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

at Deep-Sea Hydrothermal Vents

Sabrina M. Elkassas,[a,b,#] Caroline S. Fortunato,[c,d] Sharon L. Grim,[a] David A. Butterfield,[e] James

F. Holden,[f] Joseph J. Vallino,[c] Christopher K. Algar,[g] Lisa Zeigler Allen,[h,i] Benjamin T. Larson,[e]

Giora Proskurowski,[e,j] Emily Reddington,[c,k] Lucy C. Stewart,[f,l] Begum Topçuoğlu,[f,m] and Julie A.

Huber[a,#]

[a]Department of Marine Chemistry and Geochemistry, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution,

Woods Hole, MA, USA

[b]Department of Earth, Atmospheric, and Planetary Sciences, Massachusetts Institute of

Technology, Cambridge, MA, USA

[c]Ecosystems Center, Marine Biological Laboratory, Woods Hole, MA, USA

[d]Present address: Department of Biology, Widener University, Chester, PA, USA

[e]Cooperative Institute for Climate, Ocean & Ecosystem Studies, University of Washington,

Seattle, WA, USA

[f]Department of Microbiology, University of Massachusetts Amherst, Amherst, MA, USA

[g]Department of Oceanography, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada

[h]Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, CA, USA

[i]Department of Microbial and Environmental Genomics, J. Craig Venter Institute, La Jolla, CA,

USA.

[j]Present address: MarqMetrix, ThermoFisher Scientific, Seattle, WA

[k]Present address: Great Pond Foundation, Edgartown, MA, USA

[l]Present address: New Zealand Association of Scientists, Wellington, NZ

[m]Present address: Bristol Myers Squibb, Summit, NJ, USA

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

#Address correspondence to Sabrina Elkassas, elks@mit.edu and Julie Huber, jhuber@whoi.edu

Sabrina Elkassas and Caroline Fortunato contributed equally to this work. Julie Huber, the final

author listed, is the Principal Investigator on this project.

ABSTRACT

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

generate gases and other reduced compounds that subseafloor microorganisms use for

chemolithoautotrophy. In this study, microbial autotrophs from three diffuse flow 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 flow venting fluids from three sites over two 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). Many of the studies of diffuse flow microbial communities occurred at Axial

Seamount, an active deep-sea volcano on the Juan de Fuca Ridge in the northeast Pacific Ocean

where there is a long history of coupled microbiological and geochemical research (6, 8, 12, 18).

Venting fluids at Axial host a diverse community of microorganisms composed of

Campylobacterota, Aquificota, and methanogenic archaea carrying out sulfide and hydrogen

oxidation, sulfur and nitrate reduction, and methanogenesis (8, 10, 12, 15, 17, 22). The diffuse

flow microbial communities identified in these studies include a mix of seawater, seafloor, and

subseafloor populations that inhabit a wide range of temperatures along diverse 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 isotope-enriched 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, where

in 2013, Marker 113 diffuse fluid was incubated with labeled bicarbonate to target autotrophs at

mesophilic, thermophilic, and hyperthermophilic temperature regimes in the subseafloor (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). While ideally, all manipulative experiments like

RNA-SIP would be conducted without sample lag time and depressurization to alleviate stress and

the disappearance of certain electron acceptors like oxygen and methane, the dominant microbes

and metabolisms in all experiments were nearly identical.

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

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

data from three diffuse flow vent sites at three 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 between years. 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 flow vents are shown in Table 1 and Table S1 and 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. 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.

At all diffuse flow vents, the temperatures ranged from 18.5-28.2°C during sampling, the

pH was on average ~5.6, and the microbial cell concentrations were the same order of magnitude

at each site (1.7-6.8 x 10^5 cells/mL) and all an order of magnitude above concentrations in

background seawater (Table 1). However, there were clear differences in the diffuse fluid chemical

composition among the three vents in this study (Figs 1 and 2, Tables 1, S1, and S2). All of the

venting sites were 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 to occur at 33°C for Marker 113 and at 52°C for Marker 33, while oxygen data from

Anemone points to zero oxygen at temperatures greater than 100°C (Fig 1). Additional biologically

relevant chemical constituents for the diffuse fluid vents and their closest high-temperature end-

member 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, NO_3^- (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). Anemone also had the highest H_2S concentrations in

both years compared to the other two sites (Table 1).

	Seawater	Anemone subseafloor source	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

n.d. = no data

Table 1. Measurements of chemical species and microbial counts for diffuse vent sites Anemone, Marker 33, and Marker 113 from 2013 and 2014 as reported in Fortunato *et al*. 2018 (10), as well as the nearby high temperature end-member chemistry. H_2 and CH_4 for Marker 33 and 113 end-members were estimated using methods described in Stewart *et al*., 2019 (28). Percent seawater was extrapolated using magnesium as a conservative tracer: [Mg]vent/[Mg]seawater × 100, and background seawater Mg concentration at 1500 m was 52.4 mmol/kg.

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 three vent sites for the two

years sampled, including the ambient seawater point in the regression. The SW-HighTFluid 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 (Tables 2, S3, and S4). All 15

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 bicarbonate into

RNA (Figs S3-S5). The highest RNA concentration was chosen from the ^{12}C-light and ^{13}C-heavy

peaks for sequencing. If the experiment had two RNA peaks, the two peak fractions were pooled

together and sequenced as one sample (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, but given their very low RNA concentrations, the sequencing results were not

always successful, and these data were not included in any subsequent analyses.

Including technical sequencing replicates, there were 84 total metatranscriptomes (44 ^{13}C-

heavy and ^{12}C-light, 34 ^{13}C-light and ^{12}C-heavy RNA-SIP experimental metatranscriptomes, and

six metatranscriptomes from the *in situ* unmanipulated vent fluid; Table S3) included in this study,

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 (29, 30). In most cases, the highest concentration of RNA corresponded to the highest rRNA

copy number.

Results from the ^{13}C-heavy RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes are presented as ^{13}C-enriched

transcripts throughout the manuscript to distinguish these results from the metatranscriptomes of

unmanipulated diffuse fluids. As described in the Methods and Supplementary Methods, the ^{13}C-

enriched fraction of the RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes were annotated and compared with the

paired metagenome and metatranscriptome generated from unmanipulated diffuse fluids that were

filtered and fixed on the seafloor. This comparison enabled both annotation and interpretation of

experimental results and ensured results were representative of the native hydrothermal vent

microbial community. We used multiple bioinformatic tools to examine this complex ^{13}C-enriched

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).

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

points collected during incubation.

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

Taxonomic composition of unmanipulated fluids and ^{13}C-enriched fraction of 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 the ^{13}C-enriched

fraction of 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-enriched RNA-SIP taxonomy (Fig S6). In all but one experiment, the taxonomy of the

^{12}C-light RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes was similar to the ^{13}C-enriched fraction and therefore

results here and throughout will focus only on the ^{13}C-enriched fraction metatranscriptomes, as

they represent the population of isotope-enriched (active) microbes (Fig 3).

All genera active at 30°C in the ^{13}C-enriched RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes were also

identified in the unmanipulated fluid metatranscriptomes (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 the ^{13}C-enriched fraction of 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 ^{13}C-enriched fraction of the

RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes were also identified in the unmanipulated fluid metatranscriptomes

(Fig 3A). Across all three sites at 55°C, the major differences in taxonomy compared to the 30°C

^{13}C-enriched fraction of the 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 ^{13}C-enriched fraction of 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

^{13}C-enriched 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 ^{13}C-enriched 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 ^{13}C-enriched fraction of 80°C RNA-SIP metatransciptomes 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-enriched fraction in 2014 at Marker

113. Hyperthermophilic methanogens were observed at Marker 33 in the ^{13}C-enriched fraction 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 the ^{13}C-enriched

fraction of RNA-SIP experiments at **B**. 30°C, **C**. 55°C, and **D**. 80°C. Black boxes indicate the main

autotrophic taxonomic groups recovered from the ^{13}C-enriched fraction of RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes

and are drawn onto **3A** to show how these taxa make up a small proportion of the overall unmanipulated

fluid metatranscriptome to then become the key autotrophs in the ^{13}C-enriched fraction of RNA-SIP

metatranscriptomes in **3B-D.**

Metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs)

Binning of the co-assembly of all unmanipulated diffuse fluid, background, and plume metagenomes from Fortunato *et al.*, (2018) 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) (10, Table S5). For a phylogenetic tree of the 120 quality-filtered bins, see Figure S7. 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)] in any individual RNA-SIP ^{13}C-enriched fraction (Fig 4, Tables S5 and S6). The taxonomy of the highly transcribed MAGs was comparable to the ORF transcript taxonomy assignments (Figs 3, 4), including groups primarily from the Aquificota, Campylobacterota, and methanogens.

Both Marker 113 and Marker 33 had *Sulfurimonas* populations (bin 41) transcribed at 30°C (Fig 4), corresponding to the higher abundance of *Sulfurimonas* transcripts observed at these vents (Fig 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 (Figs 3 and 4).

292   In general, MAGs expressed a higher proportion of their coding genomes in the 80°C

293   experiments, compared to the other temperatures. *Thermovibrio* bins (bin 320 and bin 374) were

294   transcribed across all 80°C experiments, matching the high abundance of the genus in the

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

296   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 ^{13}C-enriched fraction of RNA-SIP experiments. Percent of coding genome

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

Functional attributes of ^{13}C-enriched active autotrophs

To determine how autotrophs in the ^{13}C-enriched fraction of RNA-SIP experiments

acquired energy while taking up labeled bicarbonate, we identified transcripts for key genes

involved in oxygen, nitrogen, methane, hydrogen, sulfur, and carbon fixation pathways, and

compared those to the unmanipulated fluid metatranscriptomes (Fig 5, Table S7). 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 (Fig

5), whereas some genes were transcribed in the ^{13}C-enriched fraction of the RNA-SIP

metatranscriptomes 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 S8), 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

S8).

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 [13]C-

enriched fraction of the 30°C RNA-SIP experiments as compared to 55 and 80°C (Fig 5).

Normalized counts of *cco* peaked at 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 S8).

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

all the ^{13}C-enriched fraction of the RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes (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) (Figs 5 and S8), 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 S8).

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

conditions and *sox* in aerobic conditions (31). 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 (32, 33). Anemone had the highest H_2S concentrations

(Table 1) as well as transcription of genes related to sulfur metabolism compared to the other two

vents (Fig 5). 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 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* (Fig S8). While *sox* transcripts were present in

unmanipulated fluids at all three vents, activity of this gene in the ^{13}C-enriched RNA-SIP

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

Sulfurovum, and *Sufurimonas* (Table S8).

The selected marker genes for methanogenesis were transcribed in the unmanipulated fluid

samples from Marker 113 and Marker 33 but were overall absent at Anemone (Fig 5).

Transcription of methanogenic metabolic genes was highest in the ^{13}C-enriched RNA-SIP

metatranscriptomes from 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 (Fig S8).

The five chosen hydrogenase marker genes were in all unmanipulated fluid

metatranscriptomes (Fig 5). Notably, throughout all sites and all years, the ^{13}C-enriched

transcriptional profiles from 80°C RNA-SIP experiments 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 (32). Transcripts for *hydAB* in the 30°C and 55°C

experiments belonged to diverse Campylobacterota, predominantly *Sulfuricurvum* (22,883 TPM,

Table S8), 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 S8). F420-non-reducing

hydrogenase (*mvh*, *vhu*, *vhc*) used by methanogens was primarily at Marker 113 and 33 at 55°C

and 80°C. Some of these hydrogenase marker genes were among the top 30 genes transcribed in

the respective temperatures in the dataset (Fig S8).

Across all ^{13}C-enriched RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes at 30°C and 55°C, most of the

carbon fixation was via the reductive tricarboxylic acid (rTCA) cycle (Fig 5), with high

transcription of rTCA cycle marker genes attributed to Campylobacterota (Table S8). 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 S8). Eight genes involved in the rTCA/TCA cycles were among the 30

most abundant genes transcribed at each temperature (Fig S8). At Marker 113 (2013) and Marker

33 (2014; Tables S7 and S8), in experiments at 80°C when methanogens were active, transcripts

for the reductive acetyl-coa (Wood-Ljungdahl) pathway were also abundant, including Wood-

Ljungdahl pathway genes (*coo, acs*) attributed to *Methanocaldococcus*.

Figure 5. Normalized abundance of non-rRNA transcripts annotated in the unmanipulated diffuse fluid metatranscriptomes ("MetaT") and ^{13}C-enriched fractions of RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes for key marker genes involving oxygen, nitrogen, sulfur, methane, hydrogen, and carbon fixation. Bubble sizes represent the transcripts per million reads (TPM) attributed to each marker gene.

Differential Expression Analysis of ^{13}C-enriched Transcripts

Differential expression analyses using the RNA-SIP ^{13}C-enriched transcriptional profiles were conducted to determine statistical differences in transcription across experimental conditions

without bias towards any specific functional annotations. Due to the absence of an untreated

control in our dataset, an iteration of differential expression analysis was used that does not require

an untreated control; instead, expression profiles were compared to a baseline "expected"

transcription calibrated to each comparison of interest (34-38). In this study, comparisons were

made across temperatures within each vent, across temperatures among the three different vents,

and between years within each vent (see Methods and Supplementary Methods; 34-38). Across all

^{13}C-enriched RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes, 656 unique transcripts were observed to be

significantly differentially expressed (SDE) 1520 times with an adjusted p-value of <0.05 (Table

S9). Only genes that had a padj < 10^{-3} and $\log_2$ fold-change $\geq |2|$ will be discussed.

When comparing across temperatures within each vent, the highest number of transcripts

were significantly differentially expressed (483 unique genes SDE 1030 times, Fig 6, Table S10).

The baseline for this comparison was the average expression of all ^{13}C-enriched RNA-SIP

metatranscriptomes (n=21; Table 2). Within Marker 113, annotated transcripts with the greatest

differences in expression across temperatures included gene transcripts for hydrogen metabolism,

nitrate reduction, and carbon fixation (Fig 6A). At Marker 113, as RNA-SIP experimental

temperature increased, the differentially expressed hydrogenase transcripts in the ^{13}C-enriched

fraction shifted from quinone-reactive Ni-Fe hydrogenases (*hyd*) being overexpressed at 30°C and

55°C and underexpressed at 80°C, to Ni-Fe hydrogenase (group 1) (*hya*, *hyb*) being overexpressed

at 80°C and underexpressed at 30°C. The hydrogenases *mvh*, *vhu,* and *vhc*, utilized in

methanogenesis, were also underexpressed at 30°C.

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

temperatures included transcripts related to carbon fixation and hydrogen, methane, nitrogen, and

sulfur metabolism (Fig 6B). At 55°C, Calvin-Benson-Bassham (CBB) cycle genes *rbc* and *cbb*

were underexpressed. The hydrogen metabolism genes *hyd*, *hya*, and *hyb* followed the same

pattern of differential expression as at Marker 113. At all temperatures at Anemone, transcripts for

genes involved in oxygen-sensitive methanogenesis (*mvh*, *vhu*, *vhc; frh*, *fdh*, and *hdr*) were

underexpressed. Nitrate reduction gene *nap* was underexpressed at 80°C, while the nitrite

reduction gene *nrf* was overexpressed at 55°C. Finally, sulfur metabolism genes for

polysulfide/thiosulfate reduction (*phs*, *psr*) were underexpressed at 80°C and overexpressed at

55°C (Fig 6B).

There were more differentially expressed transcripts across temperature within Marker 33

than the other vents, reflecting the greater number of metatranscriptomes in the dataset (n=9 [13]C-

enriched RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes, Table 2). These included transcripts for hydrogen,

methane, nitrogen, and sulfur metabolism (Fig 6C). Marker 33 had the same pattern for differential

expression of hydrogenases *hyd*, *hya*, and *hyb* as both Marker 113 and Anemone. A gene for

methanogenesis, *frh*, was underexpressed at 55°C. Marker 33 had the same genes differentially

expressed in the same pattern as Anemone for nitrogen and sulfur metabolism.

Figure 6. Volcano plots showing the $\log_2 FC$ (degree of differential expression) across experimental temperatures at each vent **A.** Marker 113, **B.** Anemone, and **C.** Marker 33. Colored and labeled points correspond to genes involved in carbon fixation, hydrogen, methane, nitrogen, oxygen, and sulfur metabolism that had a padj $< 10^{-3}$ and $\log_2 FC > |2|$ [padj; p-value adjusted for multiple tests using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure to control the false discovery rate (FDR)].

When comparing across vents by temperature (Fig S10), 240 transcripts were significantly differentially expressed 329 times, using a baseline expression of normalized transcript counts of all ^{13}C-enriched RNA-SIP metatranscriptomes within each temperature (n=6 for 30°C, n=8 for 55°C, and n=9 for 80°C; Table 2). This comparison revealed SDE transcripts for genes related to hydrogen and nitrogen metabolism. At 30°C, nitrate and nitrite reduction genes *nap* and *nir* were overexpressed only at Marker 113, while nitrate/nitrite reduction genes *nar*, *nxr* were overexpressed at Marker 33 (Fig S10, Table S11). The greatest number of significantly differentially expressed transcripts was observed at 30°C. None were identified at 55°C, and only three transcripts were significantly differentially expressed in the 80°C experiments.

In a comparison between 2013 and 2014 within each vent, 114 unique genes were significantly differentially expressed 161 times (Fig S11, Table S12). The baseline expression for

this analysis was the same that was used for the across vents by temperature comparison, but the

contrast in DESeq2 was switched to time instead of temperature (see Methods). Most SDE genes

were overexpressed at Marker 113 and Marker 33 in 2013, including a Wood-Ljungahl pathway

carbon fixation gene (*cdh*) and methanogenesis hydrogenase genes *mvh*, *vhu*, and *vhc* at Marker

33 and several other methanogenesis genes at both Marker 113 and 33. For Figures with additional

significantly differentially expressed genes coded and annotated by general functional categories,

see Figures S9, S10 (D-F), and S11 (D-F).

DISCUSSION

In this study, we experimentally manipulated venting fluids to target subseafloor microbes

under variable temperature 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 RNA-SIP experiments from three spatially

separated vents in two consecutive years and hypothesized that the subseafloor autotrophic

microbial population structure at each site and temperature 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 and build 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 (found at all sites, regardless of vent geology), 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 utilization 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.

All ^{13}C-enriched fractions of the 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 likely energy-rich, warm subseafloor conditions, based

on both cultivation experiments from Axial (39) as well as failed RNA-SIP experiments without

hydrogen enrichment (8). Along with temperature of incubation, this likely explains why these

common deep ocean taxa are not heavily represented in the ^{13}C-enriched 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). These 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 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 (40) 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. ^{13}C-enriched transcripts for

methanogenesis, an anaerobic metabolism, 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 (Fig S8). 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 ^{13}C-enriched transcripts were not included in the

top 30 expressed genes (Fig 5 and S8), and were overall significantly underexpressed compared to

other sites, likely due to the more oxic conditions measured at this site (Figs 1 and 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). ^{13}C-enriched 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 overexpressed 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 (Tables 1 and S1), 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 quinone-reactive Ni-Fe hydrogenase at Anemone, include *Cetia, Nautilia*, and *Hydrogenimonas*; the latter is known to utilize oxygen as a terminal electron acceptor (41).

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 indicated that some vents at Axial Seamount host the same populations of microorganisms, agnostic of vent geology (basalt vs. sulfides) or geochemistry (Fig 4). Previous studies (e.g. 9-10, 16, 42) determined that established subseafloor microbial communities are mostly restricted by local vent fluid geochemistry and physical structuring of the site. For example, Fortunato *et al*., (2018) showed

MAGs identified as mesophilic and thermophilic methanogens were restricted mainly to Marker

113 and not Marker 33 or Anemone. This result is connected to both vent chemistry (hydrogen,

methane concentrations) and physical mixing, allowing for a more stable subseafloor community

compared to other vents (10). However, our results show this may not be true for all 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, 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 (43). 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 (44), our MAG

analyses indicated that bins taxonomically identified as *Hydrogenimonas* and *Nautilia* 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

S13).

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* (Figs 3 and 5, Table S8). Desulfurobacteriaceae bin 324

was present at all vents in 2014 and was found to transcribe the hydrogenase maturation gene *hypF*

(Table S13). *Thermovibrio* bin 374, found at all vents in 2013 and 2014, transcribed numerous

hydrogenases, including an F420-non-reducing hydrogenase, hydrogenase maturation gene *hypF,*

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

S13). 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 among methanogens and the cosmopolitan, hydrogenotrophic sulfur and

nitrate reducers of the Aquificota likely occurs in the subseafloor at temperatures >50°C (45-47).

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 (48-50). Cultivation

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

K_s than *Methanocaldococcus* (30 µM vs. 67 µM; 39, 46, 47). 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 (45). 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 versus 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 (45). 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 (28).

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 ^{13}C-enriched 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 S12). 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, *Sulfurimonas* only

transcribed the cytochrome c oxidase gene, *cbb$_3$*-type (*ccoNOPQ*) and no other genes for

alternative electron acceptors suggestive of a metabolism of oxygen reduction and hydrogen

oxidation (Figs 5 and S12, Table S8). 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 (51). In our experiments,

Hydrogenimonas were more abundant at all sites at 55°C compared to 30°C.

However, at Marker 33, *Sulfurimonas* and *Hydrogenimonas* were present in nearly equal

proportion in the 30°C transcriptional profiles for both years. Both taxa utilize the same electron

acceptors, except for sulfur compounds and thrive in microaerophilic conditions (Fig S12, Table

S13; 51-53) The presence of oxygen up to 52°C at Marker 33, closer to the growth optimum of

Hydrogenimonas, suggests 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 three spatially separated

diffuse vents over two 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

among vents, 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 hydrogen 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.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sample collection

Axial Seamount (Fig S1) 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 expandable plastic containers, and 3 L was filtered through 0.22 μm Sterivex filters (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) for metagenomic sequencing only.

The Hydrothermal Fluid and Particle Sampler (HFPS; 27) and Large Volume Water Sampler (LVWS; 54) 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) on the seafloor 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 the 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 a 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, which covers a

temperature range from 2°C to 30°C. All 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, Fig 1, Table S2). Oxygen increases significantly

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

RNA-SIP experimental procedures

Carboys and Tedlar bags were recovered from the ROV and brought to the shipboard lab,

where filling into evacuated bottles began immediately. Both were kept at ambient temperature

during filling and remained sealed to minimize oxygen exposure, although some likely occurred.

The Tedlar bag was housed in a water filled plastic cylinder for collection. As the bag was emptied

during bottle filling, additional water was pumped into the cylinder to keep pressure on the bag

and minimize outgassing. The time between ROV recovery and experimental set-up was less than

1 hour. 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.

Due to limitations in the amount of fluid able to be collected (4 to 5 L), no biological replicates

were conducted. 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 measured

using pH paper and then adjusted to vent fluid pH (<6.5) by adding 1–2.5 mL of 10% HCl. The

headspace was filled with pure H_2 gas using a syringe in the quantity of 20 mL (1698 μmol/kg) for

each 500 mL bottle and 60 mL (2547 μmol/kg) for the 1L 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). Filtration was completed in less than 30 min, and Sterivex filters were immediately

preserved in RNALater (Ambion) and frozen at −80°C.

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

Supplementary Methods. 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

Supplementary Methods.

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, 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-S5), two RNA fractions were

combined for library construction.

Metagenomic bioinformatic analyses

All metagenomic libraries were constructed as described in the Supplementary Methods.

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

in 2015 (Table S3; 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; 55), quality controlled using FastQC (v0.11.9; 56), and quality results were

aggregated across samples into a single report using MultiQC (v1.12; 57). These initial trimming

and quality control steps were done using the qc-trim Snakemake pipeline

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

combined using the cat (concatenate) 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

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

IDBA_UD (v1.1.3), using a max kmer size of 120 (58; https://github.com/loneknightpy/idba).

Contig and scaffold quality was evaluated using MetaQUAST (v5.0.2; 59), 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 Table

S3. Open reading frame (ORF) information from the IMG/ER annotation was extracted using a

python script 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; 60). 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). Additionally,

eukaryote and virus hits were filtered out of the taxonomy file. Before filtering, there were

5,432,185 contigs classified as eukaryotes or viruses, and after filtering, the classified contig count

was 5,309,746. As a percentage of the classified contigs in the concatenated metagenomic

assembly, this results in 2.25% of the total, meaning most hits belonged to prokaryotes. 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 (61, 62), 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; 63) with parameters --min-contig-len = 200, --presets = "meta-sensitive". Assembly

statistics were checked using MetaQUAST (v5.0.2; 59). The resulting assembly had 2,318,625

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

= 280,659 bp. 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 Table S3.

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 versus 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; 64) was used to generate metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs).

The co-assembly was first indexed using the bwa index within BWA mem (v7.17; 65) and then

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

Samtools (v1.13; 66). 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 a minimum

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

bins and provide an optimized bin set (v1.1.7, 67). Bins were taxonomically classified using

GTDB-tk (v2.1.1; 68).

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

removing redundant bins using DAS Tool (v1.1.7; 67), 120 bins remained with 45 having < 10%

contamination and being >70% complete (Table S5). 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 S6) in any individual RNA-SIP ^{13}C-enriched metatranscriptome fraction.

Metatranscriptomic bioinformatic analyses

Metatranscriptomic libraries from unmanipulated fluids were constructed as described in the

Supplementary Methods. In total, there were 84 metatranscriptome samples processed: 6

metatranscriptomes from unmanipulated fluids at each vent in 2013 and 2014 and 78 RNA-SIP

metatranscriptomes (Tables S3). A pipeline containing the code used to process

metatranscriptomes is located here: https://github.com/corporeal-snow-albatross-

5/Axial_Metatranscriptome. 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; 69), which is a program used to combine fastq files. The only

parameter set was for read length, which was 110 bp. 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; 70) was used (Table S4). The SILVA v.132 bacterial and

archaeal 16S (id85), 23S (id98), and 5S (id98) databases were used as 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 (58; https://github.com/loneknightpy/idba). rRNA

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

reference database (71). 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 (61), and bar plotting

for rRNA was done via ggplot2 (72) within tidyverse (73) 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; 60), 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 (61, 62), 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 (61).

Differential expression analysis

Metatranscriptomic (mRNA) samples from the ^{13}C-enriched 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; 60). The

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

(v1.26.1; 36) using a custom annotation database of unique genes collapsed into protein-coding

gene representatives. Due to the diversity in metagenomes, the co-assembly annotation contained

multiple targets for gene products. To reduce complexity in functional expression analyses,

protein-coding genes observed in the co-assembly were indexed 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 indexed 2,428,812 genes

representing 14,942 unique genes collapsed into protein-coding gene representatives observed in

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

expression, we are using this consolidated database.

Differential expression analyses were conducted in R with DESeq2 (v1.38.3; 34, 35), and

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

5/Axial_Differential_Expression. 3Our experimental design included three different conditions

(vent, temperature, and year) with two or more levels (the possible values each variable can take

in the DE statistical model). For vent, there are three levels: Marker 113, Anemone, and Marker

33; for temperature there are also three levels: 30°C, 55°C, and 80°C; for year, there are two levels:

2013 and 2014. Because the number of samples across conditions was uneven (i.e. the number of

RNA-SIP experiments differed between years and across vents and temperatures, Table 2), we

implemented methodology for imbalanced designs and multi-group data, as described in Love *et*

al., 2014b (35). First, we manually defined contrasts (grouping of samples for each comparison)

to account for an imbalance of samples in the DESeq2 model design (37, 38). This allowed for the

model to identify differential gene expression without requiring an untreated control. Subsetting

the dataset minimized the observed within-group variability caused by unparameterized interaction

of variables, thereby reducing stochasticity and improving assessment of significant genes. This

permitted us to tailor baseline gene expression for each of the three comparisons: across

experimental temperatures within each vent (1030 significantly differentially expressed (SDE)

transcripts; Table S10), across vents by temperature (329 SDE transcripts; Table S11), and

between 2013 and 2014 within each vent (161 SDE transcripts; Table S12).

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 expression

of all ^{13}C-enriched metatranscriptomic fractions (n=21; Table 2). For across vent comparisons at

a single temperature (i.e. All 30°C experiments across all vents), as well as comparisons between

years 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 ^{13}C-

enriched metatranscriptomes at 30°C; 8 ^{13}C-enriched metatranscriptomes at 55°C; and 7 ^{13}C-

enriched metatranscriptomes at 80°C. Volcano plots show genes with p-values adjusted for

multiple test correction using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure to control the false discovery

rate (FDR, 35), with padj < 0.001 and log2 fold-change > |2|; only genes involved in carbon

fixation, hydrogen, methane, nitrogen, oxygen, and sulfur metabolism are shown in Figures 6,

S10A-C, and S11A-C. Plots with expanded gene function annotations are shown in Figures S9,

S10D-F, and S11D-F. For additional details about how the differential expression analysis was

conducted, see the Supplementary Methods.

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 S3.

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SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

Tables:

1. **Table S1**: Chemistry

2. **Table S2**: Oxygen data

3. **Table S3:** metatranscriptome and RNA-SIP metatranscriptome samples with accession

numbers

4. **Table S4**: SortMeRNA results: percent rRNA in the metatranscriptome samples

5. **Table S5:** MAG statistics for high completeness, low contamination bins (120 total)

6. **Table S6:** Input data to the MAGs

7. **Table S7:** Input data to the bubble plots

8. **Table S8:** Functions represented in the bubble plot matched with the taxa doing them

9. **Table S9**: Table with number of SDE genes by condition

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 the 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 in Lueders, 2010 (25; Equation 1). RNA was precipitated with

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

(25). 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 (74). 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, 29, 30; Figs S3-S5).

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

$$y = -1893.9820x^2 + 5230.8018x - 3609.6804$$

Metagenomic and Metatranscriptomic Library Construction

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

Huber (2016) (8). Briefly, 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

the 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 (75) and (76). 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. RNA was extracted using the mirVana miRNA isolation kit (Ambion).

Ribosomal RNA removal, cDNA synthesis, and metatranscriptomic library preparation was

carried out using the Ovation Complete Prokaryotic RNA-Seq 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.

1012

Differential Expression Analysis

Defining contrasts for differential expression

1013

1014

DESeq2 statistically compares abundances of genes across experimental conditions (34).

A common implementation of DESeq2 is for the quantitative analysis of RNA-seq data to test the

null hypothesis that gene expression is unchanged between two groups (34, 35, 37). However,

DESeq2 can also robustly interpret experimental designs with multiple variables and/or high

within-group variability in gene expression and imbalanced sample replication. In this study, we

examined how temperature, time, and/or the vent's unique chemistry affect expression patterns

and metabolisms of chemoautotrophs. Since all of the data examined for differential expression

are from ^{13}C-incubated samples, it would be erroneous to consider the unmanipulated fluids as the

control for each of these models because that does not allow us to disentangle the interaction of

^{13}C-isotope spike + incubation temperature + incubation time as an influence on the expression

profiles. We customized our input and models to reduce stochasticity in gene dispersion estimates,

accommodate the three conditions (vent, temperature, and year) with multiple levels, and address

specific hypotheses about chemoautotrophy in these vents.

For example, to explore differential gene expression in chemoautotrophs at 80°C due to

vent chemistry (i.e. between Marker 113, Marker 33, and Anemone), we subset the data to reduce

variability in modeled gene dispersion estimates as a result of temperature (i.e. remove the 30°C

and 55°C profiles), and remove the interaction effect of time by considering as replicates the vent-

specific samples across different years incubated at 80°C. In this examination, the baseline

'expected' gene expression profile is calculated from the ^{13}C-enriched samples incubated at 80˚C

(n=7).

When determining differential expression due to incubation temperature in each vent, we still aimed to be able to compare these results between vents. To enable these comparisons, we used all 21 of the ^{13}C-enriched samples to estimate gene baseline expression. Then in the model, we removed year as a variable, subset the dataset by vent, and allowed for temperature to vary. These contrasts can then be built for each comparison of interest as described in the main manuscript and Methods (37).

Sample "replicates"

For the vent-specific across-temperature comparisons, we considered timepoints and different years as 'replicates' (collapsing ^{13}C-enriched metatranscriptomes by time). For the across-vents, temperature-specific comparisons, we collapsed ^{13}C-enriched metatranscriptomes by time again. For the within-vent, within-temperature, across years comparison, we considered timepoints of ^{13}C-enriched metatranscriptomes as replicates.

Choice of baseline

As noted, a baseline of the unmanipulated metatranscriptomic expression was not used, because it would not accurately capture comparisons of an isotope-spiked sample across temperature and between years. Instead, a baseline (grouped by specific comparison) of averaged ^{13}C-enriched transcript abundance for each condition was chosen (13H only), instead of an average of ^{12}C-light control transcripts + ^{13}C-enriched transcripts (13H + 12L) or the average of only ^{12}C-light transcripts (12L only) from the RNA-SIP experiments. These normalized expression analyses support the determination to use only ^{13}C-enriched samples in our DE contrasts, since the patterns (number of SDE genes and in which direction) in each comparison are not substantially changed when we choose a different contrast (13H vs 13H + 12L), and 13H contrasts produced a slightly higher number of SDE genes than the 13H + 12L baseline.

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