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*In situ* estimates of iron-oxidation and accretion rates for iron-oxidizing bacterial mats at Lō’ihi Seamount.

David Emerson<sup>1\*</sup>, Jarrod J. Scott<sup>1</sup>, Anna Leavitt<sup>1</sup>, Emily Fleming<sup>2</sup>, Craig Moyer<sup>3</sup>.

<sup>1</sup>Bigelow Laboratory for Ocean Sciences, East Boothbay, ME; <sup>2</sup>California State University, Chico, CA; <sup>3</sup>Western Washington University, Bellingham, WA

\*Corresponding author:  
Bigelow Laboratory for Ocean Sciences, 60 Bigelow Dr, East Boothbay, ME 04544;  
[demerson@bigelow.org](mailto:demerson@bigelow.org); (207)315-2567

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36 Highlights.

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38 • An *in-situ* productivity chamber was developed to estimate rates of Fe-oxidation and  
39 understand colonization patterns at chemosynthetic iron mats at Lōʻihi Seamount.

40

41 • Fe-oxidation rates ranged from  $8.2\text{--}51.9 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$ , and it was estimated that the  
42 iron mats could accrete at around  $2.2 \text{ cm} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$ .

43

44 • The iron mat community was dominated by Zetaproteobacteria, whose relative  
45 abundance accounted for up to 89% of the microbial community.

46

47 • The community membership that grew during short-term incubations reflected the  
48 community composition of nearby microbial mats.

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50

51

52 **Abstract.**

53

54 It is increasingly recognized that diffuse, hydrothermal venting is an important source of

55 iron to the deep-sea that can influence oceanic iron dynamics and abundance.

56 Lithotrophic Fe-oxidizing bacteria (FeOB) are dominant at diffuse hydrothermal vent

57 sites, producing microbial iron mats that are often centimeters or more thick. At present,

58 little is known about *in situ* Fe-oxidation rates, or accretion rates for iron mats. An *in situ*

59 productivity chamber was developed that took advantage of the unique mineral

60 morphotypes produced by FeOB to estimate rates of Fe-oxidation and accretion.

61 Chambers were placed at two diffuse vents (1179 and 1300 mbsl) at Lō'ihi Seamount

62 where they were colonized by FeOB for different amounts of time. From this analysis, it

63 was estimated that Fe-oxidation rates could range from  $8.2\text{--}51.9 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$ , and that

64 iron mats could accrete at around  $2.2 \text{ cm} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$ . Molecular analysis indicated that the

65 relative abundance of Zetaproteobacteria, a group of known FeOB, accounted for 80–

66 90% of the bacteria colonizing the chambers. There was a distinct difference between

67 populations at the 1179m site (Pohaku), and the 1300m site (North Hiolo Ridge).

68 Microscope slides placed within the productivity chambers were colonized by different

69 morphotypes of FeOB. The cells responsible for one common morphotype that produces

70 a Y-shaped filament were identified as Zetaproteobacteria by use of a small subunit

71 rRNA probe. This work confirms the importance of FeOB in the formation of

72 chemosynthetic iron mats, and provides the first estimates for *in situ* Fe-oxidation rates

73 and mat accretion rates.

74 **1. Introduction.**

75

76 Many marine hydrothermal vent systems host chemosynthetic microbial mat  
77 communities dominated by lithotrophic Fe-oxidizing bacteria (FeOB) that live on Fe(II)-  
78 rich, anoxic fluids emanating from the seafloor. These vent ecosystems are found both in  
79 the deep-sea and in shallow waters, and can be associated with active volcanic  
80 seamounts, as well as tectonic crustal spreading and subduction zones (Boothman and  
81 Lloyd, 2010; Emerson and Moyer, 2002; Kato et al., 2009; Scott et al., 2015). The most  
82 active Fe-oxidizing communities are associated with cooler, diffuse flow systems capable  
83 of supporting microbial mats that are often centimeters thick or more. Despite numerous  
84 studies of microbial iron mats, the *in situ* activities marine of FeOB are not well studied,  
85 nor do we know the accretion rates of *in situ* iron mats. The rapid heterogeneous  
86 oxidation (also referred to as auto-oxidation) of iron at circumneutral pH make it  
87 challenging to distinguish between abiotic and biotic reactions, thus making simple mass  
88 balance calculations difficult to interpret (Melton et al., 2014). Iron isotopes have proven  
89 useful for distinguishing some types of abiotic from biotic oxidation of iron, but are less  
90 suitable for specific rate measurements (Johnson et al., 2008). Thus there are inherent  
91 challenges to assessing the *in situ* activity of Fe-oxidizing microbial communities.

92 A more detailed understanding of the productivity of these Fe-fueled ecosystems  
93 can also help better constrain their contribution to the oceanic Fe budget. It is clear there  
94 are still significant unknowns regarding the contribution of hydrothermal sources of iron  
95 to the ocean's iron budget (German et al., 2015; Resing et al., 2015). Furthermore, the  
96 biogenic iron oxides produced at hydrothermal vents have unique properties. They are

97 often referred to as hydrous ferric oxides (HFO) in part because they are poorly  
98 crystalline oxides, composed primarily of ferrihydrite, with large surface areas that  
99 adsorb water and are relatively buoyant (Emerson, 2016). These biogenic oxides undergo  
100 diagenesis to crystalline forms more slowly than synthesized iron oxides, probably as a  
101 result of containing organic ligands, as well as becoming silicified (Kennedy et al., 2004;  
102 Picard et al., 2015; Toner et al., 2012). Combined, these properties of biogenic iron  
103 oxides may result in longer residence times in the water column, and increased  
104 bioavailability. There is evidence that biogenic iron oxides contribute to the iron flux  
105 into the ocean (Bennett et al., 2011; Toner et al., 2009), thus understanding details about  
106 their production is important to understanding their contribution as a global iron source.

107 One avenue for assessing *in situ* activity, and estimating iron oxidation rates is to  
108 take advantage of the unique morphotypes of biogenic oxides produced by FeOB. These  
109 morphotypes include cylindrical filamentous sheaths, helical stalks, short tubular stalks  
110 (referred to here as Y's), and other filamentous forms (Chan et al., 2016). Freshly  
111 produced biogenic morphotypes are relatively easy to classify by light microscopy, thus  
112 FeOB offer a rare opportunity to observe microbial growth in nature. We chose to utilize  
113 this approach, hypothesizing that use of a chamber designed to capture iron oxides and  
114 cell morphologies could provide insight into how FeOB colonization may occur, further  
115 our understanding of the population dynamics involved in colonization, and provide an  
116 estimate for *in-situ* growth rates.

117

118 **2. Materials and Methods.**

119 *2.1 Chamber Design.* A productivity chamber was designed for seafloor deployment. The  
120 chamber consisted of a central open rectangular section that held microscope slides and  
121 weights (Fig. 1). The microscope slides were placed in standard 50 ml conical tubes (1  
122 slide/tube) with the bottoms removed. A zip-tie was attached at the top and bottom of the  
123 tube to prevent the slides from falling out. The conical tubes were then attached to the  
124 open interior of the chamber with zip-ties. A hollow tube, referred to here as a cassette,  
125 with open screw-cap ends that had Nitex nylon mesh cut to fit the openings on either end  
126 was strapped on either side of the chamber with zip ties, as shown in Fig.1. The volume  
127 each cassette was 95 ml. The chamber and cassette was constructed from PVC hardware  
128 purchased at a building supply store. To allow for manipulation by the robotic arm of a  
129 submersible, a lanyard of floating polypropylene line with a small float of syntactic foam  
130 was attached to each chamber.

131

132 *2.2 Chamber Deployment and recovery.* Chambers were deployed at two sites on the  
133 seafloor in close vicinity to diffuse flow hydrothermal vents at Lō'ihi Seamount  
134 (18.920°N, 155.270°W). Deployment was done using the ROV *Jason 2* during the initial  
135 dives of a 14 day expedition to Lō'ihi in spring of 2013. The first deployment of 4  
136 chambers (8 cassettes) was at Pohaku vents (sometimes referred to as Marker 57) at a  
137 depth of 1,179m. The second deployment of four chambers was at North Hiolo Ridge  
138 (NHR, Marker 39) at a depth of 1300m. Chambers were inspected on 'fly-bys' during  
139 subsequent submersible operations to visually assess if iron oxides were accumulating in  
140 the cassettes. At Pohaku, due to a lack of iron-oxide accumulation, the chambers were re-

141 deployed after 7 days, as described in the Results and Discussion section. Miniature  
142 temperature recorders (MTRs) were deployed in vents at both the NHR and Pohaku sites.  
143 For recovery, the chambers were placed in a closed bio-box mounted on the  
144 submersible to maintain static water conditions during subsequent ROV operations. As  
145 soon as *Jason* was on deck, the bio-box was opened, and while still submerged rubber  
146 stoppers (size 9 1/2) were pushed into the bottom opening of the cassettes to prevent the  
147 water entrained in them from draining out after the chambers were removed from the bio-  
148 box. In the lab the cassettes were removed from the chamber body, and the top mesh  
149 removed. The iron oxides that accumulated in the cassette were placed in sterile 50 ml  
150 conical tubes with a 25 ml pipette. These oxides were processed for analysis of cell  
151 counts, morphology, and total iron, and a subsample was frozen for DNA extraction. The  
152 microscope slides from the chamber interior were removed and air-dried. Perhaps as a  
153 result of the longer incubation times at NHR, the individual cassettes for each chamber  
154 contained more oxides than the Pohaku chambers. For this reason, each cassette from the  
155 NHR chambers was harvested separately, while the two cassettes for each of the four  
156 Pohaku samples were combined to a single sample. As a result, the oxidation rates  
157 reported in Table 1 are broken into the individual cassettes for NHR samples, but  
158 combined for the cassettes from the Pohaku chambers.  
159  
160 *2.3 Cell counts.* Cell counts were done on aliquots of the iron oxides that were fixed in  
161 2% glutaraldehyde. Counting was done by diluting the original sample between 1:2 and  
162 1:5, depending upon the initial cell density, and then using 10  $\mu$ l of the diluted material to  
163 make a uniform smear within a 1 cm diameter ring on an agarose-coated microscope

164 slide. This was allowed to air-dry, and then 6  $\mu$ l of d-H<sub>2</sub>O plus 3  $\mu$ l of the nucleic acid  
165 dye Syto13 (Invitrogen) was added, and the cells were counted by epifluorescence  
166 microscopy using the 100x objective on an Olympus BX60 microscope. Further details  
167 on these procedures can be found in (Emerson and Moyer, 2002).

168

169 *2.4 Morphological analysis.* To assess the different morphotypes of iron oxides present in  
170 the cassettes, the cell counting samples were subjected to an additional 1:10 dilution and  
171 prepared on the counting slides, as described above. Additional dilution ensured minimal  
172 overlapping of individual oxide particles on the microscope slide. Images of 8 random  
173 microscope fields (40x objective, brightfield) were collected for three different aliquots  
174 of the same sample. Imaging was done using a Qicam Fast CCD camera (QImaging,  
175 Surrey, BC, Canada) mounted on an Olympus BX60 microscope. The image analysis  
176 program ImageJ (<https://imagej.nih.gov/nih-image/>) was used to quantify the different  
177 morphotypes in each image. Morphotypes were classified as sheaths, stalks, Y-shaped  
178 structures, filaments, and amorphous oxide particles of no determinate shape. Details on  
179 the image analysis and definition of morphotypes has been published elsewhere (Scott et  
180 al., 2015). Analysis of colonization slides was done by light microscopy. To qualitatively  
181 assess coverage and the different morphotypes present on the slides, arbitrary images  
182 (40x objective) were taken at 0.5 cm intervals for the entire length of the 7.5 cm  
183 microscope slide.

184 To make representational images of different individual morphotypes of either  
185 stalks, Y's, or stick-like filaments, incubation slides were stained with Syto13 and  
186 examples of different morphotypes were imaged, either as individual photomicrographs,



187 or several overlapping images were used to make a photomosaic in ImageJ. These images  
188 were used to determine the length of individual filaments, either stalks or Y's as reported  
189 below, as well as create composite fluorescent and light images to show the juxtaposition  
190 of cells producing Fe-oxide structures.

191

192 *2.5 Total iron.* The total amount of Fe-oxides that had accumulated in each cassette, or  
193 set of 2 cassettes was determined by diluting a sample of the oxides 1:10 in 0.1 M  
194 hydroxylamine to reduce the oxides to Fe(II). This solution was then diluted 1:10 or 1:20  
195 into a ferrozine solution to colorimetrically quantify the amount of iron present. Iron was  
196 assayed using the ferrozine method (Stookey, 1970) (34) adapted for reading on a  
197 Mikroskan 96 well plate reader (Mcbeth et al., 2011).

198

199 *2.6 Fluorescent in situ Hybridization (FISH).* Phylogenetic staining was used to identify  
200 the phylogeny of cells attached to Y-shaped iron-oxides. Samples enriched in this  
201 morphotype were collected, preserved with paraformaldehyde, washed with PBS, and  
202 resuspended in 1:1 PBS ethanol at -20 °C until further analysis. Cells attached to the  
203 terminal end of Y shaped iron oxides was performed using Catalyzed Activated Reporter  
204 Deposition FISH (CARD-FISH; (Pernthaler et al., 2002)) and modified to limit the non-  
205 specific binding of probes that occurs in iron-oxide rich samples with several blocking  
206 agents (Fleming et al., 2013). Finally, a Cy-3 Zeta proteobacteria specific probe, unlabeled  
207 helper probes, and a 20% formamide concentration (Fleming et al., 2013) were used to  
208 confirm the phylogenetic affiliation of the Y attached cells.

209

210 2.7 *Community analysis*. We selected 6 samples for 454-pyrosequencing analyses, two  
211 from NHR–148h (chambers 1 & 7), two from NHR–256h (chambers 2 & 6), and two  
212 from Pohaku (chambers 5 & 8). Samples were processed following previously published  
213 protocols (Scott *et al.*, 2015). From each mat sample, approximately 250 mg (wet weight)  
214 of mat material was used for DNA extraction from each sample using a Mo Bio  
215 PowerSoil® DNA Extraction Kit (Mo Bio Laboratories, Carlsbad CA, USA), modified to  
216 include an initial phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (PCI) step. We found that adding an  
217 initial PCI treatment increased final DNA yield from an average < 5ng/μL to  
218 concentrations typically > 15 ng/μL (data not shown). Briefly, 200 μL of bead solution  
219 was removed from each bead tube and replaced with 200 μL of 25:24:1 PCI (Sigma-  
220 Aldrich, St. Louis MO, USA). Samples were then extracted using the manufacture  
221 recommended protocol and sent to Research and Testing Laboratory (Lubbock TX, USA)  
222 for pyrosequencing. We targeted the V4–V5 hypervariable region of the small subunit  
223 rRNA gene (SSU rRNA; *E. coli* positions 531–997) using 530F (5'-GTG CCA GCM  
224 GCN GCG G-3') and 1100R (5'-GGG TTN CGN TCG TTG-3') following established  
225 protocols (Dowd *et al.*, 2008).

226 Sequence processing was performed using mothur v.1.35.0 (Schloss *et al.*, 2009)  
227 following previously published methodology (Schloss *et al.*, 2011). Specifically, we used  
228 mothur to remove primer and barcode sequences from all reads, as well as any short reads  
229 (< 250 bp), reads containing more than six homopolymers, reads with any ambiguities,  
230 and/or any chimeric reads detected by UCHIME (Edgar *et al.*, 2011). All quality filtered  
231 reads were aligned against a mothur-compatible re-creation  
232 (mothur.org/wiki/Silva\_reference\_files; last accessed 09.11.2016) of the SILVA-SEED

233 (SILVA v123) reference alignment (Quast et al., 2012). Pyrotag reads were classified  
234 against the Greengenes reference taxonomy (McDonald et al., 2012). All pyrosequencing  
235 libraries are deposited at the European Nucleotide Archive under the sample accessions  
236 numbers ERS1466444–ERS1466449, study accession number PRJEB18515. For  
237 comparative purposes we included data from iron mats at the Mid-Atlantic Ridge and  
238 Lō’ihi (Scott et al., 2016).

239

#### 240 *2.8 Community analysis.*

241 Minimum Entropy Decomposition (MED) (Eren et al., 2014) analysis was performed on  
242 the complete dataset of 142,025 reads from 52 samples using the following screening  
243 parameters: minimum substantive abundance, 28; minimum entropy value for  
244 decomposition, 0.0965; maximum number of discriminants to use for decomposition, 4;  
245 maximum variation allowed in each node, 3 nucleotides. Per node normalization was  
246 conducted before decomposition based on the node size of the most abundant sequence in  
247 the dataset (Eren et al., 2014). Screening removed 18,290 outliers resulting in 123,735  
248 total reads in the final analysis. Alignments contained 570 characters with an average  
249 read length of 268 base pairs without gaps. Bray-Curtis dissimilarity coefficient (Bray  
250 and Curtis, 1957) was used to calculate distance metrics for non-metric multidimensional  
251 scaling (NMDS) analyses.

252 In addition, all reads from MED nodes classified as Zetaproteobacteria were  
253 classified further using ZetaHunter (<https://github.com/mooreryan/ZetaHunter>, last  
254 accessed 12.05.2016)—a command line script designed to assign SSU rRNA gene  
255 sequences to Zetaproteobacteria OTUs (97% identity) (Edgar et al., 2011; Schloss et al.,

256 2009) defined by a reference database with an underlying phylogenetic structure (SILVA  
257 v123) (Quast et al., 2012; Pruesse et al., 2012). In the absence of a well-defined  
258 taxonomy, OTU binning is currently the accepted method for classifying diversity of  
259 Zetaproteobacteria (McAllister et al., 2011), henceforth referred to as ZetaOtu.

260

### 261 **3. Results and Discussion.**

262 *3.1 Chamber colonization.* The basic design premise for the productivity chambers was  
263 that Fe(II)-rich fluids would pass into, and through the fine mesh that enclosed both ends  
264 of the cassettes. A portion of the Fe(II) is oxidized inside the cassette resulting in  
265 precipitation of Fe-oxides that are large enough ( $> 100 \mu\text{m}$ ) to be retained by the mesh,  
266 thus providing an estimate of accumulation rates for these oxides. A slightly larger mesh  
267 opening ( $100 \mu\text{m}$ ) was used on the cassette exit than on the entrance ( $50 \mu\text{m}$ ), to reduce  
268 the likelihood of back-pressure that could impede flow through the cassette. All the  
269 chambers accumulated Fe-oxides; however placement of the chambers on the  
270 topologically uneven seafloor, and in the diffuse flow venting proved challenging. At  
271 NHR (Mkr 39), four chambers were deployed around the same vent site (Supplemental  
272 Fig. 1); two were collected after 148h (6d) and the remaining two were collected at 256h  
273 (10.5d). At some point between deployment and 148h, one chamber (#6) fell away from  
274 the vent where it was placed, and was redeployed at 148h. Because we do not know the  
275 time it was out of the vent flow, this chamber was not used for rate measurements (see  
276 below). The four chambers placed at Pokahu (Mkr 57) were inspected after 7d on the  
277 seafloor, and there was no visual evidence of Fe-oxides having formed in the cassettes.  
278 Therefore, the chambers were re-deployed to another area of flow about 2 m away, and

279 collected after 112h (4.5d). During the intervening period, visible iron oxidation had  
280 occurred in all the cassettes associated with these four chambers. The temperature at the  
281 vent associated with the Pohaku samplers was constant at around 22°C during the  
282 deployment period (Supplemental Fig. 2). At NHR, the temperature was constant for 4 d  
283 at 36.5 °C, but then decreased to 25°C and showed some fluctuation between 23.5 and  
284 24° until recovery at 6 d (144h), indicating the MTR may have become partially  
285 dislodged from the vent (Supplemental Fig. 2). The Fe(II) and O<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the  
286 chambers themselves were not measured. The Fe(II) concentrations at NHR vents are  
287 between 350 and 450 μM, while at Pohaku the Fe(II) concentrations range from around  
288 400 to >600 μM (Glazer and Rouxel, 2009; Scott et al., 2016). These values were  
289 measured directly in vent orifices. Due to mixing with seawater there is a rapid drop in  
290 Fe(II) concentration away from the vent orifice, thus it would be expected that Fe(II)  
291 concentrations in the cassettes could be 5 – 10-fold less than orifice concentrations.  
292 Because the summit of Lōʻihi is in an oxygen minima zone, the ambient O<sub>2</sub>  
293 concentrations are substantially less than fully oxygenated seawater. In 2013, the O<sub>2</sub>  
294 concentration around NHR was 35 – 38 μM, while at Pohaku it was around 58 μM (Scott  
295 et al., 2016).

296

297 We currently recognize three morphotypes of biogenic Fe-oxides that are associated with  
298 specific groups of FeOB (Chan et al., 2016). These are helical stalks of the type formed  
299 by *Mariprofundus ferrooxydans*, long, round, tubular sheaths produced by filamentous  
300 cells belonging to an as yet uncharacterized Zetaproteobacteria, and flattened tubular  
301 structures that branch in a characteristic Y-shape, and are referred to here as Y's. The

302 sampling process often breaks these different filamentous oxides into smaller pieces.  
303 This, combined with continued mineralization through auto-oxidation of Fe(II) (e.g.  
304 (Rentz et al., 2007)), can make it difficult to distinguish individual filaments as a stalk, Y,  
305 or sheath, therefore a general filamentous oxide category is also included. Particulate  
306 oxides with no definitive morphology can also be common; however, because these  
307 resemble abiotically formed oxides, by themselves, they cannot be used as a proxy for  
308 biogenic Fe-oxide production. The percentages of the different morphotypes found in the  
309 productivity cassettes are shown in Fig. 2. This analysis revealed that recognizable  
310 biogenic morphotypes: stalks, Y's, or filaments accounted for the majority (50 – 70%) of  
311 oxides at NHR. The exception was chamber 6 in which biogenic and particulate oxides  
312 were nearly equal. As noted above, this chamber was temporarily out of the vent flow,  
313 which may have led to less biological oxidation (it also had the least abundance of  
314 Zetaproteobacteria, see below). By contrast, the Pohaku chambers were dominated by  
315 particulate Fe-oxides, and undefined filamentous oxides accounted for most of the  
316 remainder.

317

318 *3.2 Iron oxidation rates.* Collecting the iron oxides that accumulated in each cassette  
319 revealed the short term incubations at NHR had the greatest accumulation of total iron, an  
320 average of  $6.2 \times 10^{-3}$  mol Fe, compared to an average of  $3.1 \times 10^{-3}$  mol for the long term  
321 incubation. The shorter term (114h) Pohaku samplers accumulated an average of  $1.7 \times$   
322  $10^{-3}$  mol Fe, Table 1. From these values an iron oxidation rate expressed in  $\text{mol} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$  was  
323 calculated:

324 
$$\text{Fe-ox rate} = \text{Total Fe Chamber (moles)}/\text{Deployment time (hr)}$$

325 The results for each chamber are shown in Table 1; the rates ranged from a lower value  
326 of  $8.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$  (Pohaku) up to  $51.9 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$  (NHR/148hr). The Fe-  
327 oxidation rates measured at NHR were 3-fold faster for the 148h deployment than for the  
328 256h deployment:  $42.1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$  vs.  $12.9 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$ , and the average Pohaku  
329 rate,  $15.1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$  was similar to the single longer term NHR deployment  
330 (chamber #2).

331 The total number of cells associated with the Fe-oxides in the cassettes ranged  
332 from  $5 \times 10^7$  to  $4.3 \times 10^8$ , Table 1. Because the 148h incubation at NHR was dominated  
333 by recognizable biogenic oxides, and had the most rapid accumulation of oxides, it serves  
334 as the best proxy for estimating an Fe-oxidation rate on a per cell basis. The total amount  
335 of iron accumulated in these cassettes divided by the total cell number yields an average  
336 value of  $1.3 \times 10^{-16} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{cell}^{-1} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$  (SD =  $.26 \times 10^{-16} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{cell}^{-1} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$ ). This assumes that  
337 all the cells counted were FeOB, which is almost certainly not the case. Our amplicon  
338 analysis (see below) suggested the relative abundance of Zetaproteobacteria in these  
339 chambers was around 80%. If we assume this is a reasonable estimate, and that all the  
340 Zetaproteobacteria were oxidizing Fe(II) this gives a value of  $1.6 \times 10^{-16} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{cell}^{-1} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$ .  
341 An earlier analysis of Fe-oxidation by a pure culture of *M. ferrooxydans* estimated that  
342 cell growth required  $9.16 \times 10^{-15} \text{ mol Fe(II)}$  per cell (Chan et al., 2010). This assumed a  
343 12h doubling time for *M. ferrooxydans*, and at this rate this would equate to an Fe-  
344 oxidation rate of  $7.7 \times 10^{-16} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{cell}^{-1} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$ . An estimate for the rate of Fe-oxidation for  
345 *M. ferrooxydans* grown on a cathode, where uptake of electrons was used as a proxy for  
346 Fe-oxidation gave a significantly higher rate of  $7.5 \times 10^{-14} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{cell}^{-1} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$  (Summers et  
347 al., 2012). The *in-situ* cell-based Fe-oxidation rates from the cassettes is also less than

348 estimates of Fe-oxidation rates for pure cultures of freshwater FeOB that range from 0.8  
349  $- 14 \times 10^{-14} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{cell}^{-1} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$  (Chan et al, 2016). It is not surprising the *in situ* rates  
350 reported here are less than laboratory rates, since the latter represent the more ideal  
351 conditions of controlled growth. Because the *in situ* growth chambers are designed as  
352 flow through devices, presumably there was a net loss of cells and Fe-oxides from the  
353 cassettes during the incubation period that would result in a reduced rate of oxidation. On  
354 the other hand, a lower per cell rate of Fe-oxidation could also suggest FeOB in these  
355 natural populations may be more efficient at oxidizing Fe(II) than the isolates.

356

357 *3.3 Surface Colonization.* All the colonization slides placed within the chambers at both  
358 NHR and Pohaku showed evidence for formation of biogenic oxides (results not shown).  
359 The most common biogenic morphotypes were Y's and helical stalks. Sheath  
360 morphotypes were rare; nor were sheaths observed in the cassettes, indicating sheath-  
361 forming Zetaproteobacteria did not colonize the chambers. At Loihi, sheath-forming  
362 Zetaproteobacteria are responsible for forming mats with a veil-like appearance. These  
363 veil-like mats form farther from vent fluid sources (e.g. in cooler regions with more O<sub>2</sub>  
364 and less Fe(II) compared to mats where stalks and Y's predominate (Scott et al., 2016).

365       The cells that produce the Y-structures are easily detached during sampling (Chan  
366 et al., 2016), and the freshly produced Y-type structures that were plentiful in the  
367 cassettes had few apical cells associated with them. However, on the colonization slides  
368 the apical cells responsible for tube formation were relatively common, Fig. 3.  
369 Presumably direct attachment of the structures to the slides resulted in less disturbance  
370 and loss of cells upon sample recovery. The total length of individual Y structures on



371 colonization slides ranged from 5.2 – 49.5  $\mu\text{m}$  with a median length of 11.2  $\mu\text{m}$  (SD =  
372 2.6), Table 2. We estimated the rate of Y-filament formation by selecting the longest  
373 filaments that were observed on a given set of slides and dividing by the deployment  
374 time. The most rapid production rate for Y's was 0.34  $\mu\text{m} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$  (Pohaku), while the  
375 average was 0.19  $\mu\text{m} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$  (SD = 0.11  $\mu\text{m} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$ ). To demonstrate that these presumptive  
376 Fe-oxidizers were members of the Zetaproteobacteria, a sample from NHR with a good  
377 representation of cells coupled to filaments was stained with a FISH probe specific for  
378 the Zetaproteobacteria. This resulted in staining of the terminal cells, thus confirming  
379 these cells are Zetaproteobacteria, Fig. 4.

380 Stalks, similar to those produced by *M. ferrooxydans*, were also observed on the  
381 colonization slides, Supplemental Fig. 3, and single stalks that had at least one cell  
382 division were common. The longest stalks could be 100's of  $\mu\text{m}$  in length, with a range  
383 measured between 25 – 390  $\mu\text{m}$  for individual stalks. Using the same criteria as described  
384 for the Y's above, stalk production rates were estimated to range from 0.7 – 2.1  $\mu\text{m} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$ ,  
385 with an average of 1.32  $\mu\text{m} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$  (SD = 0.62  $\mu\text{m} \cdot \text{hr}^{-1}$ ), table 2.

386 A novel cell/oxide morphotype, with a stick-like appearance, was also  
387 documented on the colonization slides. This was a very thin rod <0.5  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter  
388 coated in iron oxyhydroxides, see Fig. 5. These stick-like iron oxide structures are  
389 commonly observed in marine iron mats (D. Emerson, unpublished observations), and in  
390 our morphological analysis are grouped with filamentous oxides of unknown provenance.  
391 So far as we are aware, this is the first time that cells have been observed associated with  
392 these structures in a way that indicates their genesis, and suggests this could be a novel  
393 group of FeOB. Alternatively, they could be cells that are simply being encased in Fe-

394 oxyhydroxides as a result of abiotic Fe-oxidation. The majority of the stick-like structures  
395 did not have cells present; however this is consistent with other biogenic oxides where  
396 the majority of the structures are uninhabited (Chan et al., 2016). We were unable to  
397 visualize any of these cells using FISH, so we do not know if they belong to the  
398 Zetaproteobacteria.

399

400 *3.4 Community Analysis.* Amplicon-based analysis of the SSU rRNA gene was used to  
401 assess the relative abundances of different bacterial populations within the chambers, as  
402 well as assess overall diversity between sites, temporally and spatially, and contrast  
403 populations in freshly formed iron mats to bulk iron mat communities. All the chamber  
404 samples were dominated by Zetaproteobacteria. The shorter term deployments had  
405 relative abundances of Zetaproteobacteria that were between 81 and 87% of the total  
406 sequences, while in the two 256h deployments at NHR, the relative abundances were 74  
407 and 31%, Table 3. The communities from three of the chambers (1,2, and 7) from NHR  
408 clustered closely together, and grouped with a large cluster of samples from both NHR  
409 and S. Hiolo Ridge, while chamber 6 did not cluster with the other NHR samples,  
410 (Supplemental Fig. 4). We speculate that the period chamber 6 was not in vent flow may  
411 have resulted in colonization of the iron oxides in the cassettes by other, non-FeOB. The  
412 microbial communities in the two chambers (5 & 8) at Pohaku clustered with a group of  
413 six community iron mat samples, five of which were from Pohaku, indicating that the  
414 organisms colonizing the chambers were most closely related to those found in the iron  
415 mats at this site (Supplemental Fig. 4). Despite having relatively low abundances of  
416 recognizably biogenic oxides, the Pohaku chambers still had high percentages of

417 Zetaproteobacteria, indicating that not all Fe-oxidizing Zetaproteobacteria produce  
418 recognizable filamentous morphotypes.

419 A more detailed OTU analysis of the Zetaproteobacteria, (Fig. 6), revealed that all  
420 the NHR samples had the same representation of Zeta OTUs, although the relative  
421 abundances varied. By contrast, in the two Pohaku samples ZetaOtu 1 and ZetaOtu 2  
422 together accounted for over 90% of the Zetaproteobacteria reads. When the populations  
423 in the chambers as a whole were compared to microbial mat samples either from Lō'ihī  
424 or the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (MAR) (Fig. 6), ZetaOtu 9 was notable for its absence in the  
425 chambers. Notable for its presence in the chambers, but absence in mature mats, was  
426 ZetaOtu 11. In general, ZetaOtu 11 is rarely found in marine iron mats (McAllister et al.,  
427 2011; Scott et al., 2016), despite there being several stalk-forming isolates from this  
428 group, including *Mariprofundus ferrooxydans*. The chamber results suggest ZetaOtu 11  
429 may be a signature early colonizer of iron mats, and due to its stalk-forming abilities  
430 could play an important role in the genesis of stable mat communities (Chan et al., 2016).

431 Overall, this community analysis compares and contrasts in interesting ways from  
432 an earlier colonization study at Lō'ihī done by Rassa, et al (Rassa et al., 2009). That study  
433 evaluated a more diverse group of vent sites at Lō'ihī, both short-term (4 – 10d) and  
434 long-term (e.g. 1 year). A different type of colonization chamber that was packed tightly  
435 with glass wool was used, and the morphotypes of the FeOB present was not evaluated.  
436 Clone libraries (SSU rRNA gene) of short-term incubations were dominated by clones of  
437 Zetaproteobacteria from cooler vents (22°C), very similar to what we observed in this  
438 study. At the time of the Rassa, et al study, there were also higher temperature vent (64 –  
439 77°C) sites at Lō'ihī, and these had higher abundances of putative sulfur-metabolizing

440 Epsilonproteobacteria (Rassa et al., 2009). Epsilonproteobacteria were only a minor  
441 member of the communities we analyzed from these intermediate temperature (40 – 50°)  
442 vents that are the hottest fluids currently observed at Lō’ihi. This suggests that as the  
443 vents have cooled Zetaproteobacteria have become more prevalent, and is consistent with  
444 detectable sulfide being largely absent from the vent fluids in 2013 (Scott et al., 2016.).  
445 Terminal restriction fragment length polymorphisms (T\_RFLPs) were used in the earlier  
446 study to analyze community composition, and an increase in the complexity of the  
447 community was noted in long term, versus short term colonization experiments (Rassa et  
448 al., 2009). The same trend was noted in this study using amplicon analysis that provides  
449 greater resolution of community diversity than T\_RFLP; however since only short term  
450 deployments were done for this study, it is not possible to make direct comparisons.

451

452 *3.5 Mat accretion.* It is important to understand the accretion rates of these iron mats,  
453 both for overall microbial mat development, and to determine the potential for biogenic  
454 iron mats to serve as an iron source to the surrounding ocean. Recent work from Lō’ihi  
455 has shown the primary structural element of the mats are filamentous stalks, or sheaths  
456 (Chan et al., 2016). The stalks observed on colonization slides then can serve as a proxy  
457 for estimating mat accretion rates of stalk-dominated mats. The most rapid rate of stalk  
458 formation observed on a colonization slide was estimated at 2.6 μm/h. This rate is based  
459 on the assumption that the cells attached shortly after the slide was deployed and were  
460 continuously present until the chamber was retrieved. A stalk production rate of 2.2 μm/h  
461 was reported for a pure culture of *M. ferrooxydans* (Chan et al., 2010) based on time-  
462 lapse imaging, thus the *in situ* estimate is in the same range as the *in vitro* rate. Based on

463 this analysis, if we assume a stalk production rate of 2.5  $\mu\text{m}/\text{h}$ , cells that colonize a  
464 surface and grow uniformly should accrete at a rate of 60  $\mu\text{m}/\text{d}$ , or approximately 420  
465  $\mu\text{m}/\text{week}$ . This works out to around 2.2  $\text{cm}/\text{yr}$ . This is a necessarily simplistic  
466 extrapolation of a complex process, i.e. in an actual mat there are multiple colonization  
467 events, and it's unlikely the cells exhibit long-term, uniform growth rates. Nonetheless, it  
468 provides an approximation of how fast entire, vent-associated iron mat structures may  
469 grow. Interestingly, these estimates for the growth of marine iron mats are substantially  
470 slower than the accretion rates of up to 2.2  $\text{mm} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$  measured in a freshwater microbial  
471 iron mat (Emerson and Revsbech, 1994). The stalk-forming freshwater FeOB *Gallionella*  
472 *ferruginea* can produce stalk at rates up to 80  $\mu\text{m}/\text{h}$ , or nearly 40 times faster than *M.*  
473 *ferrooxydans* (Hanert, 1973). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that freshwater iron mats  
474 can accrete much more rapidly than marine iron mats.

475 To further determine if our estimate for the growth rates of marine iron mats is  
476 realistic, we did an intentional mat removal experiment at Lō'ihī, by suctioning away a  
477 beehive shaped mat that was approximately 30 cm tall and fed by a single diffuse flow  
478 orifice on the ocean floor (Supplemental Fig 4). The site was monitored twice more  
479 during our expedition, with the last visit coming 10d after removal. While there appeared  
480 to be subtle changes at this site, there was not an obvious, visible amount of mat accretion  
481 over 10d (Supplemental Fig. 5). Based on our calculations above, the mat would only  
482 accumulate to a thickness of  $<1$  mm during these short-term observations. This would be  
483 less than could be detected visually with the ROV, thus the fact we did not visibly  
484 observe accretion in 10 days is consistent with our estimates. This was intended to be a  
485 long-term re-colonization experiment, but, as yet, no subsequent observations have been

486 made of this site. At the Pohaku and NHR vent sites when mat was removed during  
487 sample collection with the large suction sampler on ROV *Jason*, we did not detect  
488 significant regrowth of the iron mats over the course of an expedition, 10 – 12 days. An  
489 example is shown in Supplemental Fig. 6. These same sites had been visited and sampled  
490 extensively on a prior expedition to Lō’ihi 18 months earlier; however, during the 2013  
491 expedition there was no obvious sign of the previous disturbance, indicating these 2 – 5  
492 cm thick mats had fully recovered in the intervening time, which would be expected  
493 based on our estimates. Thus, our estimates for mat accretion based on observations of  
494 rates of stalk-formation seem consistent with visual observations of mat accretion at  
495 Lō’ihi.

496

#### 497 **4. Conclusions.**

498 The *in-situ* growth chambers proved capable of capturing the growth of biogenic iron  
499 oxides, and revealed a diversity of morphotypes associated with FeOB. This work  
500 provides an initial estimate for *in-situ* iron oxidation rates for marine Fe-oxidizing  
501 bacteria, as well as an estimate for the rate at which iron mats can accrete around diffuse  
502 flow hydrothermal vents on the seafloor. An amplicon-based sequence analysis of newly  
503 formed Fe-oxides in the chambers revealed Zetaproteobacteria as the dominant  
504 phylotype, with a relative abundance as high as 89%. There was a trend towards  
505 decreasing relative abundance of Zetaproteobacteria, and increasing overall diversity with  
506 incubation time. Colonization slides revealed abundant evidence for colonization by  
507 stalk-forming and Y-producing FeOB, as well as a novel stick-like oxide that appeared to

508 be a direct product of microbial iron oxidation. Analysis of the Y-producing microbes  
509 using FISH revealed they are members of the Zetaproteobacteria.

510

511

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517

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641 Table 1. Fe-oxidation rates at NHR and Pohaku. The values for chambers for NHR were  
642 calculated from each individual cassette, while values for Pohaku are from the combined  
643 cassettes from each chamber. Chamber 6 from NHR is not included in this analysis.

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Chamber	Site	Hours	Total Fe (10 <sup>-6</sup> mol)	Total cells	Fe-oxid 10 <sup>-6</sup> mol · hr <sup>-1</sup>	Fe-oxidized per cell 10 <sup>-16</sup> mol · hr <sup>-1</sup> · cell <sup>-1</sup>
ST1a	NHR	148	3882	1.70E+08	26.2	1.54
ST1b	NHR	148	7674	3.59E+08	51.9	1.44
ST7a	NHR	148	6229	4.17E+08	42.1	1.01
ST7b	NHR	148	7125	4.33E+08	48.1	1.11
<b>Average (St Dev)</b>			<b>6228 (1673)</b>	<b>3.5E+08 (1.1E+08)</b>	<b>42.1 (11.3)</b>	<b>1.3 (.26)</b>
ST2a	NHR	256	3966	4.14E+08	15.5	0.38
ST2b	NHR	256	2090	7.97E+07	8.2	1.05
<b>Average (St Dev)</b>			<b>3028 (1326)</b>	<b>2.5E+08 (2.4E+08)</b>	<b>11.8 (5.2)</b>	<b>0.72 (0.4)</b>
ST3	Pohaku	112	919	5.05E+07	8.2	1.63
ST4	Pohaku	112	2070	8.74E+07	18.5	2.04
ST5	Pohaku	112	2082	7.72E+07	18.6	2.31
ST8	Pohaku	112	1686	1.24E+08	15.1	1.12
<b>Average (St Dev)</b>			<b>1689 (546)</b>	<b>8.5E+07 (3.1E+07)</b>	<b>15.1 (4.9)</b>	<b>1.8 (0.53)</b>

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Table 2. Filamentous iron oxide production rates for stalks and Y's, calculated from measurements made on colonization slides.

<b>Stalks</b>									
Chamber	Site	Hrs	n	Filament length ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Median length ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	SD	Average length top 10%	Rate $\mu\text{m/hr}$	SD
1	NHR	148	16	76 - 390	148	77	307	2.1	
7	NHR	148	22	25-277	83	46	207	1.4	
6	NHR	256	19	49-162	95	39	177	0.7	
2	NHR	256	20	45-200	89	40	171	0.7	
3	Pohaku	112	18	58-207	115	43	191	1.7	
<b>Average</b>					<b>106</b>	<b>26</b>		<b>1.32</b>	<b>0.62</b>
<b>Y's</b>									
1	NHR	148	28	7.3-15.5	11.9	2.5	15	0.1	
2	NHR	256	19	5.2-17.3	7.8	3.4	16	0.06	
7	NHR	148	16	6.5-15.7	9.5	2.4	15	0.1	
5	Pohaku	112	24	9.0-27.0	14	5.4	28.3	0.25	
3	Pohaku	112	27	8.0-49.5	14.2	8.3	38.3	0.34	
8	Pohaku	112	11	9.0-27	9.7	6.4	29	0.26	
<b>Average</b>					<b>11.2</b>	<b>2.6</b>		<b>0.185</b>	<b>0.11</b>

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659 Table 3. Relative abundance of Zetaproteobacteria reads compared to total reads from the  
660 different chambers based on the SSU 16S rRNA amplicon analysis.

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Chamber	Site	Time(h)	Zeta- Reads	Total Reads	% Zeta- Reads
1	NHR	148	1006	1209	83.2
7	NHR	148	2800	3237	86.5
2	NHR	256	1541	1979	77.9
6	NHR	256	476	1427	33.4
5	Pohaku	112	2278	2610	87.3
8	Pohaku	112	4473	5048	88.6

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677 Figure legends.

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679 Fig. 1. A diagram of the productivity chambers showing the central body of the chamber  
680 with that held the microscope slides, and the two cassettes, covered on both ends with  
681 Nitex mesh. The cassettes had screwcaps at both ends that were used to hold the mesh  
682 that was cut to fit the openings.

683

684 Fig. 2. Pie charts showing the percentages of different morphotypes of iron oxides from  
685 the different cassettes. The oxide morphology was determined by light microscopy as  
686 described in the text.

687

688 Fig. 3. A photo-montage from an *in-situ* microscope slide of Y-shaped filaments with  
689 cells associated with the ends of the filaments. The left set of panels are overlays of  
690 epifluorescence and phase contrast images, cells are stained green at the end of the  
691 filaments, denoted by arrows in a, b, and e. The right hand panel are the original phase  
692 contrast images, note cells are not visible. The marker bar = 5  $\mu$ m.

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694 Fig. 4. FISH-probe for Zetaproteobacteria staining apical cells in Y-shaped structures.  
695 Panel a, phase contrast image of the Y-shaped structure, the cells are not visible; b,  
696 composite epifluorescence and brightfield image of the particle; c, the epifluorescence  
697 image of FISH-probe showing cells alone. The scale bar = 5  $\mu$ m.

698

699 Fig. 5. A photo-montage from an *in-situ* microscope slide of stick-like iron oxides with  
700 cells. The left panels are overlays of epifluorescence and phase contrast images showing  
701 the juxtaposition of cells and oxides. The right hand panels are the original phase contrast  
702 images. The marker bar = 5  $\mu$ m.

703

704 Fig. 6. SSU rRNA amplicon community analysis of Zetaproteobacteria present in  
705 chambers and iron mats. The left-hand set of columns show the relative abundance of  
706 different ZetaOtu from the different incubation chambers. The right-hand columns  
707 compare a sample that integrates all the chamber Zetaproteobacteria reads with either veil  
708 or non-veil communities in mature Loihi iron mats, or iron mats from the Mid-Atlantic  
709 Ridge (MAR). Note the presence of Otu11 in the chambers, and absence from the mats;  
710 not the absence of Otu9 in the chambers, but presence in the mats. The data for the iron  
711 mat comparisons are taken from Scott et al 2016.

712

713 Supplemental Figures.

714 Supplemental Fig. 1. An image showing the placement of *in-situ* incubation chambers  
715 (1,2,6, and 7) on diffuse vents associated with NHR.

716

717 Supplemental Fig. 2. Temperature graphs from the MTRs placed at NHR and Pohaku.  
718 The arrows denote time of deployment and recovery.

719

720 Supplemental Fig. 3. A photomosaic from an *in situ* microscope slide of filamentous stalk  
721 formation. This represents colonization events by several individual stalk-forming cells.  
722 The marker bar = 10  $\mu$ m.

723

724 Supplemental Fig. 4. MED comparison of the total bacterial community composition of  
725 the different chambers with 49 iron mat samples collected from different vents at Loihi or  
726 from the MAR. The yellow colored panels (top) and arrows (bottom) indicate chambers.  
727 The data from other vent sites is taken from Scott *et al* 2016.

728

729 Supplemental Fig. 5. Mat removal experiment, a beehive shaped iron mat, left panel, had  
730 a black frame placed around it and the mat was removed using the large suction sampler  
731 on the ROV *Jason*, and then monitored for 10d. During this time there was little re-  
732 growth of the mat. The white bar in the left hand panel = 10 cm, the black frame is  
733 approximately 40 cm on each side.

734

735 Supplemental Fig. 6. Before and after images from mat sampling on NHR. The left hand  
736 panel was taken just prior to sampling with the large suction sampler on ROV *Jason* on  
737 3/19/13, and the right hand image was taken 11d later. A primary vent orifice can be seen  
738 as the gray-colored mineral near the bottom of the left hand image. The white circle  
739 denotes the approximate sampling area, note there does not appear to be obvious  
740 regrowth of the mat during this time.

741

742 Fig 1.

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744 Fig. 1. A diagram of the productivity chambers showing the central body of the chamber

745 with that held the microscope slides, and the two cassettes, covered on both ends with

746 Nitex mesh. The cassettes had screwcaps at both ends that were used to hold the mesh

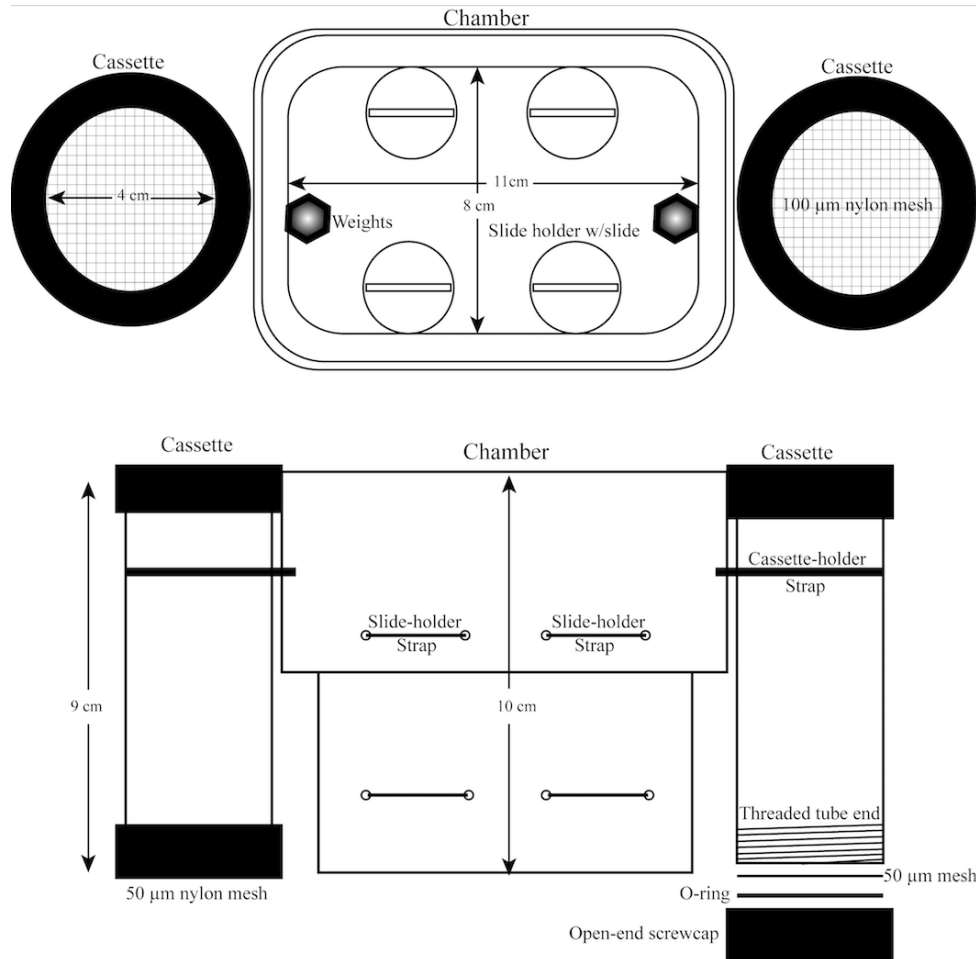
747 that was cut to fit the openings.

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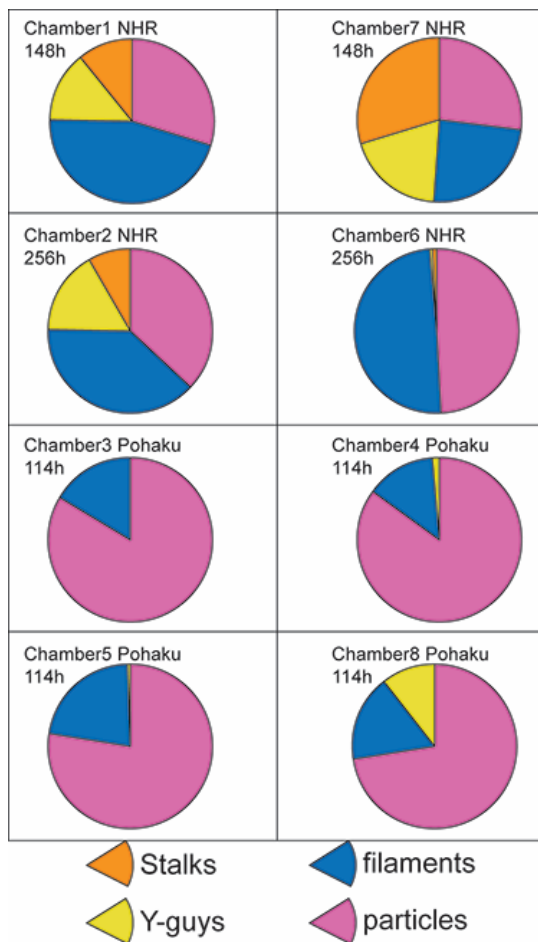
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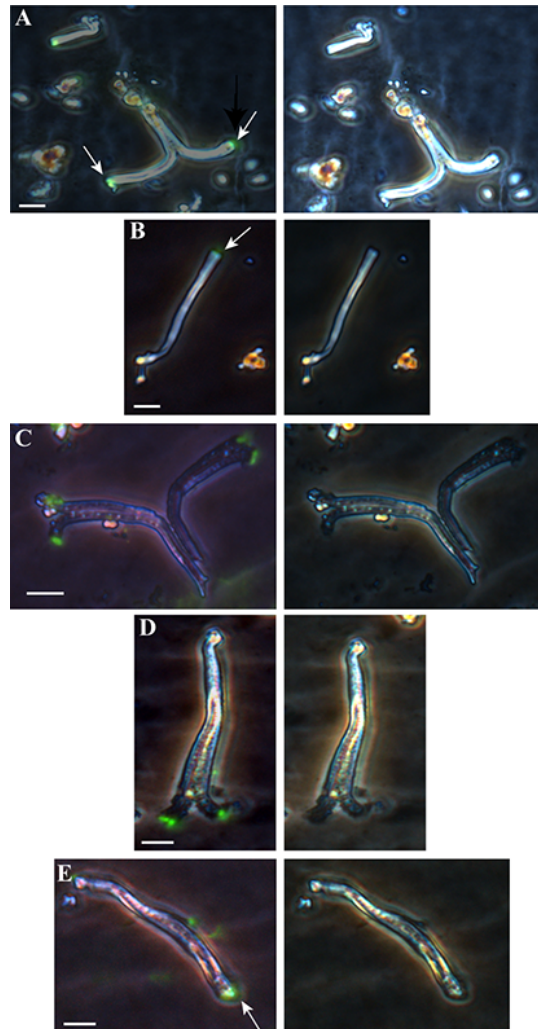


755 Fig. 2  
756 Pie charts showing the percentages of different morphotypes of iron oxides from the  
757 different cassettes. The oxide morphology was determined by light microscopy as  
758 described in the text.  
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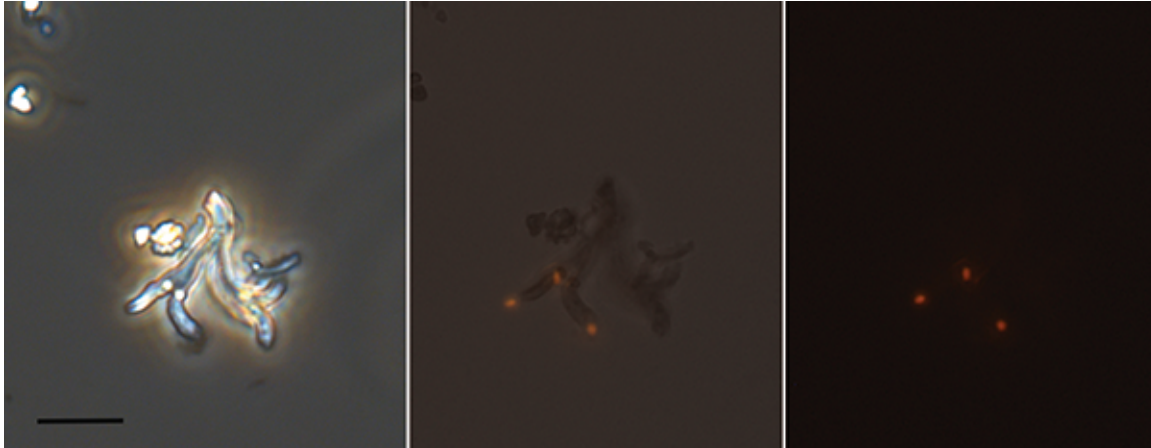
768 Fig. 3  
769 A photo-montage from an *in-situ* microscope slide of Y-shaped filaments with cells  
770 associated with the ends of the filaments. The left set of panels are overlays of  
771 epifluorescence and phase contrast images, cells are stained green at the end of the  
772 filaments, denoted by arrows in a, b, and e. The right hand panel are the original phase  
773 contrast images, note cells are not visible. The marker bar = 5  $\mu$ m.  
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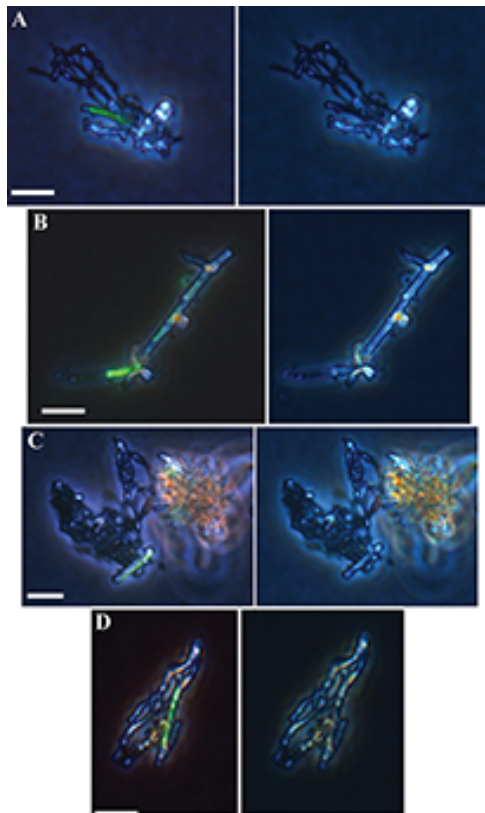
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812 Fig. 6

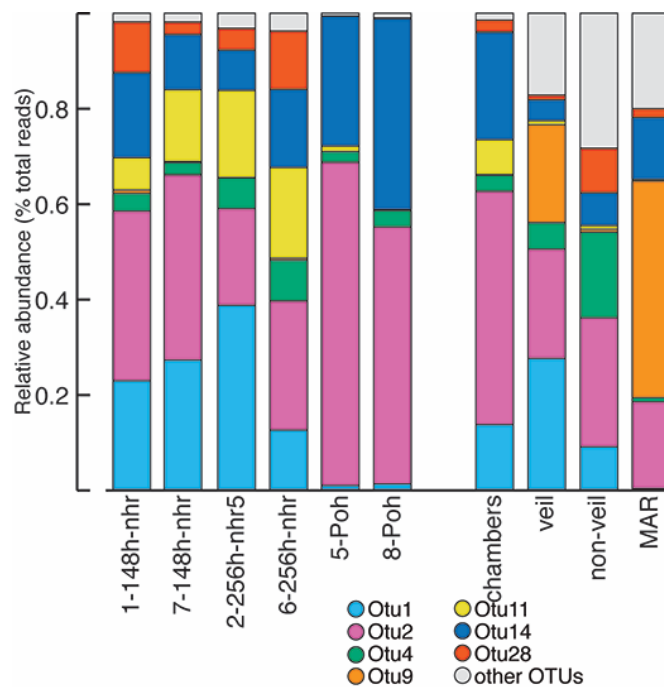
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