), which was insignificant in the inoculum and the 1°
276 enrichment, comprised 23-40% of sequences in goethite treatments with CH₄; the dominant OTU
277 had 98% similarity to *Sulfurospirillum barnesii* (Fig. 4b). The most abundant methanogenic
278 Euryarchaeota order, Methanobacteriaceae, comprised 1-2% and 6-7% of sequences in
279 ferrihydrite and goethite treatments, respectively the dominant OTU has 100% similarity to
280 *Methanobacterium flexile*.

281 3° enrichment. By day 469, species richness, phylogenetic diversity, and evenness were even
282 lower than in the 2° enrichment (Fig. 4a,b). Unclassified Desulfuromonadales dominated goethite
283 treatments (32-76%; Fig. 4b), but comprised only 18-38% of ferrihydrite treatments. The
284 dominant OTU also had 98% identity to *Geobacter hephaestius/lovleyi*, as in the 2° enrichment.
285 Rhodocyclaceae were more abundant in ferrihydrite treatments with CH₄ (14-15%) than with N₂
286 (2-4%; Fig 4a); the dominant OTU had 100% similarity to *Azospira oryzae/Dechlorosoma*
287 *suillum*. Peptococcaceae (Firmicutes) were most abundant in bottle CH₄-2 with ferrihydrite
288 (30%); the dominant OTU had 96% similarity to uncultured members of the genus *Thermincola*.
289 Syntrophaceae (Deltaproteobacteria) were enriched in all ferrihydrite treatments (11-16%) and
290 goethite treatments with N₂ (8-15%); the dominant OTU had 97% similarity to *Smithella*
291 *propionica*. Methanobacteriaceae comprised 1-4% of sequences in goethite treatments and were

292 absent from ferrihydrite treatments; as in the 2° enrichment, the dominant OTU had 100%
293 identity to *Methanobacterium flexile*.

294

295 **DISCUSSION**

296 **Rates of Fe³⁺ reduction in long-term ferruginous sediment incubations**

297 Initial rates of HCl-extractable Fe²⁺ production (~1-2 mM d⁻¹) in the 1° enrichment were similar
298 to those from freshwater wetlands (Roden & Wetzel, 2002 ; Jensen et al., 2003 ; Kostka et al.,
299 2002). Activity declined with each successive transfer (0.4 and 0.08 mM d⁻¹ for 2° and 3°
300 enrichments, respectively), despite replenishment of Fe³⁺ substrates. Declining Fe³⁺ reduction
301 rates through the incubation period likely reflects limitation by availability of organic carbon, the
302 most thermodynamically favorable electron donor, which was diluted during each successive
303 transfer of the lake sediment. The next two most thermodynamically favorable electron donors
304 are H₂ and CH₄. Hydrogen could have been supplied by fermenters such as Syntrophaceae, but
305 would ultimately still require a source of organic carbon. Methane as an electron donor for
306 microbial Fe³⁺ reduction is thermodynamically favorable and coupling of Fe³⁺ reduction to CH₄
307 oxidation has been long suspected as a viable microbial metabolism (Caldwell et al., 2008 ;
308 Zehnder & Brock, 1980). In our 2° and 3° enrichments, CH₄ addition resulted in higher Fe²⁺
309 yield with goethite and ferrihydrite, respectively. This could be the result of (a) methanotrophic
310 growth resulting in production of organics which is used by heterotrophic Fe³⁺ reducers or (b)
311 the direct coupling of CH₄ oxidation and Fe³⁺ reduction. No difference in initial Fe²⁺ production
312 rates however, suggests that initial CH₄ oxidation was driven by another electron donor.

313 Higher Fe³⁺ reduction rates were maintained on ferrihydrite than goethite, consistent with
314 the higher energetic yield of ferrihydrite vs. goethite as well as its typically greater surface-area.

315 Formation of magnetic minerals was likely due to adsorption of Fe^{2+} onto ferrihydrite followed
316 by solid-state conversion of ferrihydrite to magnetite (Hansel et al., 2003). Since the HCl-
317 extraction method does not dissolve magnetite and magnetite-adsorbed Fe^{2+} (Poulton & Canfield,
318 2005), it is possible that the Fe^{3+} reduction observed in the study is an underestimation of total
319 activity.

320

321 **Fe^{3+} oxide mineralogy controls methane production and methanogen taxonomy**

322 Our observation of higher rates of methanogenesis in goethite vs. ferrihydrite amendments is
323 consistent with prior results showing that bacteria that reduce ferrihydrite better outcompete
324 methanogenic archaea for H_2 and acetate than those that reduce goethite and other more
325 crystalline Fe^{3+} oxides (Lovley & Phillips, 1987 ; Lovley & Goodwin, 1988 ; Zhou et al., 2014 ;
326 Hori et al., 2010 ; Roden & Wetzel, 1996). This outcompetition is also broadly supported by
327 taxonomic shifts. In particular, anaerobic heterotrophs such as *Geothermobacter sp.* (Kashefi et
328 al., 2003) enriched in ferrihydrite treatments by day 15 may have outcompeted other microbes
329 for organic carbon sources.

330 Goethite treatments contained higher abundances of Methanobacteriaceae (0.1-1% and 1-
331 4% on days 15 and 469, respectively) than ferrihydrite treatments ($\leq 0.1\%$ throughout),
332 suggesting that CH_4 in goethite treatments came from the substrates used by
333 Methanobacteriaceae (H_2/CO_2 , formate, or CO). The ferrihydrite treatment (bottle 2) that
334 produced CH_4 by day 469 contained 3% Methanosaetaceae, which produce CH_4 from acetate, or
335 from H_2/CO_2 via direct interspecies electron transfer with *Geobacter* (Rotaru et al., 2014). The
336 most dominant OTU had 98% similarity to *Methanosaeta concilii*, in agreement with
337 observations from the Lake Matano water column (Crowe et al., 2011). It is also possible that

338 archaea could be directly involved in Fe^{3+} reduction (Vargas et al., 1998 ; Sivan et al., 2016),
339 although the lack of methanogenesis in ferrihydrite treatments does not support this.

340

341 **Fe^{3+} -dependent CH_4 oxidation**

342 Enrichments were established under conditions thought favorable for Fe^{3+} -dependent CH_4
343 oxidation (e.g. Fe^{3+} oxides and CH_4 as the most abundant electron acceptors and donors,
344 respectively). Incorporation of $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ into DIC overlapped with the second phase of Fe^{3+}
345 reduction (days 6-10) in the 1° enrichment but continued after Fe^{3+} reduction stopped at day 10,
346 suggesting an alternative electron acceptor for CH_4 oxidation. Moreover, the stoichiometry of
347 CH_4 oxidized to Fe^{2+} reduced in the 1° enrichment was significantly lower than predicted (1:8;
348 Fig. 5). Low to negative rates of DIC production in the 2° enrichment complicated measurements
349 of CH_4 oxidation. In the 3° enrichment, significant DIC production and ^{13}C incorporation was
350 observed in the first 15 days in bottle CH_4 -2 with ferrihydrite, but thereafter isotopic values
351 returned to background levels. The apparent spike in CH_4 oxidation was unlikely coupled to Fe^{3+}
352 reduction (Fig. 5). However, over the same time period, bottle CH_4 -1 oxidized methane and
353 reduced iron in a ratio close to the 1 CH_4 oxidized: 8 Fe^{3+} reduced predicted for Fe-AOM (Fig.
354 5). Goethite-amended cultures were also close to the 1:8 line, albeit with extremely low CH_4
355 oxidation and Fe^{3+} reduction rates. By the end of 3° enrichment (day 466), CH_4 -amended
356 treatments produced twice as much HCl-extractable Fe^{2+} as N_2 treatments, suggesting that Fe^{3+}
357 reduction was stimulated by CH_4 . However, without evidence for CH_4 oxidation data during this
358 time interval, we cannot attribute this stimulation to Fe-AOM. It is important to note that these
359 CH_4 oxidation rates may be underestimates due to the low levels of DIC production in our
360 experiments. This suggests that high levels of autotrophy or CO_2 reduction to CH_4 may have

361 been taking place in our enrichments. In addition, decreasing pH values in some of our
362 enrichments could have pulled DIC into headspace CO₂ subsequently lowering DIC
363 concentrations.

364 Only minor community composition differences were observed between CH₄- and N₂-
365 cultures; by day 469, the only taxon that was more abundant in the CH₄ vs. N₂ treatments was the
366 betaproteobacterium *Azospira oryzae/Dechlorosoma suillum*, a member of the Rhodocyclaceae
367 family. The potential role of this microbe in CH₄ cycling remains unclear, as laboratory cultures
368 of this species are not known to oxidize CH₄. It is also possible that the growth of novel
369 organisms capable of high rates of Fe³⁺-dependent CH₄ oxidation was inhibited by other
370 unidentified factors, potentially related to the batch-style incubations, the use of butyl rubber
371 stoppers (Niemann et al., 2015), or the lack of a critical substrate in the enrichment medium.

372

373 **Effect of Fe³⁺ oxide and carbon substrates on microbial community diversity**

374 The microbial community underwent multiple shifts over the 500-day incubation, with an overall
375 decrease in species richness, species evenness, and phylogenetic diversity over the course of
376 incubation. This was likely in response to declining organic carbon and alternative electron
377 donors. By the 3^o enrichment, species evenness was consistently lower in each goethite-amended
378 treatment than in the respective ferrihydrite-amended treatment. This could mean that the greater
379 energetic yield of ferrihydrite reduction fosters higher diversity. Alternatively, the higher
380 reactivity of ferrihydrite may allow it to be utilized by more organisms than goethite.

381 All of the most enriched taxa have relatives that in laboratory cultures reduce Fe³⁺.
382 Within those taxa, the most abundant OTUs were closely related to organisms capable of Fe³⁺
383 reduction (*Geothermobacter sp.*, *Geobacter hephaestius/Geobacter lovleyi*, *Thermincola sp.*, and

384 *Sulfurospirillum barnesii*) (Kashefi et al., 2003 ; Zavarzina et al., 2007 ; Stolz et al., 1999). It is
385 important to note that all taxa enriched in our experiments comprised $\leq 0.1\%$ of the inoculum
386 community. Desulfuromonadales was the only metal-reducing taxon that was continuously
387 present in all enrichments (3-11%, 34-53%, and 18-76% in the inoculum, 1^o, 2^o, and 3^o
388 enrichment respectively). Other taxa significantly differed in their abundance over the course of
389 incubation. Geobacteraceae was enriched at day 15 with ferrihydrite (22-36%) but had declined
390 in abundance by day 72 (8-18%). Other taxa including Rhodocyclaceae and Peptococcaceae,
391 were enriched in the presence of ferrihydrite at day 469. In goethite treatments,
392 Campylobacteraceae (23-40%) were enriched at day 72, but did not make up a significant
393 portion of the community at day 469. The succession of different metal-reducing taxa may be
394 due to the changing availability of electron donors (e.g. H₂ and organic C). Enrichment of
395 Syntrophaceae, known for their syntrophic fermentative interactions, suggests the establishment
396 of syntrophy in the 3^o enrichment in response to depletion of electron donors.

397

398 **Geobiological implications**

399 The anaerobic microbial metabolisms studied here – Fe³⁺ reduction and hydrogenotrophic
400 methanogenesis – were likely of great importance to the Archean carbon cycle (Konhauser et al.,
401 2005 ; Posth et al., 2013 ; Johnson et al., 2008). The severe organic carbon limitation in our
402 incubations likely mimics conditions of the Archean ocean with relatively low amounts of
403 primary production and biopolymer degradation as well as the absence of complex organic
404 substances supplied by multicellular eukaryotes (Knoll et al., 2016 ; Farquhar et al., 2011). Our
405 results point to a mineralogical control on Fe³⁺-reduction, methanogenesis, and microbial
406 community composition and diversity. Rapid sedimentation of amorphous Fe³⁺ phases like

407 ferrihydrite could have supported sediments with diverse communities of Fe^{3+} -reducing
408 organisms that could have outcompeted other taxa such as methanogens for limited carbon and
409 nutrients. Conversely, slow deposition and aging of ferrihydrite to goethite could have limited
410 both the abundance and diversity of Fe^{3+} -reducing organisms, allowing for the establishment of a
411 methanogenic community. Therefore, we posit that methanogenesis rates in the Archean would
412 have depended on the relative abundance of the Fe^{3+} phases and their distributions in marine
413 sediments. Sediments below shallow water columns were likely fed by abundant amorphous Fe^{3+}
414 from photoferrotrophic activity. In the open ocean, organic carbon and Fe^{3+} would have been
415 significantly consumed before reaching sediments, leaving only more crystalline iron phases that
416 are difficult to reduce. Importantly, the role of Fe^{3+} -driven CH_4 oxidation appears limited given
417 our experimental results, though we cannot rule out this pathway given that some of our data
418 suggest it may operate at low rates. Overall, our results support a model for an Archean
419 ferruginous biosphere supported by spatially segregated habitats of bacterial Fe^{3+} reduction from
420 reactive Fe^{3+} oxides, and archaeal methanogenesis in the presence of less reactive Fe^{3+} phases.
421 Rates of Fe deposition, aging, and recrystallization may thus have played an important role in
422 regulating the preservation of sedimentary Fe^{3+} , the production of methane, and the ecology and
423 diversity of the Archean biosphere.

424 **Acknowledgements**

425 This research was funded by NASA Exobiology grant NNX14AJ87G. Support was also
426 provided by a Center for Dark Energy Biosphere Investigations (NSF-CDEBI OCE-0939564)
427 small research grant, and supported by the NASA Astrobiology Institute (NNA15BB03A). SAC
428 was supported through NSERC CRC, CFI, and Discovery grants. We thank Miles Mobley and
429 Johnny Striepen for assistance with laboratory incubations, and Nadia Szeinbaum, Liz Percak-
430 Dennett, Martial Taillefert, and Joel Kostka for helpful discussions.

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599 **Figure Captions**

600 **Figure 1. HCl-extractable Fe²⁺ for sediment enrichments with (a) ferrihydrite and (b)**
601 **goethite over 497 days.** Timeline at top shows transfer dates and dilution ratios. “A” represents
602 days that controls were autoclaved. Red and black symbols represent treatments with and without
603 CH₄, respectively. White symbols represent autoclaved controls. All treatments were run in
604 duplicate (circle and triangle symbols). Tertiary enrichments are magnified as inset. Photos
605 depict 2° and 3° enrichment bottles on day 497 with evidence for magnetic mineral formation in
606 live treatments amended with ferrihydrite.

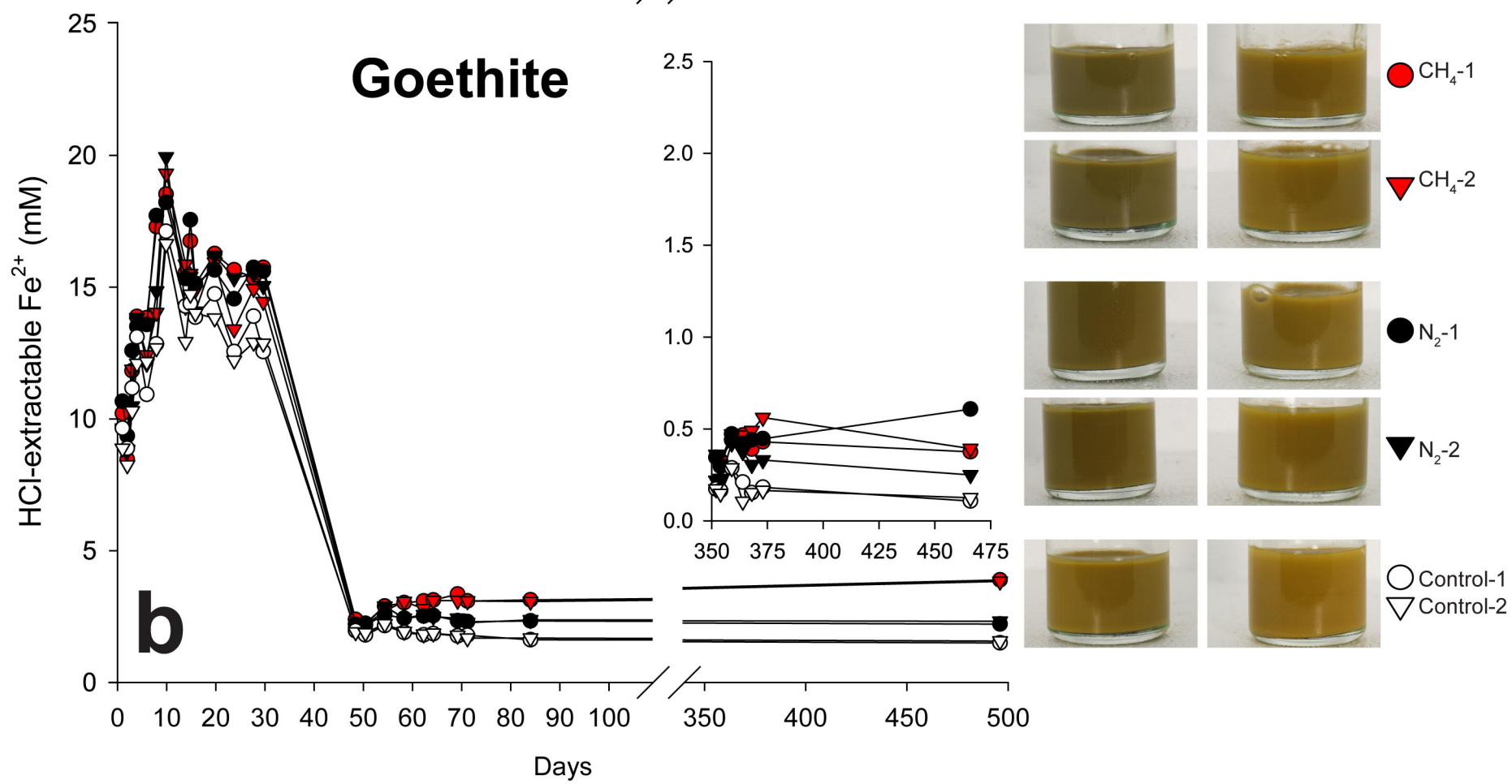
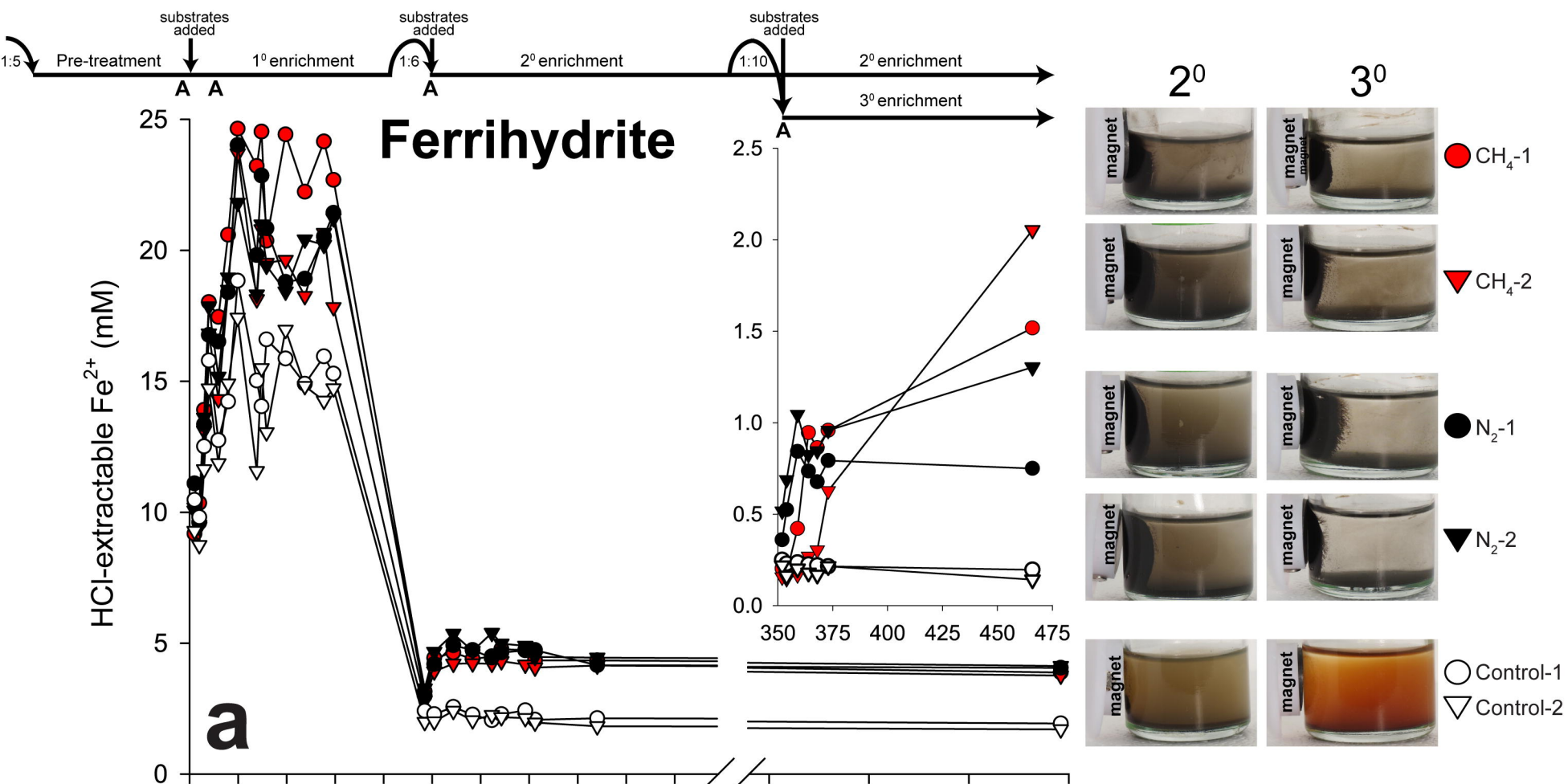
607 **Figure 2. Accumulation of CH₄ in the headspace of sediment enrichments.** Timeline at top
608 shows transfer dates and dilution ratios. Solid and dotted lines represent ferrihydrite and goethite
609 treatments, respectively. All treatments were run in duplicate (circle and triangle symbols).
610 Original headspace was 100% N₂.

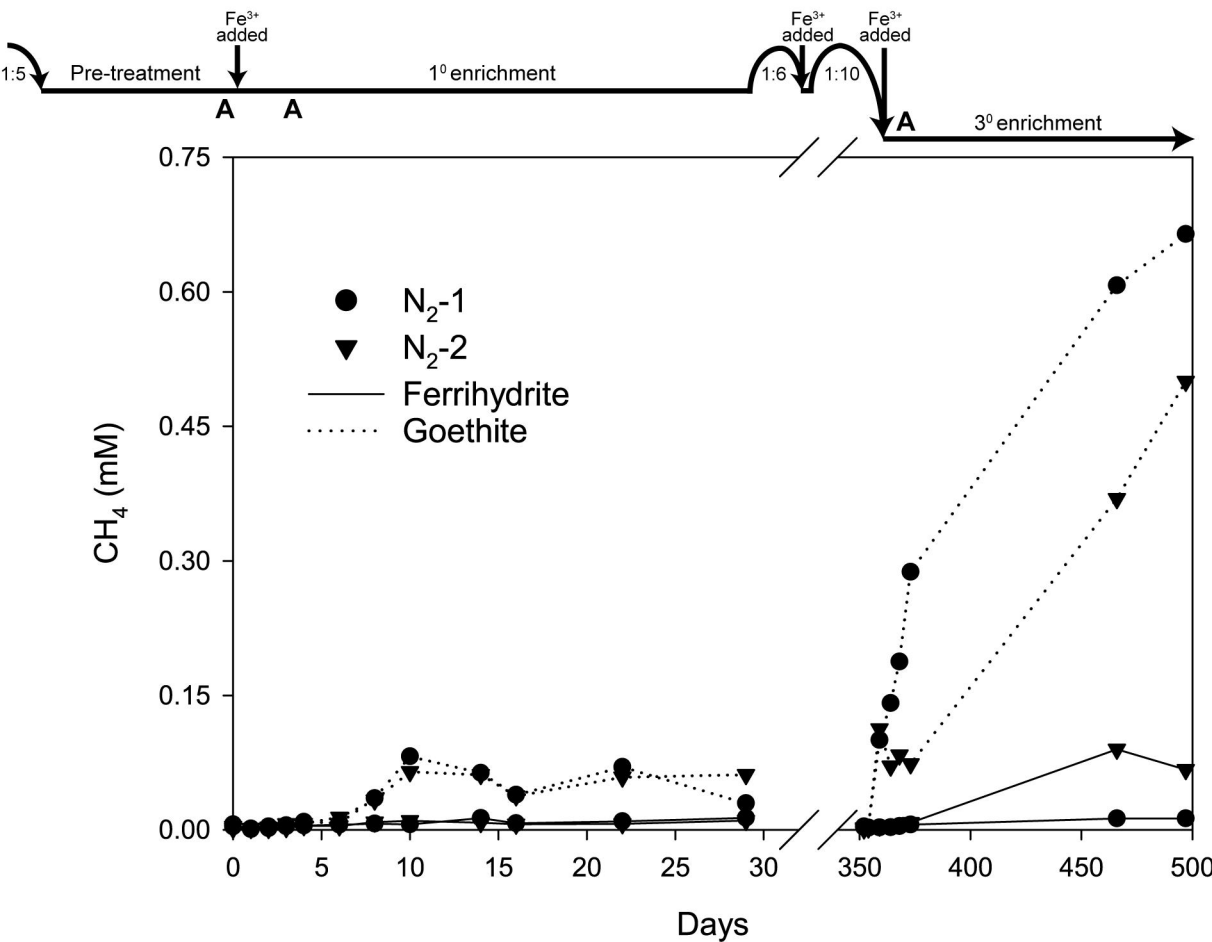
611 **Figure 3. Dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) isotopic composition and concentration for**
612 **sediment enrichments amended with ¹³CH₄ and either (a,c) ferrihydrite or (b,d) goethite.**
613 Timeline at top shows transfer dates and dilution ratios. “A” represents days that controls were
614 autoclaved. Red and white symbols represent live treatments and autoclaved controls,
615 respectively. Errors bars represent standard deviation of triplicate measurements. Calculated
616 methane oxidation rates for the 1° enrichment were 1.7 and 1.1 μM CH₄ d⁻¹ ferrihydrite bottles 1
617 and 2, respectively and 0.2 and 0.8 μM CH₄ d⁻¹ for goethite bottles 1 and 2, respectively. Isotopic
618 data are not plotted for DIC concentrations 0.5 mM. Rate calculations were not possible for the
619 2° enrichment due to low/variable DIC.

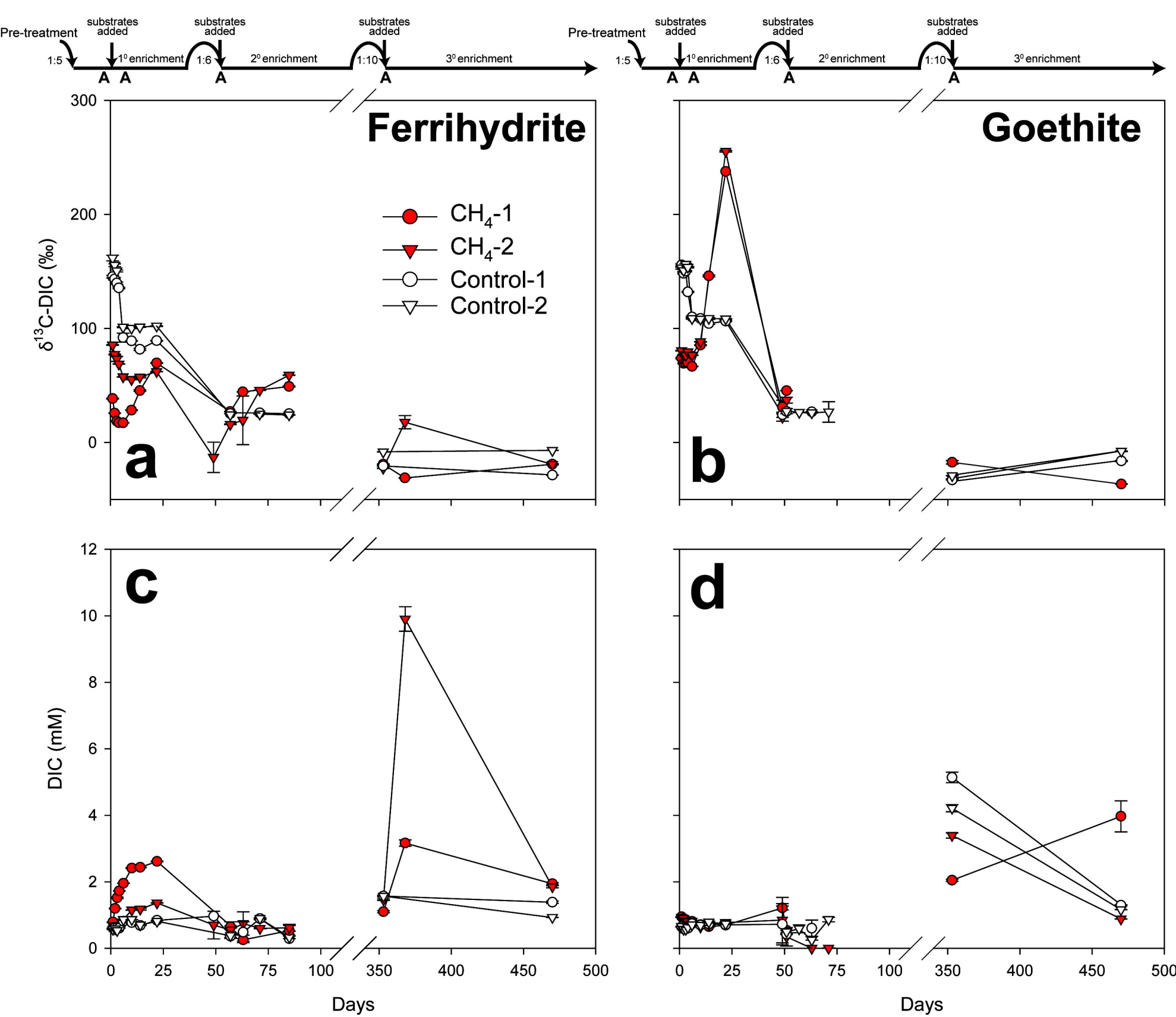
620 **Figure 4. 16S rRNA gene diversity and phylogenetic diversity for inoculum and sediment**
621 **enrichments amended with (a) ferrihydrite and (b) goethite.** Samples were taken on day 15
622 (1° enrichment), 72 (2° enrichment) and 469 (3° enrichment). Red and black symbols represent
623 treatments with and without CH₄, respectively. Gray diamonds represent inoculum samples. All
624 treatments were run in duplicate (circle and triangle symbols). Species richness, phylogenetic
625 diversity, and species evenness for the sediment inoculum and enrichments normalized to 4000
626 sequences per sample are shown to the right of barcharts.

627 **Figure 5. Rates of HCl-extractable Fe³⁺ reduction rates vs. CH₄ production (black symbols)**
628 **or CH₄ oxidation (red symbols).** Autoclaved controls are white circles. “F” indicates
629 ferrihydrite and “G” indicates goethite. The red line indicates the line for the predicted ratio of 1
630 mol CH₄ oxidized per 8 mol Fe³⁺ reduced. Tertiary enrichments are magnified as inset.

631

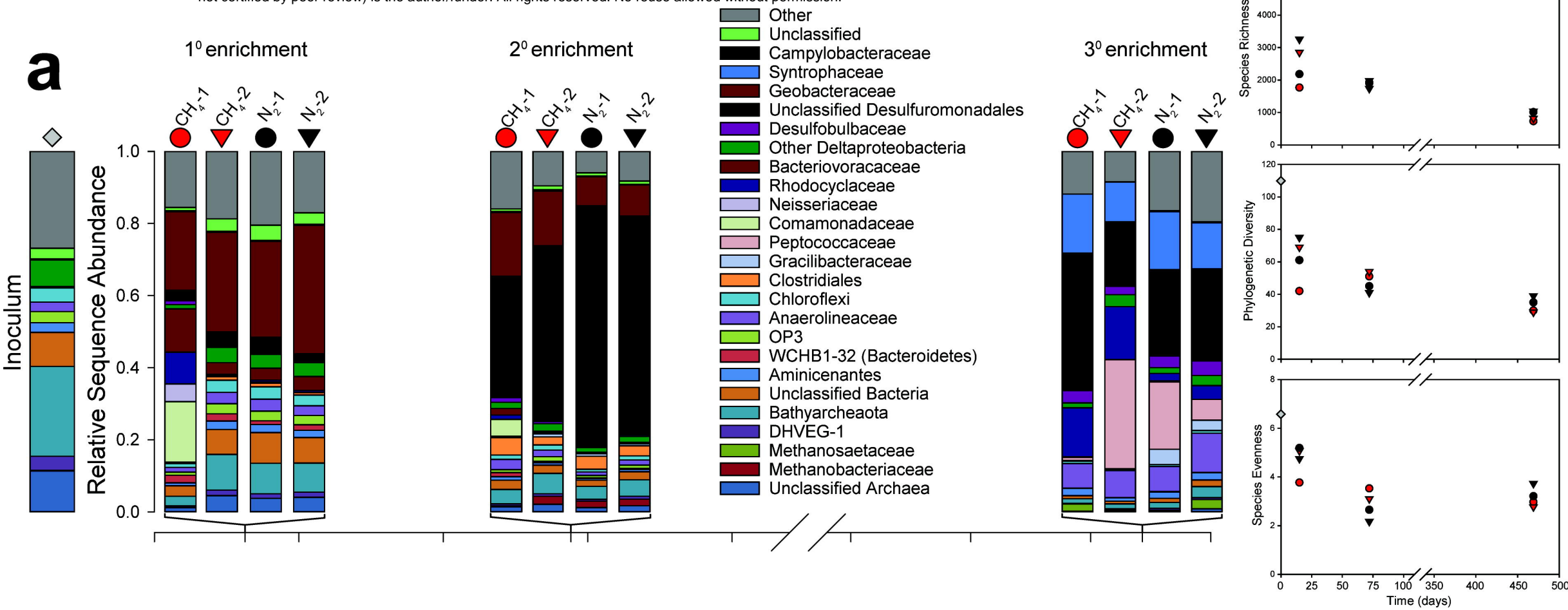






Ferrihydrite

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Goethite

