Metabolic and Population Profiles of Active Subseafloor Autotrophs in Young Oceanic Crust

at Deep-Sea Hydrothermal Vents

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Running Head: RNA-SIP of microbial autotrophs at hydrothermal vents

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ABSTRACT

At deep-sea hydrothermal vents, magmatically driven rock-water reactions in the crust generate

energy that subseafloor microorganisms use for chemolithoautotrophy. In this study, microbial

autotrophs from three diffuse hydrothermal vents at Axial Seamount in 2013 and 2014 were

isotopically labeled using RNA Stable Isotope Probing (RNA-SIP), targeting subseafloor

autotrophic mesophiles (30°C), thermophiles (55°C), and hyperthermophiles (80°C). We

constructed taxonomic and functional profiles of active chemolithoautotrophs, examined

population distributions across sites, and linked primary producers to their specific metabolic

strategies within the subseafloor community. Dominant autotrophs exhibited hydrogen-dependent

dissimilatory metabolisms such as sulfur and nitrate reduction and methanogenesis, as well as

microaerophilic sulfide oxidation even at 80°C, consistent with fluid chemistries at each site.

While hydrogenotrophic methanogenic archaea such as *Methanothermococcus* were restricted in

their distribution and activity, hydrogenotrophic sulfur and nitrate reducers from the Aquificota

(*Thermovibrio*), Campylobacterota (Nautiliaceae, *Hydrogenimonas*, and Desulfurobacteriaceae)

were consistently active and present at all sites and years at both the population and community

levels. Hydrogenase transcripts were significantly differentially expressed, and diverse

hydrogenases were found in metagenome-assembled genomes of Aquificota members,

highlighting the importance and versatility of their hydrogen utilization strategies which likely

contribute to their cosmopolitan distribution across geochemically disparate subseafloor sites.

Together, this study provides new insights into the functional dynamics and distribution of key

subseafloor autotrophic microbial communities in young oceanic crust at deep-sea hydrothermal

vents.

Keywords: deep-sea hydrothermal vents, RNA-SIP, chemolithoautotrophy, diffuse flow

IMPORTANCE

Deep-sea hydrothermal vents are hotspots for life in the dark ocean, where rich animal ecosystems

are supported by microbial primary producers utilizing the abundant chemical energy supplied by

high-temperature water-rock reactions. Despite increasing knowledge about the geochemistry and

microbiology of deep-sea hydrothermal vents, there is still a gap in our understanding of the key

microbial players who fix much of the carbon at these sites, especially in the productive

subseafloor. In this study, stable isotope probing was used to label active microbial autotrophs in

diffuse venting fluids from 3 sites over 2 years and was combined with metatranscriptomic

sequencing to identify their specific metabolic strategies. This research highlights the microbial

community composition, function, gene regulation, and population dynamics that enable

hydrothermal ecosystems to persist.

INTRODUCTION

Deep-sea hydrothermal systems span large temperature and geochemical gradients, from

cold, oxidized seawater to hot, highly reduced hydrothermal fluid produced by rock-water

reactions. There is a wide diversity of microbial niches at deep-sea hydrothermal vents, many of

which are powered by chemolithoautotrophy, including chimneys, animals, venting fluids,

hydrothermal plumes, mats, and the subseafloor (1). Mixing zones at and below the seafloor can

be sampled through diffuse flow vents (~5-120°C), providing a glimpse into the subseafloor

habitat within oceanic crust, one of the most productive microbial niches in the vent environment

(2-11). Phylogenetic, metagenomic, and metatranscriptomic studies of diffuse flow microbial

communities have expanded our knowledge on the composition and variability of these

communities over time and space, considering tectonic setting, host rock type, and geochemistry

(e.g. 1, 7-10, 12-22). These studies show that mixing zones support taxonomically and functionally

diverse microorganisms, including a mix of seawater, seafloor, and subseafloor communities that

inhabit temperatures from 2°C to near 100°C across a wide range of geochemical gradients,

making it difficult to pinpoint which microbes are active in the subseafloor, especially in the

warmer, deeper portions of the subseafloor. However, the recent application of stable isotope

probing (SIP) is providing new insights into microbial activity in the dynamic and hard-to-access

subseafloor environment (8, 11, 23-24), including RNA Stable Isotope Probing (RNA-SIP).

RNA-SIP is an experimental technique by which isotopically labeled substrate is added to

environmental samples at near-natural conditions, incubated, and the label incorporation is probed

at the genetic level through sequencing of transcripts (8, 25-26). Resulting RNA-SIP

metatranscriptomes reveal the identity and functional attributes of the microbes that incorporate

the labeled substrates in each community under defined experimental conditions (8, 25-26). The

first application of this method to deep-sea ecosystems was at Axial Seamount, an active deep-sea

volcano on the Juan de Fuca Ridge in the northeast Pacific Ocean, where in 2013, Marker 113

diffuse fluid was incubated at mesophilic, thermophilic, and hyperthermophilic temperature

regimes to reflect subseafloor conditions (8). Results revealed shifts in dominant taxa,

metabolisms, and carbon fixation pathways across the temperature spectrum when compared to

the unmanipulated fluid. The method was later used at multiple hydrothermal vent sites along the

Mariana back-arc, where thermophilic RNA-SIP incubations found that Campylobacterota were

active and present at all but one sampled vent, which had a high abundance and activity of

Aquificota. These differences were attributed to variation in hydrothermal activity due to

underlying tectonic setting (23). This method was also carried out *in situ* at Axial using a novel

instrument to complete the RNA-SIP experiment on the seafloor. Comparison of shipboard and

seafloor incubations at 55°C found that thermophilic, autotrophic Campylobacterota that oxidized

hydrogen coupled with nitrate reduction were dominant in all experiments, but transcripts for

thermal stress proteins were significantly more abundant in the shipboard experiments (24).

Building on a legacy of microbiological and geochemical studies at Axial Seamount and

hydrothermal systems elsewhere, we expand on these studies to include 2 years of RNA-SIP data

from 3 diffuse vent sites at 3 temperatures to examine how the dominant microbial subseafloor

autotrophs at Axial Seamount vary with temperature, fluid chemistry, geology of the vent (sulfide

vs. basalt), space, and time. This study contributes new *in situ* oxygen data as well as an expansive

metatranscriptomic dataset that enabled differential expression analysis of transcripts across

temperatures within and among vents, and over time. We determined the specific geochemical and

thermal conditions under which autotrophic communities and populations are active and identified

potential competition amongst these microbial groups for electron acceptors and donors, including

oxygen, nitrate, and hydrogen. Overall, these findings expand our knowledge of the distribution

and energy acquisition strategies of active microbial assemblages in the productive deep-sea

hydrothermal vent subseafloor at a mid-ocean ridge spreading center.

RESULTS

Marker 113, Anemone, and Marker 33 were chosen for sampling in this comparative study

because they are situated among three different vent fields within the Axial caldera, and are

geochemically and microbiologically distinct (10, 27-28; Fig S1). Chemical characteristics of all diffuse vents are shown in Table 1 and Table S1 that include data from both previously published work as well as new oxygen data collected with an *in situ* probe (10, 28; Figs 1 and 2, Table S2).

Marker 113 vent is located on top of a lava pillar at the edge of a collapse zone within an inflated lobate basalt flow. Fluids migrate up through the lava pillar and exit diffusely, resulting in wide areas on the upper surface covered with vent biota. Marker 33 is located near the eruptive fissures that fed the 1998 and 2011 eruptions, both of which covered the Marker 33 vent site. There are no high-temperature vents directly adjacent to Marker 113 or Marker 33. The nearest high-temperature vents are in the International District vent field located 0.6 km northeast of Marker 113 and 0.8 km south of Marker 33. Previous work (28) estimated the end-member hydrogen and methane concentrations feeding Marker 113 and Marker 33 vents using extrapolated chloride end-members for those two vents and the average high-temperature fluid compositions for those chloride concentrations (Table S1, Fig S2). In contrast, Anemone vent is part of a flat, actively growing sulfide mound fed by a high-temperature source fluid that diffuses through sulfide minerals and exits through very small, hot vent orifices with weak flow, with end-member fluid within a meter of the diffuse flow site sampled. At all three locations, the high-temperature source fluid can be compared with the paired diffuse flow fluid samples to infer changes in chemistry that occur in the shallow subseafloor within the basalt and/or sulfide mineral matrix.

There are clear differences in temperature and chemical composition among the three diffuse vents in this study (Fig 1, 2, Table 1). All of the venting sites are depleted in oxygen relative to near-bottom seawater in the Axial caldera (31 μmol/kg, +/- 2μmol/kg, n=24), and a linear regression of the recorded sample temperature and *in situ* oxygen concentration indicated oxygen behaves differently at each site, with zero oxygen predicted at 33°C for Marker 113 and at 52°C

for Marker 33 (Fig 1), while oxygen data from Anemone points to zero oxygen at temperatures

greater than 100°C. Additional biologically relevant chemical constituents for both the diffuse

fluids and the closest high-temperature end-member vent for each diffuse vent were plotted against

Mg to examine deviations from conservative mixing as potential evidence of microbial activity in

the venting fluids (Fig 2). At Marker 113 and 33, nitrate (Fig 2A) and H_2 (Fig 2B) were depleted

and CH_4 concentrations were elevated (Fig 2C). At Anemone, there was evidence for depletion of

H_2 (Fig 2B), and this site also had the highest H_2S concentrations in both years compared to the

other two sites (Table 1).

	Seawater	Anemone high-temperature vent	Anemone diffuse vent	Anemone diffuse vent	Marker 33 subseafloor estimated source	Marker 33 diffuse vent	Marker 33 diffuse vent	Marker 113 subseafloor estimated source	Marker 113 diffuse vent	Marker 113 diffuse vent
Year	2015		2013	2014		2013	2014		2013	2014
Depth (m)	1520	1542.8	1542	1539		1516	1514		1520	1518
Temperature (°C)	2	232.4	28.2	20.3	340	27.3	18.5	340	24.5	24.3
pH	7.8	4.3	5.5	5.1	4	5.5	5.6	3.3	6.2	5.8
NO_3^- (µmol/kg)	39	0	35.5	35.2	0	18.3	28.2	0	7.2	8.1
H_2 (µmol/kg)	0.002	360	13.9	27.7	300	1.5	1.5	950	1.4	1
H_2S (µmol/kg)	0	7400	1036	964.7	n.d.	545	262	n.d.	729	556
CH_4 (µmol/kg)	0.002	205	14.8	31.7	70	19	6.4	56	16.9	38
Mg (mmol/kg)	52.4	0	46.5	45.6	0	45.9	48.1	0	50.2	48.8
O_2 (µmol/L)	31	0	14.4	17.6	0	14.7	23.3	0	7	9.9
Cl^- (µmol/L)	541	315	513	518	390	520	526	100	521	518
Percent Seawater	100	3.3	88.9	87	0	87.7	91.9	0	96	96.4
Microbial cells mL^{-1}	2.4×10^4		4.1×10^5	1.7×10^5		4.2×10^5	3.9×10^5		4.6×10^5	6.8×10^5

147
n.d. = no data

Table 1. Measurements of chemical species and microbial cell counts for diffuse vent sites

Anemone, Marker 33, and Marker 113 from 2013-2014. Percent seawater was extrapolated using

magnesium as a conservative tracer: $[Mg]_{vent}/[Mg]_{seawater} \times 100$, and background seawater Mg

concentration at 1500m was 52.4 mmol/kg.

Figure 1. Figure 1. *In situ* oxygen versus temperature for diffuse vents sampled for this study. Near-bottom

seawater averages 31 µmol/kg (+/- 2.2). Linear regression lines are drawn for each of the 3 vent sites for

the 2 years sampled, including the ambient seawater point in the regression. The top dashed line is between

seawater and a hypothetical zero-oxygen end-member at 325°C. Solid data points indicate the exact fluid

sampling bag used in the SIP experiment.

Figure 2. Vent chemical species measured at diffuse vent sites Marker 113, Anemone, and Marker 33 in
2013 and 2014. Regression lines are drawn from seawater to end-member fluid concentration for each vent
and chemical species to represent conservative mixing between seawater and the high-temperature fluid for
A. NO_3^-. All vent end-members had 0 NO_3^-, so the single regression line is between a 0 Mg/0 NO_3^- end-
member and seawater. **B.** H_2 and **C.** CH_4 concentrations. Solid data points indicate the exact fluid sampling
bag used in the SIP experiment.

  RNA-SIP experiments

In total, 15 sets of RNA stable isotope probing experiments were carried out in 2013 and 2014

using fluids collected from Marker 113, Anemone, and Marker 33 (Table 2; Tables S3-S5).

Successful RNA-SIP experiments showed a heavier buoyant density peak of RNA in the ^{13}C-

labeled experiment compared to the ^{12}C-labeled control, indicating uptake of labeled carbon into

RNA (Fig S3-S5). To determine which of the 12 fractions collected should be sequenced, the

highest RNA concentration was chosen from the ^{12}C-light and ^{13}C-heavy peaks. If the experiment

had two RNA peaks, both fractions were sequenced (Marker 113 at 30 and 80°C, Fig S3C and

S5C). For experiments that had two time points, the ^{12}C-light and ^{13}C-heavy peaks from both time

points were sequenced. Corresponding ^{13}C-light and ^{12}C-heavy fractions were also sequenced as

additional controls. Including technical sequencing replicates, this resulted in 84 total

metatranscriptomes (46 ^{13}C-heavy and ^{12}C-light and 38 ^{13}C-light and ^{12}C-heavy), totaling over a

billion high-quality reads from paired-end Illumina sequencing. Real-time quantitative Reverse

Transcription Polymerase Chain Reaction (qRT-PCR) was subsequently carried out to normalize

data across experiments using 16S rRNA copies, as shown in Figures S3-S5. In most cases, the

highest concentration of RNA corresponded to the highest rRNA copy number. As described in

the Methods and Supplementary Methods, RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes were annotated and

compared with the paired metagenome and metatranscriptome generated from unmanipulated

diffused fluids that were filtered and fixed on the seafloor.

Vent	Year	30 °C	55 °C	80 °C
Marker 113	2013	36 hr	36 hr	18 hr*
Marker 113	2014	n.d.	18 hr, 36 hr	9 hr
Anemone	2013	n.d.	n.d.	18 hr*
Anemone	2014	24 hr, 36 hr	18 hr, 36 hr	18 hr
Marker 33	2013	36 hr	36 hr	36 hr
Marker 33	2014	24 hr, 36 hr	18 hr, 36 hr	9 hr, 18 hr

n.d. = no data; * = 1 L LVWS sample

Table 2. RNA-SIP experiments conducted, showing vent name, year, temperature of experiment, and

time points collected during incubation.

Taxonomic composition of unmanipulated fluids and RNA-SIP experiment microbial communities

The unmanipulated fluid metatranscriptomes represent the taxa with detectable transcripts at

the instant of sampling via filtration and immediate RNALater fixation on the seafloor. The

taxonomy of *in situ* active microbial community members as well as those in RNA-SIP

experiments was acquired by mapping non-rRNA transcripts to taxonomically classified

metagenomic contigs and then normalizing the genera in each sample to 100% (Fig 3A-D). The

taxonomy of the unmanipulated fluids was compared to both the ^{12}C-light and ^{13}C-heavy RNA-

SIP taxonomy, but results will focus on the ^{13}C-heavy experimental fraction, as it represents the

population of isotope-enriched (active) microbes.

All genera active at 30°C in the RNA-SIP experiments were also identified in the

unmanipulated fluids (Fig 3A). When comparing across all three sites at 30°C, most of the active

community was comprised of members of the Campylobacterota. *Sulfurimonas* transcripts were

observed at all three vents but were most abundant at Marker 113 (52%) and Marker 33 (31.3%)

(Fig 3B). Transcripts of *Cetia* (16.8-33.2%) and *Caminibacter* (12.5-22.2%) were found only in

RNA-SIP experiments from Anemone. At Marker 33, transcripts belonging to *Hydrogenimonas*

(34.3%) were more abundant compared to the other vents.

Like the 30°C experiments, all genera active at 55°C in the RNA-SIP experiments were

also identified in the unmanipulated fluids (Fig 3A). Across all three sites at 55°C, the major

differences in taxonomy compared to the 30°C RNA-SIP experiments were a shift to higher

relative abundance of *Cetia, Caminibacter, Nautilia,* and *Hydrogenimonas* transcripts, rather than

Sufurimonas transcripts (Fig 3C). Transcripts from *Caminibacter, Cetia, Nautilia*, and

Hydrogenimonas dominated in experiments from Marker 113 and Marker 33, but in 2013, these

experiments also had transcripts for thermophilic methanogens. *Methanothermococcus* comprised

17.3% and 18.6% of the 2013 active community transcripts at Marker 113 and Marker 33

respectively and were completely absent at Anemone in 2014, where both timepoints of 55°C

experiments were like those at 30°C, except for the absence of *Sulfurimonas* (Fig 3C). Further, the

active population at Anemone in 2014 had the same Campylobacterota taxa as seen at Marker 113

and 33 at 55°C.

Unlike at 30°C and 55°C, where Campylobacterota were abundant in both SIP

experiments and unmanipulated fluids, many active taxa at 80°C were in low abundance in the

unmanipulated fluids (Fig. 3A), including those from Phylum Aquificota and *Methanotorris* at

Marker 113, *Phorcysia* at Anemone, and *Thermovibrio* at Marker 33. The major differences in

taxonomy in the 80°C RNA-SIP experiments across sites included a higher abundance of

methanogenic groups at Marker 113 and 33, the presence of *Aquifex* only at Anemone, and

persistent detection of *Desulfurobacterium* and *Thermovibrio* at all sites and years. In the Marker

113 experiments at 80°C in 2013 (Fig 3D), close to half of all transcripts were from

hyperthermophilic methanogens, including *Methanocaldococcus* (37.6%) and *Methanotorris*

(2.5%). Methanogenic groups were not detected in the ^{13}C-heavy fraction in 2014 at Marker 113.

Hyperthermophilic methanogens were also observed at Marker 33 in 2014, along with a large

proportion of transcripts classified to Aquificota, including the genera *Phorcysia, Thermovibrio,*

and *Desulfurobacterium.* Transcripts for these genera were also abundant at Marker 113 in 2014,

when methanogen transcripts were absent (Fig 3D).

Figure 3. Relative abundance of major taxonomic groups of **A**. Annotated non-rRNA transcripts from

unmanipulated fluid metatranscriptomes and annotated non-rRNA transcripts from RNA-SIP experiments

at **B**. 30°C, **C**. 55°C, and **D**. 80°C.

Metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs)

Binning of the co-assembly of all unmanipulated diffuse fluid metagenomes resulted in 391 MAGs, with 120 bins remaining after filtering for quality (completeness ≥70%, contamination ≤10% based on the presence of single copy bacterial and archaeal marker genes) (Table S6). These bins were further filtered to remove known heterotrophs and representatives solely sourced from the plume, background, or 2015 metagenomes, resulting in 25 bins. The final 11 MAGs from genomic binning from all diffuse fluid metagenomes were selected based on having >4% of their coding genome expressed (length of expressed genes(bp)/genome length (bp), Fig 4, Tables S6,7) in any individual RNA-SIP ^{13}C-heavy fraction. The taxonomy of the highly transcribed MAGs was similar to the ORF transcript taxonomy assignments (Figs 3, 4), including groups primarily from the Campylobacterota, methanogens, and Aquificota.

Both Marker 113 and Marker 33 had *Sulfurimonas* populations (bin 41) transcribed at 30°C (Figure 4), corresponding to the higher abundance of *Sulfurimonas* transcripts observed at these vents (Figure 3). Two bins classified as *Hydrogenimonas* (bins 102 and 104) were transcribed across different temperatures and vents. Bin 102 was transcribed only at Marker 33 at 30°C, but at 55°C, bin 102 was transcribed at all vents in at least one timepoint. Bin 104 transcripts, however, were observed only at 30°C at Anemone. Nautiliaceae bin 340 transcripts were ubiquitous at 55°C at nearly all sites and years. *Methanothermococcus* bin 335 transcripts were found at 55°C at only Marker 113 and Marker 33 in 2013, while no methanogen populations were transcribed at Anemone (Figures 3, 4).

In general, MAGs expressed a higher proportion of their coding genomes in the 80°C experiments, compared to the other temperatures. *Thermovibrio* bins (bin 320 and bin 374) were transcribed across all 80°C experiments, matching the high abundance of the genus in the

transcripts at all vents (Figs 3, 4). The Desulfurobacteriaceae bin 324 was transcribed in 2014 at

all sites at 80°C. Aquificales bin 285, however, was restricted to only Anemone (Fig 4).

Figure 4. Metagenome Assembled Genomes (MAGs) selected based on having >4% of coding genome

expressed in 30, 55 and 80°C RNA-SIP experiments. Percent of coding genome expressed = length

of expressed genes(bp)/genome length (bp).

Functional attributes of active autotrophs

To determine how autotrophs in the RNA-SIP experiments acquired energy while taking

up labeled inorganic carbon, we identified transcripts for key genes involved in oxygen, nitrogen,

methane, hydrogen, sulfur, and carbon metabolic pathways, and compared those to the

unmanipulated fluid metatranscriptomes (Fig 5, Table S8). There were similarities in major energy

acquisition pathways across all sites and samples, but in each year and temperature the three vent

sites differed in magnitude of transcription. Transcripts for the selected metabolic marker genes

were present in most of the unmanipulated fluid metatranscriptomes (Figure 5), whereas some

genes were transcribed in RNA-SIP experiments only at certain temperatures and vents, reflecting

specific metabolisms being carried out by distinct subseafloor autotrophic populations under

different temperature regimes. We also examined the 30 most abundant transcripts at each RNA-

SIP experimental temperature (Fig S6), some of which were metabolic genes that we note here,

while other transcripts were related to information processing, replication and repair, and signaling

and cellular processes (Fig S6).

Transcripts for aerobic oxidative phosphorylation gene aa_3-type cytochrome c oxidase

(*cox*) and microaerophily gene cbb_3-type cytochrome c oxidases (*cco*) were highest in the 30°C

RNA-SIP experiments as compared to 55 and 80°C (Figure 5). Normalized counts of *cco* peaked

in Marker 33 at 30°C in both 2013 and 2014 (7,593–9,608 TPM), attributable to taxa

Aliarcobacter, *Hydrogenimonas*, *Sulfuricurvum*, *Sulfurimonas*, and *Sulfurovum* (Table S9).

Genes for nitrate reduction and complete denitrification were highly transcribed in almost

all RNA-SIP experiments (Fig 5). Of those genes, *napA*, periplasmic nitrate reductase, was the

most abundant transcript across all conditions. It was also one of the 30 most transcribed genes at

80°C (1,394–15,195 TPM) (Fig 5, Fig S6), belonging to the genera *Phorcysia* and *Thermovibrio*

within the Aquificota. Marker 113, and to a lesser extent, Marker 33, had transcription of genes

for dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonia (DNRA, *nirAB* and *nrf*, TPMs 8,131–16,106), and

these transcripts were uniquely attributed to *Sulfurospirillum* (Table S9).

Of the six sulfur marker genes selected, *psr* and *phs* are most functional in anaerobic

conditions and *sox* in aerobic conditions (29). However, many sulfur metabolism genes can

function across diverse oxic conditions, as they catalyze both anaerobic sulfate reduction and the

reverse process, sulfur-compound oxidation (30, 31). Anemone had the highest H_2S concentrations

as well as transcription of genes related to sulfur metabolism compared to the other two vents

(Table 1). For example, *sqr* had high transcription at 80°C (up to 9,695 TPM from *Aquifex*,

Hydrogenivirga, and *Phorcysia*), whereas at both Marker 113 and Marker 33, *sqr* was transcribed

only at the lower temperatures, 30°C and 55°C (Fig 5). The highest transcription of

polysulfide/thiosulfate reductase genes *psr* and *phs* occurred at 55°C in all experiments, with

transcripts reaching 27,947 TPM from *Hydrogenimonas*, *Cetia*, and *Nautilia* (Figure S6). While

sox transcripts were present in unmanipulated fluids at all 3 vents, activity of this gene in the RNA-

SIP experiments was highest in 2014 at Marker 33 at 30°C (6396 TPM) from *Hydrogenimonas*,

Sulfurovum, and *Sufurimonas* (Table S9).

The selected marker genes for hydrogenotrophic and acetoclastic methanogenesis were

transcribed in the unmanipulated fluid samples from Marker 113 and Marker 33 but were overall

absent at Anemone (Figure 5). Transcription of methanogenic metabolic genes was highest in

RNA-SIP experiments at Marker 113 in 2013 at 55°C and 80°C (up to 56,765 TPM), and Marker

33 at 55°C in 2013 and at 80°C in 2014 (up to 47,489 TPM). These transcripts were attributed to

Methanothermococcus and *Methanococcus* at 55°C and *Methanotorris* and *Methanocaldococcus*

at 80°C. Methanogenic genes *hdrA2* and *mcrA* at 55°C and *frhA*, *fwdB*, *fmdB*, and *mcrAC* at 80°C

were among the 30 most transcribed genes in these temperatures (Figure S6).

The five chosen hydrogenase marker genes were in all unmanipulated fluid

metatranscriptomes (Fig 5). Notably, throughout all sites and all years, 80°C RNA-SIP

experiments transcriptional profiles did not have quinone-reactive Ni-Fe hydrogenase *hydAB*,

responsible for transferring electrons from H_2 to terminal electron acceptors oxygen, nitrate,

sulfate, fumarate, and metals. Transcripts for *hydAB* in the 30°C and 55°C experiments belonged

to diverse Campylobacterota, predominantly *Sulfuricurvum* (22,883 TPM, Table S9), but also

Sulfurimonas, *Nautilia*, and *Hydrogenimonas*. Other hydrogen metabolic marker genes, such as

sulfhydrogenase, energy converting (*ech*) hydrogenase and Ni-Fe hydrogenase (group 1; *hya*, *hyb*),

were in higher abundances at 55°C and 80°C compared to 30°C and associated with *Thermococcus*

and Phylum Aquificota (Table S9). F420-non-reducing hydrogenase (*mvh*, *vhu*, *vhc*) used by

methanogens was primarily at Marker 113 and 33 at 55°C and 80°C. Quinone-reactive Ni-Fe

hydrogenases h*ydAB* (30°C and 55°C, Marker 33), Ni-Fe hydrogenase 1B-type *hyaC* (all vents at

55°C), and hydrogenase 2 large subunit *hyaB, hybC* (all vents at 80°C) were among the top 30

genes transcribed in the respective temperatures in the dataset (Figure S6).

Across all experiments and temperatures, most of the carbon fixation was via the reductive

tricarboxylic acid (rTCA) cycle (Fig 5). All vents at 30°C and 55°C had high transcription of rTCA

cycle marker genes attributed to Campylobacterota (Table S9), whereas at 80°C in both years at

Anemone and in 2014 at Marker 113 and Marker 33, rTCA transcripts were attributed to

Aquificota (Fig 5, Table S9). Eight genes involved in the rTCA/TCA cycles were in the 30 most

abundant genes transcribed at each temperature (Fig S6). In general, at higher temperatures when

methanogens were active, transcripts for the reductive acetyl-coA (Wood-Ljungdahl) pathway

were also abundant. For example, Wood-Ljungdahl pathway genes (*coo, acs*) attributed to

Methanocaldococcus had the highest transcription in 80°C experiments at Marker 113 (2013) and

Marker 33 (2014; Table S9).

Figure 5. Normalized abundance of non-rRNA transcripts annotated in the unmanipulated diffuse fluid metatranscriptomes and RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes for key marker genes involving oxygen, nitrogen, sulfur, methane, hydrogen, and carbon metabolism. Bubble sizes represent the transcripts per million reads (TPM) attributed to each marker gene.

Differential Expression Analysis of Transcripts

Differential expression analyses using the RNA-SIP ^{13}C-heavy transcriptional profiles were conducted to determine statistical differences in transcription across experimental conditions. Depending on the hypotheses and conditions, expression profiles were compared to baseline

'expected' transcription calibrated to the specific condition (see Methods). Across the RNA-SIP

dataset, 656 unique transcripts were observed to be significantly differentially expressed (SDE)

1520 times with an adjusted p-value of <0.05 (Table S10). Only transcripts that had a padj < 10^{-3}

and $\log_2$ fold-change ≥ |2| will be discussed.

Differential expression across temperatures within the same vent

Comparing across temperatures within the same vent resulted in the highest number of

significantly differently expressed transcripts (483 unique genes SDE 1030 times, Fig 6, Table

S11). At Marker 113, annotated transcripts with the greatest differences in expression across

temperatures included gene transcripts for hydrogenases, nitrate reduction, motility, heat shock,

and carbon metabolism (Figure 6A). Overall, as RNA-SIP experimental temperature increased,

the differentially expressed hydrogenase transcripts shifted from quinone-reactive Ni-Fe

hydrogenases (*hydAB*) at 30°C and 55°C to Ni-Fe hydrogenase (group 1) (*hya*, h*yb*) at 80°C. Heat

shock proteins also differed with each temperature regime, with *grpE* and *cbpA* upregulated at

55°C and *clpC* upregulated 80°C.

At Anemone, transcribed genes with the greatest differences in abundance across

temperatures included transcripts related to hydrogenases, methane and nitrogen metabolism,

carbon fixation, energy metabolism, and signaling and cellular processes (Figure 6B). Like at

Marker 113, there was an upregulation of quinone-reactive Ni-Fe hydrogenases (*hyd*) at 30°C and

55°C and Ni-Fe hydrogenases (group 1) (*hya*, *hyb)* at 80°C. There was also a similar trend for heat

shock proteins. At all temperatures at Anemone, where oxygen is present at temperatures of 100°C

or greater, all transcripts involved in oxygen-sensitive methanogenesis (*mvh*, *vhu, vhc; frh*, *fdh*,

and *hdr*) were downregulated.

Marker 33 had more differentially expressed transcripts across temperature than the other

vents, representing genes related to hydrogenases, methane metabolism, carbon fixation, heat

shock, and signaling and cellular processes (Figure 6C). Like the other two sites, Marker 33 had

upregulation of oxygen-tolerant quinone-reactive Ni-Fe hydrogenases *(hydAB)* at 30°C and 55°C

and oxygen-sensitive Ni-Fe hydrogenases (group 1) (*hya, hyb*) at 80°C. Heat shock proteins *grpE*,

cbpA, dnaK, and *HSPA9* were downregulated at 80°C. Transcripts for methanogenesis were

downregulated at both 55°C and 80°C, but *fdh* was upregulated at Marker 33 at 30°C.

375
Figure 6. Volcano plots showing the log₂FC (degree of differential expression) within each vent across

experimental temperatures at **A.** Marker 113, **B.** Anemone, and **C.** Marker 33. Colored points correspond

to genes that had a padj $< 10^{-3}$ and log₂FC $> |2|$ (padj; p-value adjusted for multiple tests using the Bonferroni

correction), but only genes involved in energy acquisition, central carbon metabolism, cellular motility,

heat shock, Fe-S cluster assembly, and CRISPR/Cas system proteins are labeled with gene names.

Differential expression across vents by temperature

As noted, DE analysis was also carried out across vents by temperature. Across the three

vents by each temperature, 240 unique transcripts were SDE 329 times and included transcripts of

genes related to electron transport, carbon fixation, and carbon and nitrogen metabolism (Figure

S7, Table S12). The greatest number of significantly differentially expressed transcripts were

observed at 30°C. None were identified at 55°C, and 3 transcripts were SDE in 80°C experiments.

Differential expression across time within each vent

For DE analysis across time within each vent, 114 unique genes were SDE 161 times

(Figure S8, Table S13), with most of them significantly upregulated in Marker 113 and Marker 33

in 2013. Annotated upregulated transcripts within sites with the greatest expression differences

compared to the other sites across time were those related to methane metabolism (including *mcr*

and *hdr*, among others), energy metabolism, and motility (Fig S8).

DISCUSSION

Diffuse hydrothermal vent fluids are a window into the subseafloor microbial community

in young oceanic crust, representing one of the most productive regions of the deep sea. The

microbial communities found in these fluids are taxonomically and functionally diverse and

include a mix of seawater, seafloor, and subseafloor communities that inhabit temperatures from

2°C to near 100°C across a wide range of geochemical gradients, making it difficult to pinpoint

the active microbes beneath the seafloor. In this study, we experimentally manipulated venting

fluids to target subseafloor microbes under variable temperature and reducing conditions and used

stable isotope labeling with inorganic carbon coupled to metatranscriptomic sequencing to focus

on active autotrophic subseafloor microbes, their metabolic and growth strategies, and their

distribution in the subseafloor.

Expanding upon decades of research at Axial Seamount, we analyzed 15 (21 total

timepoints; Table 2) RNA-SIP experiments from 3 spatially separated vents in 2 consecutive years

and hypothesized that the subseafloor autotrophic microbial population structure at each site would

be distinct, with transcriptional metabolic profiles reflective of the geological and geochemical

characteristics of each individual vent. While our results broadly corroborate this hypothesis, as

well as building upon previous work at Axial Seamount that indicated microbial communities at

individual vents host distinct microbial communities over multiple years (10, 12), by focusing on

only autotrophs at specific temperatures, we also found active cosmopolitan, subseafloor autotrophs occupying particular thermal niches. In addition, while certain metabolisms and associated lineages such as methanogenic archaea ("specialists") are restricted in distribution, other metabolisms geared toward hydrogenotrophic sulfur and nitrate-based metabolisms and microaerophily ("generalists") are widely distributed in many lineages across a wide temperature range, highlighting metabolic flexibility and functional redundancy across diverse taxonomic groups in this ecosystem. Competition for electron donors like hydrogen and electron acceptors like oxygen was apparent in the data, as shifts in taxonomy and transcription highlighted the conditions under which various microbial groups could dominate. The data suggest that while chemical and physical characteristics at each vent control the energy available for microbial growth—as is the case for methanogenesis and sulfide oxidation—some ubiquitous microbial subseafloor lineages within the young oceanic crust at Axial Seamount have adapted to a broad range of subseafloor chemistries and temperatures and are therefore not restricted in distribution.

We used multiple bioinformatic tools to examine this complex RNA-SIP metatranscriptomic dataset, including transcript taxonomy to provide detailed microbial community composition profiles (Fig 3) for each experiment, as well as experiment-derived MAG read recruitment to determine specific population distributions (Fig 4). We also analyzed taxonomy and activity of metabolism-specific genes (Fig 5), coupled with a functional-agnostic approach with multiple differential gene expression analyses (Fig 6). Importantly, all RNA-SIP experiments experienced a significant distillation of the taxa present in the unmanipulated fluid metatranscriptomes (Fig 3). Of note is the reduction or disappearance of *Alpha-*, *Delta-*, and *Gammaproteobacteria*, as well as *Actinobacteria*, groups that comprised up to half of the microbial community in unmanipulated fluids and are common in plume and background seawater samples.

The RNA-SIP experiments were amended with hydrogen to re-create putative reducing

subseafloor conditions. Along with temperatures of incubation, this likely explains why these taxa

are not heavily represented in the RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes as they are either not adapted to

these subseafloor conditions or are heterotrophs. Here, we discuss some of the specific patterns of

taxonomic distribution coupled with the gene expression patterns and geochemical features across

the three vents to determine how the interplay of fluid chemistry, microbial competition, and

functional potential results in the presence or absence of microbial populations across vents and

temperatures.

The novel *in situ* oxygen sensor data enabled new insights into the important role of oxygen

for subseafloor microbial metabolism, even at high temperatures. Through linear regression

modeling of this data, we predicted oxygen was depleted to zero at temperatures of 33°C at Marker

113 and 52°C at Marker 33 but was predicted to be present at temperatures up to 100°C or more

at Anemone (Fig 1). The oxygen models align with the transcript data, as the presence of oxygen

at high temperatures at Anemone likely enabled the persistence of microaerophilic sulfide

oxidation in the 80°C experiments. This was indicated by the transcription of sulfide:quinone

oxidoreductase (*sqr*) for sulfide oxidation belonging to *Aquifex*, *Hydrogenivirga*, and *Phorcysia*.

However, at Marker 113 and Marker 33, this oxygen-dependent enzyme for autotrophy (32) was

not expressed above 55°C, consistent with the depletion of oxygen at lower temperatures at these

sites.

At all sites in all years, the geochemistry of the diffuse venting fluids indicated biological

utilization of hydrogen when compared with conservative mixing, with evidence for methane

production only at Marker 113 and Marker 33 (Fig 2). These geochemical indicators of biological

activity broadly map to the metabolism-focused analyses. Transcripts for methanogenesis were

restricted to Marker 113 and 33 (Fig 5). In addition, the top 30 expressed genes (TPM) at 55°C

and 80°C included those related to methanogenesis only at these two vents. This also corresponds

to the consistent activity of the singular, high quality *Methanothermococcus* MAG (Bin 335) at

Marker 113 and 33 (Fig 4). In contrast, at Anemone, methanogenesis-related transcripts were not

included in the top 30 expressed genes (Fig 5, Fig S6), and were overall significantly

downregulated at Anemone compared to other sites, likely due to the more oxic conditions

measured at this site (Fig 1, Fig 5).

Unlike the restricted distribution of transcripts for methanogenesis, all sites showed

biological utilization of hydrogen, and at Marker 113 and 33, also utilization of nitrate (Fig 2).

Transcripts for hydrogen and nitrate utilization were found widely across all conditions, and in

particular, the periplasmic nitrate reductase *napAB* and hydrogenase genes quinone-reactive Ni-

Fe hydrogenase (*hyd*), energy-converting hydrogenase (*ech*), and Ni-Fe hydrogenase (group 1)

(*hya, hyb;* Fig 5) were all upregulated in the differential expression analysis. The transcripts for

hydrogen oxidation coupled with nitrate reduction were associated with a diverse number of

genera, including *Sulfurimonas, Cetia, Hydrogenimonas,* and *Caminibacter* at 30°C; *Cetia,*

Caminibacter, Nautilia, Hydrogenimonas and those from phylum Aquificota at 55°C; and

Thermovibrio and *Desulfurobacterium* at 80°C (Fig 3). Chemical analysis of diffuse fluids showed

that there was higher H_2S concentrations in both 2013 and 2014 at Anemone than at the other two

vents (Table 1), correlating with high transcription of polysulfide/thiosulfate reduction genes *psr*

and *phs* (up to 14,000 TPM) in tandem with hydrogen oxidation (Fig 5). Taxa expressing both *psr*

and *phs,* along with Ni-Fe hydrogenase at Anemone, include *Cetia, Nautilia*, and

Hydrogenimonas; the latter is known to utilize oxygen as a terminal electron acceptor.

Within each year, there were also MAGs active in all vents in at least one time point:

Hydrogenimonas bin 102 (at 55°C in 2014), Nautiliaceae bin 340 (at 55°C in 2013 and 2014)*,*

Thermovibrio bin 320 (at 80°C 2013 and 2014), and Desulfurobacteriaceae bin 324 (at 80°C in

2014). The recurrence of active MAGs across vents and temperatures indicates that some vents at

Axial Seamount host the same populations of microorganisms, agnostic of style of venting

(through basalt vs. sulfides) or geochemistry (Fig 4). Previous studies (e.g. 9-10, 16, 33 Olins)

determined that established subseafloor microbial communities are mostly restricted by local vent

fluid geochemistry and physical structuring of the site, but our results show this may not be true

for some lineages at the population level. Our data reveal that some cosmopolitan taxa are capable

of colonizing a wide range of environmental niches, functioning as ecosystem generalists. On the

other hand, lineages restricted in distribution, such as methanogens, may serve as an example of

ecosystem specialists.

Many of these cosmopolitan taxa that carry out hydrogenotrophic sulfur and nitrate

reduction are known to be efficient at oxidizing hydrogen. For example, a study done by Nishimura

et al. (2010) found that hydrogenases purified from the vent-endemic *Hydrogenimonas*

thermophila were phylogenetically related to pathogenic Campylobacterota, known to have high

hydrogen oxidation activity (34). Like *Hydrogenimonas,* another vent-endemic organism *Nautilia*

profundicola was found to have multiple operons for hydrogenases, including one H_2-sensing

(Group 2), two H_2-uptake (Group 1), and three H_2-evolving (Group 4) hydrogenases in their

genome. Consistent with the findings from cultured representatives of *Hydrogenimonas* and

Nautilia that highlight flexibility encoded in their genomes for hydrogen utilization (35), our MAG

analyses indicated that both taxa transcribed three of the four hydrogen marker genes at 55°C,

including quinone-reactive Ni-Fe hydrogenase (*hyd*)*,* Ni-Fe hydrogenase (group 1) (*hya, hyb)*, and

energy converting hydrogenase (*ech*; Table S14).

Transcripts for hydrogenases were also detected at 80°C at both the community level and

in the ubiquitous Aquificota MAGs, supporting the prevalence and importance of hydrogen

oxidation in these taxa. Transcripts for three hydrogenase marker genes, Ni-Fe hydrogenase (group

1) (*hya*, *hyb*), energy-converting hydrogenase (*ech*)*,* and sulfhydrogenase, are attributed to both

Desulfurobacterium and *Thermovibrio* (Fig 3, Fig 5, Table S9). Desulfurobacteriaceae bin 324

was found at all vents in 2014 and transcribed hydrogenase maturation protein *hypF* (Table S14).

Thermovibrio bin 374, found at all vents in 2013 and 2014, transcribed numerous hydrogenases,

including the F420-non-reducing hydrogenase, hydrogenase maturation protein *hypF,*

hydrogenase expression/formation proteins *hypED*, and multiple sulfhydrogenase subunits (Table

S14). The diversity and versatility of these hydrogenase genes likely enable these taxa to grow and

survive across vents with different chemistries, leading to the cosmopolitan nature of these

populations.

Hydrogen is also utilized by hydrogenotrophic methanogens at these vents, and

competition for hydrogen between methanogens and the cosmopolitan, hydrogenotrophic sulfur

and nitrate reducers of the Aquificota likely occurs in the subseafloor at temperatures >50 °C (36-

38). Methanogenic growth may be inhibited by growth of these other groups by bringing localized

H_2 concentrations to a partial pressure below which methanogenesis can occur (39-41). Cultivation

experiments showed that *Desulfurobacterium* strain HR11 has a lower H_2 requirement and lower

K_s than *Methanocaldococcus* (30 μM vs. 67 μM; 37, 42). In co-culture experiments with

Methanothermococcus thermolithotrophicus (T_{opt} 65°C), *Methanocaldococcus jannaschii* (T_{opt}

82°C)*,* and *Desulfurobacterium thermolithotrophum* (T_{opt} 72°C)*,* Kubik and Holden (2024) found

that *D. thermolithotrophum* outcompeted both methanogens at high and low hydrogen

concentrations when grown at a 1:1 ratio of initial inoculum (36). However, when *M.*

thermolithotrophicus was grown at a ratio of 10:1 with *D. thermolithotrophum*, the methanogen outcompeted the bacterium, suggesting the conditions under which methanogens can successfully establish first and grow in larger numbers, as observed in the 55°C experiments at Markers 113 and 33 where methanogens were in higher abundance.

An additional factor that can influence the distribution and metabolic strategies of hydrogen-utilizing microbes are physical characteristics of the hydrothermal vents. Building off a reactive transport model developed to examine thermophilic vs hyperthermophilic methanogen growth at Axial vents (28), Kubik and Holden expanded the model with additional hydrogenotrophic autotrophs and determined that when the residence time of subseafloor fluids was long, methanogens dominated, but when fluids had shorter residence times, Aquificota dominated. Lower temperatures combined with longer residence times also favored thermophilic methanogenic growth (36). Taken together, our results support these cultivation and modeling studies and show that in the natural world, methanogens require more specific physicochemical conditions for successful growth, thus limiting their distribution, whereas diverse Aquificota and Campylobacterota are more metabolically flexible and less dependent on geochemistry constrained by fluid residence times, enabling a more cosmopolitan distribution. Anemone's close (<1 m) proximity to a high temperature (~300°C) end-member may create short subseafloor fluid residence times; in contrast, Marker 113 and Marker 33 are located farther (~750 m) from a high-temperature venting source, supporting longer fluid residence times, and thus methanogens. Our coupled geochemical and meta-omics results suggest that the distribution of some subseafloor microbes may be determined by both a microbe's efficiency and genetic regulation of hydrogen utilization as well as the interspecies relationships, chemistry, residence time, and temperature of the subseafloor venting fluids.

Microbial community composition shifted with temperature and vent location.

Campylobacterota dominated all RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes until 80°C, when methanogens and

members of the Aquificota became the key carbon-fixing phyla. At 30°C, ORF-based transcript

analysis attributed a substantial proportion of transcripts to *Sulfurimonas* at Marker 113 and

Hydrogenimonas at Marker 33 (Fig S9). Fluid chemistry may explain why these genera are the

dominant autotrophs in these low-temperature conditions at each respective vent. Diffuse fluids in

both Marker 113 and Marker 33 had comparable H_2 concentrations across the years, though 10x

lower than those in Anemone, but the oxygen-temperature trends observed in water samples

predicted zero-oxygen (anoxia) at temperatures above 55°C (Fig 1). In our study, *Sulfurimonas*

was especially active and abundant in Marker 113 at 30°C. The O_2 concentration measured at

Marker 113 was consistently the lowest of all three vents each year (7.0 µM in 2013, 9.9 µM in

2014, Fig 1, Table 1). While fluid residence times and flow rate impact oxygenation, Marker 113's

comparatively low oxygen concentrations may be in part due to *Sulfurimonas* O_2 consumption. In

the 30°C expression profiles of Marker 113 and Anemone, the only terminal electron acceptor

Sulfurimonas transcribed was cytochrome c oxidase, *cbb₃*-type (*ccoNOPQ*), suggestive of a

metabolism of oxygen reduction and hydrogen oxidation (Fig 5, Fig S9, Table S9). Given the

absence of *Hydrogenimonas* metabolic transcripts and the overall dominance of *Sulfurimonas* in

transcriptional profiles of Marker 113 at 30°C, the depleted activity of microaerophilic

Hydrogenimonas may reflect more stringent conditions (e.g. less H_2 and less O_2), and/or

competition with *Sulfurimonas* for oxygen as an electron acceptor. On the other hand, the

metabolic versatility and higher growth optimum temperature of *Hydrogenimonas* may provide

for its continued activity level at higher temperatures, where it can utilize alternative electron

acceptors such as nitrate, nitrite, and sulfur (34). In our experiments, *Hydrogenimonas* was more

abundant at all sites at 55°C than at 30°C.

At Marker 33, *Sulfurimonas* and *Hydrogenimonas* were almost in equal proportion in 30°C

transcriptional profiles for both years. These taxa transcribed genes for multiple electron acceptors,

including oxygen (*cco)*, nitrate (*napAB*), nitrite (*nir, nar*, *nxr*), and sulfur (*sox, sqr*; Fig S9).

Sulfurimonas are capable of oxidizing S^0 and H_2, reducing O_2 and NO_3^-, using various carbon

sources, and thriving in microaerophilic and anaerobic conditions, typically below 40°C (Table

S9; 14, 43-45). *Hydrogenimonas* bins 102 and 104 expressed a high percentage of their coding

genomes in 30°C fluids of Marker 33, and transcripts assigned to *Hydrogenimonas* had low

abundance in the other vents at 30°C (Fig 4). The presence of oxygen up to 52°C, closer to the

growth optimum of *Hydrogenimonas,* may mean that both *Sulfurimonas* and *Hydrogenimonas* can

use oxygen at higher temperatures at this site (Fig 1, Table S2). On the other hand, these sustained

oxygen concentrations up to 52°C may also hinder establishment of taxa with similar metabolisms,

higher optimum growth temperature, but lower oxygen tolerance than *Hydrogenimonas* (e.g.

Caminibacter, Cetia, Lebetimonas, and *Nautilia*).

Conclusions

This study identified subseafloor microbial primary producers at 3 spatially separated vents

over 2 years at Axial Seamount and enabled a granular view of the autotrophic microbes at the

base of the deep-sea hydrothermal vent ecosystem. The active autotrophs vary between vents but

less so over time, demonstrating that vent geology, fluid chemistry, and flow path shape the

geochemical environments and active metabolisms observed. This dynamic interplay between

microbial metabolism and vent fluid chemistry not only influences the community structure but

also determines which groups dominate under varying environmental conditions. Hydrogen and

oxygen availability and utilization is a key control for the establishment of autotrophs, with

competition between autotrophic sulfur-reducing taxa and methanogens for H_2 evident. These

interactions underscore the complex ecological networks at hydrothermal vents, where microbial

communities not only adapt to but also actively shape their environment through metabolic

exchanges and niche differentiation. Spanning a range of geochemical regimes, these findings

illuminate the intricate microbiological networks at deep-sea hydrothermal vent systems and

highlight the active functions of key carbon-fixing taxa and their interactions within microbial

communities in the circulating subseafloor crustal fluids.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sample collection

Axial Seamount samples were collected using ROVs ROPOS and JASON aboard the *R/V*

Falkor and *R/V Thompson* in September 2013 and *R/V Brown* in August 2014 (8, 10).

Hydrothermal plume water from 42 m above Anemone (N 45.9335667, W 130.013667) and

ambient seawater at 1500 m depth (N 46.27389, W 129.79548) were also collected using a Seabird

SBE911 CTD equipped with 10 L Niskin bottles in 2015 aboard the *R/V Thompson*, 5-months

post-eruption at Axial Seamount. Water was transferred from Niskin bottles into cubitainers, and

3 L was filtered through 0.22 µm Sterivex filters (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) for later

metagenomic sequencing.

Figure S1. Map of Axial Seamount a. showing locations of the three diffuse vents sampled, including

Marker 113, Anemone, and Marker 33. Map from Fortunato *et al.*, 2018 (10). Images from ROV Jason

(WHOI).

616
The Hydrothermal Fluid and Particle Sampler (HFPS; 27) and Large Volume Water

Sampler (LVWS; 46) were used to collect fluids at ~2 cm above the seafloor. The coordinates for

each vent are Marker 113: N 45.9227, W 129.9882; Anemone: N 45.9332, W 130.0137; Marker

33: N 45.9332, W 129.9822. Temperature was monitored while drawing fluids using an integrated

temperature sensor that was present on both samplers. For sampling with the HFPS and LVWS, a

4 L capacity acid-washed Tedlar bag or a 5 L acid-washed plastic carboy, respectively, was used

to collect fluids for RNA-SIP experiments as described in (8). DNA and RNA from diffuse fluids

for metagenomic (2013-2015) and metatranscriptomic (2013 and 2014) sequencing were

concurrently collected using the HFPS at a rate of 100–150 mL min^{-1} through a 0.22 μm, 47 mm

GWSP filter (Millipore) for a total volume of 3 L. All filters were preserved *in situ* with RNALater

(Ambion, Grand Island, NY, USA) as described in Fortunato *et al.* (2018) (10). RNA-SIP

experiments are reported here only from 2013 and 2014, since there were too few samples from

2015 to include in the analysis, though the unmanipulated diffuse fluid metagenomes were

included in assemblies to provide more phylogenetic and functional coverage representative of the

Axial diffuse fluid microbial community.

Hydrothermal fluid samples were collected with the Hydrothermal Fluid and Particle

Sampler (HFPS) following procedures described in (27). Vent fluid samples were analyzed on

board for pH, total H_2S, and dissolved methane and hydrogen. Magnesium and nitrate were

analyzed on shore. With the exception of oxygen data, these chemical data were previously

reported in (10) and used for methanogen modeling in (28). For this study, HFPS included an

oxygen optode (SeaBird SBE 63) capable of measuring oxygen concentration in fluids up to a

maximum of 40°C. Temperature was monitored at the sample intake, near the sensor block, and

inside the oxygen sensor housing. Oxygen measurements were made just before or after collecting

fluid samples, with the intake in the same position to replicate collected water samples. Water was

pulled from the titanium/Teflon sampling manifold through the sensor, with some cooling taking

place along the flow path. The SBE63 optode does not require constant flow rate, does not consume

oxygen, and can make measurements when flow is stopped. The SBE63 sends 1 Hz serial data,

which is received by the HFPS on-board computer. Oxygen concentration is calculated using the

temperature measured in the sensor housing, the ambient pressure and salinity (derived from ROV

sensors and input manually to the software), and the factory calibration. The factory calibration

covers a temperature range from 2°C to 30°C. All of the measurements for this study had

temperatures at the sensor within the calibration range. Over the 2013-2015 period of this study,

the average oxygen concentration of near-bottom seawater within the caldera, where all diffuse

vents for this study are located, was 31 μmol/kg (+/- 2μmol/kg, n=24). Oxygen increases

significantly with increasing depth at Axial Seamount, where the summit is below the oxygen

minimum.

RNA-SIP experimental procedures

For LVWS samples in 2013, fluid from carboys was pumped using a peristaltic pump into

evacuated 1 L Pyrex bottles with air-tight butyl stoppers to a volume of 1060 mL. For all other

samples in 2013 and 2014, fluid was pumped using a peristaltic pump from the sampling bags or

carboys into evacuated 500 mL Pyrex bottles with air-tight butyl stoppers to a volume of 530 mL.

During filling, steps were taken to minimize introduction of oxygen and outgassing of fluid. Prior

to filling, ^{13}C-labeled sodium bicarbonate (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Tewksbury, MA,

USA) for the experimental condition or ^{12}C-labeled sodium bicarbonate (Sigma, St. Louis, MO,

USA) for the control condition was added to each bottle to a final concentration of 10 mM over

background. After filling, the pH of each bottle was adjusted to vent fluid pH (<6.5), using 1–2.5

mL of 10% HCl. The headspace was filled with pure H_2 gas using a syringe in the quantity 20 mL

(900 μmol) for each 500 mL bottle and 60 mL (2700 μmol) for the1 L bottles. ^{12}C- and ^{13}C-

bicarbonate amended bottles were each incubated at 30, 55, and 80°C for various times as shown

in Table 2 in the main text. After incubation, the fluid in each bottle was filtered through 0.22 μm

Sterivex filters (Millipore), preserved in RNALater (Ambion), and frozen at −80°C.

RNA from SIP experiments was extracted according to (8) and detailed in the Supplementary

Information (SI). Following RNA extraction and quantification, each RNA-SIP experiment

required isopycnic centrifugation to separate the heavy RNA (labeled with ^{13}C—the active

autotrophs) from the light RNA (members of the community that did not take up the ^{13}C label,

representing the less active members of that community) as described in (8) and the SI.

Four metatranscriptomic libraries were constructed for each RNA-SIP experiment: two from

the ^{12}C-control (^{12}C-light and ^{12}C-heavy) and two from the ^{13}C-experiment, (^{13}C-light and ^{13}C-

heavy) as described in (8) except for four samples: the second timepoints in 2014 of Marker 113

at 55°C and Marker 33 at 30°C and 80°C and the only timepoint at Anemone at 80°C. The ^{12}C-

control incubation peak(s) of highest RNA concentration were used to construct the ^{12}C-light

library, which represents the natural community. Similarly, the ^{13}C-experiment incubation peak(s)

of highest RNA concentration were used to construct the ^{13}C-heavy library, which represents the

labeled, active autotrophic community. The other two libraries from each temperature, ^{12}C-heavy

and ^{13}C-light were constructed to act as additional controls but were not taken through full

bioinformatic processing. In some cases (denoted in Figs S3-5), two RNA fractions were combined

for library construction.

Metagenomic bioinformatic analyses

There were 11 metagenome samples processed, including metagenomes from all three vent

sites in 2015 (Table S4; 10). These samples were included to provide a comprehensive functional

repertoire in diffuse fluid communities at Axial Seamount (10). A pipeline with code used in

metagenomic processing can be found here: https://github.com/corporeal-snow-albatross-

5/Axial_Metagenomics. Samples were first trimmed of Illumina adapter sequences using

Trimmomatic (v0.32; 47), quality controlled using FastQC (v0.11.9; 48), and quality results were

aggregated across samples into a single report using MultiQC (v1.12; 49). These initial trimming

and quality control steps were done using the qc-trim Snakemake pipeline designed by Dr. Sarah

Hu (https://github.com/shu251/qc-trim). The separate forward reads and separate reverse reads

were concatenated using the cat command in Unix, and then concatenated forward and reverse

read files were combined using the fq2fa (v1.1.3) function within the IDBA_UD assembler (50;

https://github.com/loneknightpy/idba). Each of the metagenomes were assembled using

IDBA_UD (v1.1.3), using a max kmer size of 120 (50; https://github.com/loneknightpy/idba).

Contig and scaffold quality was evaluated using MetaQUAST (v5.0.2; 51), and the best assembly

given steps of 20 from kmer lengths of 20-120 was chosen for further analysis. Each metagenome

was submitted to the DOE Joint Genome Institute's Integrated Microbial Genome Expert Review

(IMG/ER) for annotation. IMG/ER JGI GOLD Analysis Project ID numbers can be found in

Supplementary Table 1. Open reading frame (ORF) information from the IMG/ER annotation was

extracted using a python script (gff2seqfeatures.py; courtesy of Dr. Connor Scannerton) to create

.ffn files from. gff (containing contig and locus identity, start and stop sites of ORFs, and strand

information) and .fna files (containing the nucleotide sequence of each ORF). All metagenome

.ffn files were then concatenated to make one long, annotated assembly using the cat command in

Unix.

The ORFs predicted in each metatranscriptomic (mRNA) file were mapped back to the

concatenated metagenomic assembly, which was first indexed using the kallisto index function

within the pseudoaligner Kallisto prior to mapping (v.0.46.0; 52). Post-mapping, the Kegg

Ontology (KO) ID's and the taxonomy of each predicted ORF in the metagenomes were retrieved

from IMG/ER. Cutoffs on the minimum requirements of an e-score of 10^{-10}, 30% amino acid

identity, and alignment length of 40 amino acids were imposed, as used in (10). The filtered KO

tables of each metagenome were concatenated with each other, and the same was done for the

taxonomy tables. The concatenated KO and taxonomy tables were then combined with each other

using an inner_join in the R dplyr package, based on target_id (predicted ORF).

Metagenome Assembled Genome (MAG) generation and analysis

In addition to an annotated, concatenated assembly, a co-assembly using the quality-

filtered and trimmed reads from 11 metagenomic samples was also constructed using MEGAHIT

(v1.2.9; 53) with parameters --min-contig-len = 200, --presets = "meta-sensitive". Assembly

statistics were checked using MetaQUAST (v5.0.2; 51). The resulting assembly had 2,318,625

contigs that were at least 500 bp in length; of those contigs, the N50 = 721bp and maximum length

= 280,659bp. The co-assembled metagenome (hereafter referred to as the "co-assembly") was

annotated through the DOE Joint Genome Institute's Integrated Microbial Genome Expert Review

(IMG/ER) pipeline. IMG/ER JGI GOLD Analysis Project ID numbers can be found in

Supplementary Table 1. The resulting gene calls, GFF annotation file, and phylodist taxonomy of

contigs, were used as the reference material for the metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs),

differential gene expression analyses, taxonomy assessments, and overviews of functional

potential vs expression. Kegg Ontology (KO) ID's and the taxonomy of each predicted ORF in the

co-assembly were retrieved from IMG/ER. Cutoffs on the minimum requirements of an e-score of

10^{-10}, 30% amino acid identity, and alignment length of 40 amino acids were imposed, as used in

(10).

MetaBAT2 (v2.15; 54) was used to generate metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs).

The co-assembly was first indexed using the bwa index within BWA mem (v7.17; 55) and then

metagenomes were mapped to the indexed file. The resulting output was processed through

Samtools (v1.13; 56). The .sam file generated from mapping was converted to a .bam file using the

samtools view function and resulting .bam files were sorted using samtools sort. Prior to binning,

depth (also called coverage) files were created for each metagenome and binned with minimum

contig length of 1500 using MetaBAT2. DAS Tool was then used to resolve redundancy between

bins and provide an optimized bin set (v1.1.7, 57). Bins were taxonomically classified using

GTDB-tk (v2.1.1; 58).

Genomic binning from all of the diffuse fluid metagenomes resulted in 391 MAGs, and

after removing redundant bins using DAS Tool (v1.1.7; 57), 120 bins remained with 45 having <

10% contamination and being >70% complete (Table S6). The MAGs were further filtered to

remove heterotrophs and samples solely sourced from the plume, background, or 2015

metagenomes, resulting in 25 bins remaining. The final 11 MAGs were selected based on having

>4% of their coding genome expressed (length of expressed genes(bp)/genome length (bp); Fig 4

in the main text, Table S7) in any individual RNA-SIP ^{13}C-heavy fraction.

Metatranscriptomic bioinformatic analyses

In total, there were 96 metatranscriptome samples processed total: 6 diffuse fluid

metatranscriptomes from unmanipulated fluids at each vent in 2013 and 2014 and 90 RNA-SIP

metatranscriptomes (Tables S3, S4). Metatranscriptomic sequences were trimmed and quality

checked with the same methods and software parameters as the metagenomic sequences. The

separate forward reads and separate reverse reads were concatenated using the cat command in

Unix, and then concatenated forward and reverse read files were combined using Fast Length

Adjustment of Short reads (FLASH; v.1.2.11; 59), which is a program used to combine fastq files.

The only parameter set was for read length, which was 110bp. Although metatranscriptome

libraries were constructed with selective amplification for mRNA (not rRNA), the SIP

metatranscriptomes were not. To separate the rRNA for preliminary taxonomic analyses from the

mRNA for downstream processing, SortMeRNA (v4.2.0; 60) was used (Table S5). The SILVA

v.132 bacterial and archaeal 16S (id85), 23S (id98), and 5S (id98) databases were used as the

reference databases to map the rRNA. The rest of the parameters were: --fastx for a fastq output

format, --other for mRNA reads that did not map to the databases, --out2, and --pairedout for non-

aligned reads. The percentage of reads mapping to rRNA from SortMeRNA can be found in Table

S4.

Fastq reads from SortMeRNA rRNA output were converted to fasta format using the fq2fa

(v.1.1.3) function within IDBA_UD assembler (50; https://github.com/loneknightpy/idba). rRNA

taxonomy was classified using mothur classify.seqs function and the SILVA (v.132) 16S rRNA

reference database (61). The 5S rRNA database used as one of the reference databases for rRNA

mapping in SortMeRNA also contains eukaryotes. As such, the eukaryote hits were removed

before further processing. Taxonomy count tables were generated using R, and bar plotting for

rRNA was done via ggplot2 within tidyverse in R. Resulting plots were only used to compare to

ORF transcript taxonomy and are not included in this paper.

Fastq mRNA reads were mapped to the indexed concatenated metagenomic assembly using

the kallisto quant function within Kallisto (v0.46.0; 52), which also normalized all ORFs that

mapped, providing transcripts per million (tpm) values for each ORF. Sample names were attached

to kallisto output files, then all files were concatenated and tpm values of 0 were removed. This

table was then attached to the KO and taxonomy table made from the IMG/ER output using an

inner_join in the R dplyr package, based on target_id (predicted ORF). 784,486 total ORFs from

all samples joined out of 4,027,381 total, which means that 80.521% of ORFs from the

concatenated metagenome were unmatched in KO and taxonomy in the metatranscriptomes and

SIP metatranscriptomes. There were no eukaryote hits in the ORFs that had a match with both KO

and taxonomy. There were only 11 virus hits in these samples of 784,486 total ORFs that did have

matching KO's and taxonomy. Because few viruses and no eukaryotes were found, they were

removed for further processing and to enable comparability between the rRNA and ORF taxonomy.

All figures and statistical analyses were completed in R.

Differential expression analysis

Metatranscriptomic (mRNA) samples from the ^{13}C-heavy fractions of Marker 113,

Anemone, and Marker 33 incubations at 30, 55, and 80°C from 2013 and 2014 were pseudoaligned

to the indexed co-assembly using kallisto (parameters: --single -l 151 -s 41) (v0.46.0; 52). The

kallisto outputs of metatranscriptome pseudocounts were tabulated with the R package tximport

(v1.26.1; 62) using an annotation database of consolidated gene families. Due to the diversity in

metagenomes, the co-assembly annotation contained multiple targets for gene products. To reduce

complexity in functional expression analyses, genes observed in the co-assembly were

consolidated into protein families using IMG's highest confidence annotation such as KEGG,

COG, pfam, and TIGRFAM. ORFs annotated with only "hypothetical protein" were discarded.

The annotation database consolidated 2,428,812 unique genes into 14,942 gene families observed

in the co-assembly. When referring to genes and proteins in our evaluations of differential

functional expression, we are using the consolidated gene families.

Differential expression analyses were conducted in R with DESeq2 (v1.38.3; 63). To

reduce stochasticity and improve assessment of significant genes, we tailored baseline (control)

gene expression for each of the comparisons: within-vent by temperature (1030 significantly

differentially expressed (SDE) transcripts; Table S11), across vents by temperature (329 SDE

transcripts; Table S12), and across time within each vent (161 SDE transcripts; Table S13). For

temperature comparisons within each vent (i.e. all Anemone experiments at 30, 55, and 80°C

compared to one another), the baseline expression for genes was the normalized expressions of all

metatranscriptomic samples (N=21; Table S2). For across vent comparisons at a single

temperature (i.e. All 30°C experiments, Anemone to Marker 113 to Marker 33), as well as

comparisons across time within each vent (i.e. 2013 Marker 113 80°C incubation compared to

2014 Marker 113 80°C incubation), gene baseline expressions were calculated at each incubation

temperature: 6 samples at 30°C; 8 samples at 55°C; and 7 samples at 80°C. Volcano plots show

genes with p-values adjusted for multiple test correction (Bonferroni) padj < 0.001 and $\log_2$ fold-

change > |2|; only genes involved in energy acquisition, central carbon metabolism, cellular

motility, heat shock, and some signaling and cellular processes are labeled with their gene names

on the figures (Fig 6, Figs S7, S8).

DATA AVAILABILITY

All raw metagenomic and metatranscriptomic read data are publicly available through the

Sequence Read Archive (SRA). Metagenomic assemblies are publicly available through JGI

GOLD. All accession numbers are located in Table S4.

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SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

<u>**Tables:**</u>

1. **Table S1**: Chemistry

2. **Table S2**: Oxygen data

3. **Table S3:** Metatranscriptome and RNA-SIP Metatranscriptome Samples

4. **Table S4:** Sample accession numbers

5. **Table S5**: SortMeRNA Results: percent rRNA in the metatranscriptome samples

6. **Table S6:** MAG statistics for high completeness, low contamination bins

7. **Table S7:** Input data to the MAGs

8. **Table S8:** Input data to the bubble plots.

9. **Table S9:** Functions represented in the bubble plot and the taxa doing them

10. **Table S10**: Table with number of SDE genes by condition

11. **Table S11:** within-vents by temperature, DE analysis

12. **Table S12:** across-vents by temperature, DE analysis

13. **Table S13**: within-vents by time, DE analysis

14. **Table S14:** hydrogenases in the community functional analysis and bins

<u>**Figures:**</u>

1. **Figure S1**: Map of Axial

2. **Figure S2**: Cl^- vs Mg

3. **Figure S3**: qPCR at 30°C

4. **Figure S4:** qPCR at 55°C

SUPPLEMENTARY METHODS

RNA Extraction from Sterivex filter

RNA from SIP experiments was extracted according to (8) by first cutting the Sterivex filter into pieces with a sterile razor blade then following the protocol in the mirVana miRNA isolation kit (Ambion). Biological material was removed from the filter pieces with a bead-beating step using RNA PowerSoil beads (MoBio, Carlsbad, CA, USA), followed by an extraction with acid phenol:chloroform. A total volume of 100 μL RNA was extracted and any remaining DNA was removed using the Turbo-DNase kit (Ambion).

Isopycnic centrifugation, fractionation and qRT-PCR

Following RNA extraction and quantification, each RNA-SIP experiment required isopycnic centrifugation to separate the heavy RNA (labeled with ^{13}C — the active autotrophs) from the light RNA (members of the community that did not take up the ^{13}C label, representing the less active members of that community) as described in (8). To prepare the gradient solution for each sample, 5.1 mL of CsTFA (~2 g mL-1; GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Piscataway, NJ, USA), 185 μL formamide, and a mixture of 500-750 ng RNA and gradient buffer solution (0.1 M Tris-HCl, 0.1 M KCl, 0.1 mM EDTA) up to 1 mL were first mixed in a 15 mL falcon tube prior to centrifugation (25). Once mixed, the refractive index was measured for each sample to ensure a median RI of 1.3729 +/- 0.0002, equating to a density of ~ 1.80 g mL-1. Samples were then loaded into 4.9 mL OptiSeal tubes (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA), weighed to ensure proper balance, placed into a VTi 65.2 vertical rotor (Beckman Coulter), and spun at 37,000 r.p.m. at 20 °C for 64

hr using an Optima L-80 XP ultracentrifuge (Beckman Coulter). Each gradient was fractionated

into 12 tubes of approximately 410 μL each. The refractive index of each fraction was measured

to determine density as described by Lueders, 2010 (25; Equation 1). RNA was precipitated with

ice-cold isopropanol and the pellet was washed with ice-cold 70% ethanol as also as described in

(250. Following centrifugation, the RNA concentration of each fraction was determined using the

RiboGreen quantification kit (Invitrogen) and a Gemini XPS plate reader (Molecular Devices,

Sunnyvale, CA, USA). The RNA concentration was used as the guide for selecting which fractions

to sequence. Quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR) was used

to determine the quantity (copy number) of the 16S rRNA gene within each fraction using the

KAPA Biosystems SYBR FAST One Step RT-qPCR (ABI Prism) and the Universal 16S rRNA

primers, Pro341F and Pro805R primers (64). E. coli ribosomal RNA was used to construct a

standard curve. Results were used to determine the ratio of maximum quantity of 16S rRNA within

each set of fractions, that is the ratio of 16S rRNA in each fraction to the maximum copy number

across all fractions (25; Supplementary Figures 2-4).

Equation 1. Lueders equation for fraction density (CsTFA + Gradient Buffer + Formamide)

$y = -1893.9820x2 + 5230.8018x - 3609.6804$

Metatranscriptomic Library Construction

Library construction for RNA-SIP fractions was carried out as described in Fortunato and

Huber and in the SI. Double stranded cDNA was constructed using SuperScript III First-strand

synthesis system (Invitrogen, Grand Island, NY, USA) and mRNA second strand synthesis module

(NEB, Ipswich, MA, USA). The synthesized double stranded cDNA was sheared to a fragment

size of 175 bp using a Covaris S-series sonicator (Woburn, MA, USA). SIP metatranscriptomic

library construction was completed using the Ovation Ultralow Library Complete Prokaryotic

RNA-Seq DR multiplex system (Nugen, San Carlos, CA, USA) following manufacturer

instructions, amplified using 15 cycles. Ribosomal RNA was not removed before construction of

libraries. Sequencing was performed on an Illumina HiSeq 1000 at the W.M. Keck sequencing

facility at the Marine Biological Laboratory in Woods Hole, MA. All libraries were paired-end,

with a 30 bp overlap, resulting in an average merged read length of 110 bp.

The 47 mm flat filters that were collected and preserved in situ for metagenomic and

metatranscriptomic sequencing were processed according to (10). The filters were first cut in half

with a sterile razor, half used for DNA extraction for metagenomic sequencing and half used for

RNA extraction for metatranscriptome sequencing. For DNA extraction, the DNA filter was rinsed

with sterile PBS to remove the salts from the RNAlater and was then extracted using a phenol-

chloroform method adapted from (65) and (66). DNA was then sheared to a fragment size of 175

bp (2013 and 2014) or 275 bp (Anemone, Marker 33, Marker 113 metagenomes from 2015, plume,

and background seawater) using a Covaris S-series sonicator. Metagenomic library construction

was completed using the Ovation Ultralow Library DR multiplex system (Nugen) following

manufacturer instructions.

Metagenomic and Metatranscriptomic Sequencing

Metagenomic and metatranscriptomic sequencing was done on an Illumina HiSeq 1000 in

2013 and 2014 and an Illuma NextSeq 500 in 2015. All libraries were paired-end, with a 30 bp

overlap, resulting in an average merged read length of 110 bp for libraries from 2013 and 2014

and 151 bp for libraries from 2015. Metagenomic and metatranscriptomic sequencing was carried

out at the W.M. Keck sequencing facility at the Marine Biological Laboratory in Woods Hole,

Massachusetts.

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1112