## Untapped microbial composition along a horizontal oxygen gradient in a Costa Rican volcanic influenced acid rock drainage system

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#### 31 Abstract

32 Based on the analysis of 16S rRNA gene metabarcoding, here we report the shift in the microbial community 33 structure along a horizontal oxygen gradient (0.40-6.06 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) in a volcanic influenced acid rock drainage (VARD) 34 environment, known as San Cayetano (Cartago, Costa Rica; pH =2.94-3.06, sulfate ~0.87-1.19 g L<sup>-1</sup>, iron ~35-61 35 mg L-1). This VARD is dominated by microorganisms involved in the geochemical cycling of iron, sulfur and 36 nitrogen; however, the identity of the species changes with the oxygen gradient along the river course. The anoxic 37 spring of San Cayetano is dominated by a putative anaerobic sulfate-reducing Deltaproteobacterium as well as 38 sulfur-oxidizing bacteria (such as Acidithiobacillus or Sulfobacillus), which favor the process of dissolution of 39 sulfide minerals and oxidation of H<sub>2</sub>S. In oxic conditions, aerobic iron-oxidizers (Leptospirillum, Acidithrix, 40 Ferritrophicum, Ferrovum) and heterotrophic bacteria (Burkholderiaceae Betaproteobacterium, Trichococcus, 41 Acidocella) were identified among others. Thermoplasmatales archaea closely related to environmental phylotypes 42 found in other ARD/AMD niches were also found throughout the entire ecosystem. This work describes the 43 changes in bacterial diversity, and possible metabolic activities occurring along a horizontal oxygen gradient in a 44 volcanic influenced acid rock drainage system.

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### 47 Introduction

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49 Water bodies with elevated metal content and very high acidity are found throughout the world as the result of 50 volcanic activity and/or biotic/abiotic processes as in acid rock drainage (ARD) sites. In ARD environments, water 51 emerges from underground having a low pH value and remarkable amounts of chemical species such as iron, 52 sulfate and other metals (Baker and Banfield 2003; Johnson et al. 2009; Sánchez-Andrea et al. 2011; Arce-53 Rodriguez et al. 2019). Most of the studied ARD ecosystems in the world have been caused by human activity, 54 especially mining processes. The anthropogenic influence modifies the geology, hydrology and biology of the 55 ARD, making difficult to pinpoint the inherent chemical and natural microbiological conditions of these sites. It is 56 therefore of great interest to study ARD ecosystems with no history of anthropogenic influence (*i.e.* no mining). 57 Some works on the chemistry and microbiology of natural ARD systems include the Pastoruri Glacier area in 58 Huascarán National Park (Perú) (González-Toril et al. 2015), the Antarctic landmass (Dold et al. 2013), the 59 Río Sucio (Braulio Carrillo National Park, Costa Rica) (Arce-Rodríguez et al. 2017) and the Río Tinto, 60 located at the Iberian Pyrite Belt (IPB) of Spain (González-Toril et al. 2003; López-Archilla et al. 2004; García-

Moyano et al. 2012; Sánchez-Andrea et al. 2012). In the latter case, although the river and its source are located 61 62 on a site that has been mined for thousands of years, it is believed by some authors that the conditions of extreme 63 acidity and heavy metal pollution along the river are due to natural processes that were operative before mining in the region started five thousand years ago (Fernández-Remolar, Rodriguez and Gomez 2003; Amils, Fernández-64 65 Remolar and the IPBSL Team 2014). Due to its conditions, it is a good consensus that Rio Tinto should be 66 considered a study model of ARD environments. On the other hand, the extreme acidity environments produced 67 by discharge of the products of volcanic or hydrothermal activity (e.g. H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation or SO<sub>2</sub> reaction with water) 68 into water bodies like lakes and rivers, share most of their natural composition with that of ARD sites and are of 69 interest because they can be unequivocally assigned to natural causes (Urbieta et al. 2015, Arce-Rodríguez et al. 70 2017). Thus, low pH values due to sulfuric acid and high metal content, especially iron, are a common factor to 71 both ARD and volcanic influenced water bodies.

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73 From a microbiological point of view, the common factor in natural ARD and volcanic environments is the 74 presence of iron- and sulfur-oxidizing bacteria. For example, in the Pastoruri Glacier area the presence of 75 Acidithiobacillus, a sulfur- and iron-oxidizing acidophilic bacterium, was detected (González-Toril et al. 2015). Dold 76 et al. (2013) reported the formation of an ARD system in the Antarctic landmass due to the activity of psychrophilic 77 acid mine drainage microorganisms found in cold climates, specifically Acidithiobacillus ferrivorans and 78 Thiobacillus plumbophilus. In Costa Rica, a country with an important volcanic influence (Castellón et al. 2013) and tropical climatic conditions, Arce-Rodríguez et al. (2017) reported that Río Sucio (a pristine ARD), is 79 80 dominated by Gallionella spp. and other chemolithoautotrophic iron- and sulfur-oxidizing bacteria. Studies in Rio 81 Tinto revealed that eighty percent of the water column's bacterial species corresponds to only three bacterial 82 genera: Leptospirillum, Acidithiobacillus and Acidiphilium, all involved in iron cycling (González-Toril et al. 2003, 83 2010). Minor levels of other iron-oxidizing bacteria such as Ferrimicrobium, Acidimicrobium and Ferroplasma have 84 also been detected in Rio Tinto.

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In this work, we investigated the microbiological characteristics of the source and early course of an ARD riverine environment that has a contribution of sulfuric acid by volcanic activity as well as associated chemical species product of rock dissolution processes. This volcanic influenced acid rock drainage (VARD), known as San Cayetano Creek is located in a private farm northeast of Irazu volcano (Cartago, Costa Rica) (Fig. 1). Due to its location within a private property and difficult access this site has seen little human influence. This acid stream has

a length of about 3 km from its source to its confluence with the previously described Rio Sucio (Arce-Rodríguez *et al.* 2017) but is only a minor tributary. Our results indicate that chemistry of San Cayetano is both the result of
 volcanic input and biological activity of iron- and sulfur-oxidizing bacteria distributed along a well-established
 oxygen gradient.

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#### 96 Materials and Methods

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#### 98 Sampling and field measurements

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100 The San Cayetano acid rock drainage system is located in a private farm in Cartago, Costa Rica. All the needed 101 permits for sampling water and sediments were requested directly to the owners of the property. In August 2016. 102 samples of water (three samples of 1 Liter each) were collected at different points along this stream (see Fig. 2). 103 SC-1 (sampling point located at the origin, 10.032308 N 83.864449 W), SC-2 (10 meters from origin), SC-3 (30 104 meters from origin), SC-4 (600 meters from origin) and SC-5 (900 meters from origin). At all sampling sites (except 105 for the rocky source SC-1, where no sediment material was observed) it was possible to collect sediment samples: 106 specifically three from the second sampling point (SC-2S1, SC-2S2, SC-2S3), three from the third sampling point (SC-3S1, SC-3S2, SC-3S3), one from the fourth sampling point (SC-4S1) and four from the fifth sampling point 107 108 (SC-5S1, SC-5S2, SC-5S3, SC-5S4). The temperature, pH and dissolved oxygen (DO) amounts were measured 109 with a dissolved oxygen meter Model 50B (Yellow Springs Instrument Company Inc, Ohio, USA). Water samples 110 for chemical analysis were collected in clean glass bottles, chilled on ice, and stored at 4 °C until analysis. 111 Samples for analysis of microbial communities were collected in clean and sterile glass bottles, and processed 112 within less than 24 h.

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#### 114 Chemical Analysis

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The water samples were analysed for major anionic and cationic species with an ion-exchange chromatograph (IC, MIC-II, Metrohm Co., Switzerland) and an inductively-coupled-plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS, Agilent 7500 instrument, Agilent Technologies, Tokyo, Japan). Samples were filtered with polycarbonate membrane filters (0.45 μm) before analysis. The anions were determined with an IC equipped with an anionic exchange resin (Metrosep A Supp 5 - 100/4.0). Operating conditions were a mobile phase at 33 °C, Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (3.2 mM) / NaHCO<sub>3</sub>

(1.0 mM) and flow rate 0.7 mL/min. The anions were identified and quantified relative to certified commercial standards (Certipur ®Anion multi-element standard I, II, Merck, Germany). For ICP-MS analysis a certified multielement stock solution (Perkin-Elmer Pure Plus standard, product number 9300233) was used. All determinations were performed in triplicates.

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#### 126 Total DNA isolation, construction of 16S rRNA gene libraries and Illumina sequencing

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128 The three water samples from each sample point (1 L each) were pooled and filtered through a vacuum system 129 under sterile conditions using a membrane filter (pore size 0.22 µm; Millipore, GV CAT No GVWP04700). To 130 prevent rupture, another filter membrane (pore size 0.45 µm; Phenex, Nylon Part No AF0-0504) was placed 131 below. The upper filter was collected and stored at -80 °C until processing. The DNA was extracted from 132 aseptically cut pieces of the filter with a DNA isolation kit (PowerSoil®, MoBio, Carlsbad, CA, USA) as described 133 by the manufacturer. Cell lysis was accomplished by two steps of bead beating (FastPrep-24, MP Biomedicals, 134 Santa Ana, CA, USA) for 30 s at 5.5 m s<sup>-1</sup>. To process the sediments, a homogeneous sample of 500 mg was 135 sampled and DNA was extracted using the same protocol. For the construction of microbial 16S rRNA amplicon 136 libraries, the V5-V6 hypervariable regions were PCR-amplified with universal primers 807F and 1050R (Bohorguez 137 et al. 2012). The barcoding of the DNA amplicons and the addition of Illumina adaptors were conducted by PCR 138 as described previously (Camarinha-Silva et al. 2014). The PCR-generated amplicon libraries were subjected to 139 250 nt paired-end sequencing on a MiSeg platform (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA).

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#### 141 Bioinformatic and phylogenetic analysis of 16S rDNA amplicon data

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143 Bioinformatic processing was performed as previously described (Schulz et al. 2018). Raw reads were merged 144 with the Ribosomal Database Project (RDP) assembler (Cole et al. 2014), obtaining overall 530,413 paired-end 145 reads. Sequences were aligned within MOTHUR (gotoh algorithm using the SILVA reference database; Schloss et 146 al. 2009) and subjected to preclustering (diffs=2) yielding the so-called operational taxonomic units (OTUs) or 147 phylotypes that were filtered for an average abundance of  $\geq 0.001\%$  and a sequence length  $\geq 250$  bp before 148 analysis. OTUs were taxonomically classified into the SILVA v132 taxonomy (Yilmaz et al. 2014) as reported by 149 the SINA classification tool (Pruesse et al. 2012). OTUs were assigned to a taxonomic rank only if their best hit in 150 the SILVA database (Pruesse et al. 2007) had an identity higher than the threshold established by Yarza et al.

(2014) for that rank (94.5% for genus, 86.5% for family, 82.0% for order, 78.5% for class and 75.0% for phylum).
Moreover, the sequences of some highly abundant OTUs were also manually examined by means of BLASTN
(Altschul *et al.* 1997) against the non-redundant and against the bacterial and archaeal 16S rRNA databases. The
statistical analyses and visualizations were performed in R (R Core Team, 2017). We used Vegan (Oksanen *et al.*2017) to calculate alpha diversity estimators, non-metric multidimensional scaling analyses, (NMDS), and the
permutational analysis of variance (Permanova) on normalized tables of OTUs (Supplementary Table S1).

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#### 158 **Results and Discussion**

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#### 160 Physicochemical analysis of San Cayetano stream

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162 The pH along the 0.9 km section of the stream studied in San Cayetano (Fig. 1) was acidic (pH of 3) (Table 1) and 163 the temperature decreased slightly when moving away from the origin (~38° C in SC-1 to ~30° C in SC-5; Fig. 2). 164 Moreover, a prominent gradient in the oxygen concentration was observed throughout the VARD: in SC-1 165 conditions were almost anoxic (0.40 mg L<sup>-1</sup>  $O_2$  corresponding to an oxygen saturation of 6.6% at the temperature 166 and pressure of the sampling site), while at the last sampling point SC-5 water has become oxic (6.06 mg  $L^{-1}$  O<sub>2</sub>; 81% O<sub>2</sub> saturation). As shown in Fig. 2, San Cayetano has its origin in a rocky outcrop within the forest where 167 168 warm underground water emerges. From there, the water flows for about 3 km to its confluence with the Rio Sucio 169 (Arce-Rodríguez et al. 2017). Near the source, very clear water with a depth of about 1.3 m flows smoothly over a 170 clean gravel riverbed, but about 20 m downriver there is a 6 m high waterfall where a light-brown microbial mat is 171 formed. From this point on, water flows faster and it is estimated to discharge at a rate of nearly 100 L/s (Baldoni 172 et al. unpublished).

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The chemical analysis of filtered samples (Table 1) revealed the presence of sulfate, iron, manganese, aluminium, chromium, zinc, arsenic and magnesium at concentrations much greater than of typical freshwater rivers; the sulfate ( $\sim$ 0.87-1.19 g L<sup>-1</sup>) and iron ( $\sim$ 35-61 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) levels were particularly high, which is characteristic of volcanic and ARD environments (Arce-Rodríguez *et al.* 2019). The low [iron]/[sulfate] ratio and the absence of precipitated iron minerals (see Figs. 2a,b) as it occurs in Rio Sucio with the iron-oxyhydroxysulfate Schwertmannite (Arce-Rodríguez *et al.* 2017), suggests that much of the sulfate is produced from volcanic sources (*i.e.*, from biotic or abiotic H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation and SO<sub>2</sub> water reaction) rather than the oxidation of pyrites or other metal sulfides. The 181 moderately high temperature (~38°C) that occurs at the origin of San Cayetano also indicates volcanic influence. 182 These observations suggest that the extreme conditions observed in San Cayetano might be produced by 183 discharge products of volcanic or hydrothermal activity into the water bodies of the river, a phenomenon well 184 described in geology ((Vaselli et al. 2010). When gases SO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S from volcanic origin are intercepted by water 185 bodies on their way to the surface, various chemical reactions might occur. For example, when SO<sub>2</sub> is discharged 186 into deep underground water bodies this can produce sulfate and acidic conditions (3SO<sub>2</sub> + 3 H<sub>2</sub>O  $\rightarrow$  2SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> + 187  $H_2O + S^\circ + 4H^+$ ) (Kusakabe et al. 2000). On the other hand, if present,  $H_2S$  may be subjected to biotic or abiotic 188 oxidation to also generate sulfate (e.g.  $H_2S + 2 O_2 \rightarrow H_2SO_4$ ). In any case, it is clear that the low [iron]/[sulfate] 189 ratio, reflects that there is a sulfate source other than the dissolution and oxidation of minerals such as pyrite, i.e. 190 from volcanic origin. For example, in Río Tinto ARD system the [Fe]/[SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>] molar ratio is 0.58 at the origin and 191 only decreases to 0.29 downstream as expected from the 0.5 ratio from oxidation of pyrite FeS<sub>2</sub>; however, in San 192 Cayetano stream, we measure far lower ratios between 0.07 at the origin and 0.07-0.12 downstream. Our ratios 193 compare well to the 0.15 and 0.06 ratios at Copahue Volcano's (Urbieta et al. 2015).

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195 Both processes (ARD or volcanic activity) produce acid that favors the dissolution of minerals (e.g. iron oxides, 196 sulfides and aluminosilicate rocks). This correlates well with the acidic pH of San Cayetano (pH 2.94-3.06) and the 197 presence of dissolved metals such as aluminum, zinc, arsenic, manganese or chromium. In summary, the 198 physicochemical parameters suggest that: (i) the selected sampling points describe a gradient of increasing 199 oxygen concentration starting at the origin with almost anoxic conditions and (ii) San Cayetano has the typical 200 chemical composition of an ARD environment but with an important contribution of sulfuric acid due to volcanic 201 processes. For that reason, we have proposed the acronym VARD (volcanic influenced acid rock drainage) to 202 describe this specific type of ARD ecosystem.

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### The concentrations of dissolved oxygen along the river shapes the microbial community of San Cayetano 205

In spite of the acidic conditions and high concentrations of sulfate, iron and toxic metals, a relatively high diversity of microorganisms was observed in the San Cayetano VARD. We identified in total 1904 OTUs (excluding singletons) from 530,310 16S rRNA gene sequences originating from 36 phyla and 177 families from both bacteria and archaea (Fig. 3 and Supplementary Table 1). According to the relative percentage of sequences, the most abundant phylogenetic groups were Gammaproteobacteria (40.2%), Euryarchaeota (10.0%), Actinobacteria (9.1%), Nitrospirae (6.4%) and Firmicutes (6.2%). However, we detected important variations between the

different sampling sites (Fig. 3). These results are consistent with the alpha-diversity estimations showing, for example, that 63% of the samples in San Cayetano presented richness values higher than 500 OTUs, and that 88% of the samples presented values of the Shannon index greater than 3 (Supplementary Figure S1).

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Despite the high abundance of microbes found in San Cayetano, the taxonomic composition of this VARD showed a remarkable abundance of unclassified microorganisms amongst the most represented OTUs, both in water and sediment samples. This was specially the case for the water samples taken at the first two sampling points, where the dissolved oxygen concentrations do not exceed 0.50 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. Nevertheless, we could detect the presence of microorganisms commonly found in ARD environments like iron-, sulfur-, sulfide- and thiosulfate-oxidizing bacteria. Furthermore, we determined significant differences in the community structure at the OTU level (Permanova, P=0.001) along the oxygen gradient.

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224 NMDS and Permanova analyses were consistent at showing the role of oxygen availability in shaping the structure 225 of the microbial communities in the VARD ecosystem (Fig. 4). We observed a clear separation of the samples 226 according to the habitat within each oxygen condition. This difference between microbial communities in the water 227 column respect to those in sediments was significant (Permanova, P=0.018). The water samples near the origin 228 (SC-1 and SC-2) that contain very little concentrations of oxygen reflect a very similar microbial community 229 amongst each other. The same situation was observed among the sediments obtained in the second sampling 230 point (SC-2S1, SC-2S2 and SC-2S3). As expected, samples from the third sampling point, containing 231 intermediate levels of oxygen, are not grouped with SC-1 and SC-2 (low oxygen) nor with SC-4 and SC-5 (high 232 oxygen). Again the sediments at this point (SC-3S1, SC-3S2 and SC-3S3) are grouped together. Finally, the water 233 samples of points four and five, as well as their respective sediments are clearly grouped. As already mentioned, 234 the last two sampling points present very similar aerobic conditions, so it is expected that the microbial community 235 in these sites will be grouped as shown by the NMDS analysis.

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As mentioned above, in the first sampling point (SC-1), which corresponds to the spring, the waters contain only 0.40 mg L<sup>-1</sup> O<sub>2</sub>. At this site, the water springs from the subsurface between the rocks. The microbial community of the water sample (SC-1 in Fig. 5 and Supplementary Table 1) is dominated by an unclassified Deltaproteobacterium (OTU\_SC0012; 14.8% of the total reads in SC-1), with high (97.2%) similarity to environmental OTUs obtained from other AMD/ARD environments such as Río Tinto, Spain (NCBI accession

242 FN862110) or the TongLing acid mine drainage and the Dexing Copper Mine in China (NCBI accessions 243 KC749174 and EF409870, respectively. Interestingly, this Deltaproteobacterium was also similar (96.8%) to the 244 uncultured phylotype K5\_62 (NCBI accession EF464599), which has been proposed to represent a novel type of 245 acidophilic sulfate-reducing bacteria (Winch et al. 2009). Given the high concentrations of sulfate that exist in the 246 origin of San Cayetano (~1.19 g L<sup>-1</sup>), the presence of microorganisms capable of using this oxyanion as the 247 terminal electron acceptor is expected. The second most abundant microorganism in the origin of San Cayetano 248 (OTU SC0019; 14.5%) corresponds to an unclassified bacterium according to our classification methodology. A 249 closer look into its sequence by means of BLAST revealed that the first 183 nucleotides of the DNA fragment 250 share 96.7% of similarity with Sulfobacillus thermosulfidooxidans, while the rest of the sequence corresponds to a 251 low complexity, GC-rich DNA region that does not match with any other sequence within the non-redundant 252 nucleotide collection (Supplementary Table S1). We, therefore, resolved to manually curate the sequence of this 253 this OTU and we reassign it within genus Sulfobacillus (Fig. 5). These bacteria are Gram-positive, moderately 254 thermophilic, facultative anaerobic (Johnson et al. 2008) acidophiles that grow in sulfurous and sulfidic 255 environments. It has been previously reported that they attach to sulfide mineral surfaces, which may promote 256 faster sulfide oxidation (Watling, Perrot and Shiers 2008). Sulfobacillus species are also involved in ferrous-iron 257 oxidation (Norris et al. 1996; Pina et al. 2010). In addition to these two highly represented genera at the origin of 258 San Cayetano, we identified other microorganisms related to acidophilic, sulfur- and iron-oxidizing bacteria, such 259 as Acidithiobacillus (OTU SC0016; 12.5%). This genus includes chemolithotrophic bacteria capable of oxidizing 260 sulfide to sulfate, coupling this reaction to ferric iron (under anoxic conditions) or oxygen (under oxic conditions) 261 reduction (Suzuki et al. 1990; Pronk and Johnson 1992). Together with Acidithiobacillus, another putative 262 chemolithotrophic sulfur oxidizer from family Hydrogenophilaceae was found in sample SC-1 (OTU\_SC0015; 263 8.9%). This organism is closely related to a group of bacteria capable to obtain energy by the oxidation of sulfur 264 compounds with oxygen or nitrate as the terminal electron acceptor, including Sulfuritortus calidifontis (93.2% of 265 similarity according to BLAST), Annwoodia aquaesulis (92.8% similarity) and Thiobacillus thioparus (92.4% 266 similarity)(Kojima, Watanabe and Fukui 2017; Boden, Hutt and Rae 2017).

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Two archaea from the order Thermoplasmatales were also detected amongst the most abundant microorganisms in the water samples from SC-1 (OTU\_SC0008; 6.6% and OTU\_SC0010; 5.0% of total SC-1 reads). Both phylotypes share high similarity to environmental OTUs detected in other AMD/ARD niches such as the Rio Tinto (NCBI accession FN862291), the hydrothermal ponds in the Copahue region in Argentina (NCBI accession 272 JX989254) or the Kamchatkan hot springs in Russia (NCBI accession JF317816). Moreover, the closest isolates 273 in both cases belong to genus Cuniculiplasma (Fig. 5 and Supplementary Table 1). Archaea from the order 274 Thermoplasmatales are considered as extreme thermoacidophiles that generally grow at pH less than 4 (Auernik, 275 Cooper and Kelly 2008). Specifically, Cuniculiplasma is classified as a facultative anaerobic, organotrophic and 276 mesophilic whose only isolate (C. divulgatum) was obtained from acidic streamers formed on the surfaces of 277 copper-ore-containing sulfidic deposits in south-west Spain and North Wales, UK (Golyshina et al. 2016). Other 278 species of order Thermoplasmatales such as Thermoplasma acidophilum (Yasuda et al. 1995), Thermoplasma 279 volcanium (Segerer et al. 1988), Thermogymnomonas acidicola (Itoh, Yoshikawa and Takashina 2007), and 280 Picrophilus torridus (Schleper et al. 1995; Serour and Antranikian 2002) have been obtained from solfataric 281 hydrothermal areas or acidic streamers containing sulfidic deposits, i.e. sulfur-rich environments. Thus, it is likely 282 that the two Thermoplasmatales OTUs found at the spring waters of San Cayetano are also involved in sulfur 283 metabolism.

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285 In the second sampling point (SC-2), just 10 meters from the origin, the content of dissolved oxygen only 286 undergoes a slight increase (0.50 mg  $L^{-1}$  O<sub>2</sub>, 7.7% O<sub>2</sub>) so the microbial community does not change drastically. In 287 this site, the microorganisms found in SC-1, i.e., Acidithiobacillus (16.2%), the putative sulfate reducing 288 Deltaproteobacterium (15.9%), both Thermoplasmatales archaea (OTU\_SC0008; 10.9% and OTU\_SC0010; 289 8.9%), and the Sulfobacillus (6.9%), are maintained in a major proportion. At this sampling point, it was possible to 290 assess also the microbiota in the sediments. The most abundant microorganism in all the sediment samples at 291 SC-2 is an unclassified Anaerolineae chloroflexi bacterium (OTU SC0006) distantly related to genera Anaerolinea 292 (89.8% similar to Anaerolinea thermolimosa), Ornatilinea (88.0% similar to Ornatilinea apprima) and Caldilinea 293 (85.5% similar to Caldilinea aerophila). These genera are reported as chemo-organoheterotrophic chloroflexi, 294 which thrive in very diverse habitats such as hot spring aguifers (Grégoire et al. 2011) or anaerobic wastewater 295 sludge (Sekiguchi et al. 2003; Yamada et al. 2005). Interestingly, we could also identify the presence of Geothrix 296 in the sediments of sample SC-2 (OTU SC0021). Only one species from this genus, Geothrix fermentans, has 297 been isolated to date. It is a strict anaerobe capable to oxidize a wide variety of organic acids with ferric iron 298 serving as the sole electron acceptor (Coates et al. 1999). This organism could play a very important role in the 299 sediments of the San Cayetano ecosystem, not only by the oxidation of organic matter but also in the dissolution 300 of iron(III). By doing so, the iron(II) produced by its respiration becomes available for other iron-oxidizing bacteria 301 along the river course (i.e. Ferritrophicum spp. Leptospirillum spp., Acidithrix spp., Ferrovum spp., see below).

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303 Besides one of the Thermoplasmatales microorganism found also in the water sample (OTU SC0008), another 304 archaeon of the same order appeared as highly abundant in the sediments of SC-2 (OTU\_SC0004; Fig. 5). Albeit 305 it also belongs to an unclassified species, it shows high (99.2%) similarity to environmental OTUs obtained from 306 the Kamchatkan hot springs (NCBI accession JF317816) or the sulfuric ponds of the Tatung Volcano area in 307 Taiwan (NCBI accession FJ797335). The closest isolates from this OTU lie within the *Picrophilus* genus (90.7%) 308 similarity to both P. torridus and P. oshimae (Schleper et al. 1995). These microorganisms represent the most 309 thermoacidophilic organisms known, with the ability to survive at a pH around 0 (Schleper et al. 1995; Fütterer et 310 al. 2004). Strains of this species were first isolated from a dry solfataric field in Japan (Fütterer et al. 2004). Thus, 311 it is possible that both Thermoplasmatales archaea take some part in the metabolism of sulfur in the sediments at 312 this sampling point.

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314 At the third sampling point (30 meters from the source, after a small waterfall) there is a significant change in the 315 oxygen content (3.77 mg L<sup>-1</sup> O<sub>2</sub>; 58% O<sub>2</sub>) as well as in the microbial community. Interestingly, more than 55% of 316 the microbial community in the water sample (SC-3) is dominated by two Gammaproteobacteria: a bacterium of 317 genus Ferritrophicum (OTU SC0007; 33.2%) characterized for metabolizing iron compounds, and an unclassified 318 Burkholderiaceae (OTU\_SC0001; 25.1%)(Fig. 5). Of the genus Ferritrophicum only one species has been 319 reported, F. radicicola, which uses ferrous iron as an energy source for lithotrophic growth. It is a microaerophilic 320 bacterium isolated from a plant growing in an acid mine drainage system (Weiss et al. 2007). Thus, it is highly 321 possible that the *Ferritrophicum* from San Cayetano participates in the oxidation of dissolved ferrous iron. On the 322 other hand, representative species of Burkholderiaceae family are very abundant, occupying diverse ecological 323 niches and performing very diverse metabolic functions (e.g. nitrogen fixation, aromatic compounds catabolism, 324 etc) (Compant et al. 2008). Therefore, it is difficult to assign a specific role to this generalist Betaproteobacterium 325 in San Cayetano VARD. The Acidithiobacillus and the two Thermoplasmatales found in the waters of SC-2 were 326 also present in this sample in lower abundance.

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The sediments of SC-3 also show the presence of the same Burkholderiaceae bacterium (OTU\_SC0001) found in the water sample, as well as the Thermoplasmatales archaea (OTU\_SC0004 and OTU\_SC0008, respectively) found in the sediments of SC-2 (Fig. 5). The presence of the two archaea suggests their capacity to adapt to a wide range of oxygen conditions. In addition, we found a highly abundant Gammaproteobacterium that clusters

332 within the Acidithiobacillaceae group RCP1-48 (OTU SC0009). Members from this group have been previously 333 detected in the sediments of other AMD habitats like Rio Tinto (Sánchez-Andrea et al. 2011) or Los Rueldos 334 mercury underground mine in Spain (Mesa et al. 2017), and it has been suggested that they could have an 335 important role in the oxidation of iron and sulfur compounds (Mesa et al. 2017). Besides those microorganisms, 336 these sediments host two other highly abundant iron oxidizing-bacteria: A representative species of genus 337 Leptospirillum (OTU SC0003), and the same Ferritrophicum sp. found in the water sample. Particularly, the 338 presence of *Leptospirillum* has been widely reported in acid mine drainage (AMD) environments. They catalyze 339 the ferrous iron oxidation, accelerating iron(III)-mediated oxidative dissolution of sulfide minerals and thus the 340 formation of AMD (Goltsman et al. 2013). Due to its extraordinary characteristics, Leptospirillum species have 341 been used throughout the world in industrial bioleaching operations (Sand et al. 1992; Issotta et al. 2016). In 342 summary, at sampling point SC-3 we observe an important increase of heterotrophic and iron-oxidizing bacteria, 343 while anaerobic sulfur oxidizers drastically decrease (compared to samples SC-1 and SC-2). This observation also 344 correlates with the increase of oxygen concentration at SC-3 (see table 1 and Fig. 4).

345

346 Finally, the sampling points four and five (600 m and 900 m from the origin, respectively) have similar high oxygen 347 contents and very similar microbial composition (Figs 4 and 5). The oxygen content was 5.85 mg L<sup>-1</sup>  $O_2$  (82%  $O_2$ ) 348 and 6.06 mg L<sup>-1</sup> O<sub>2</sub> (81% O<sub>2</sub>) respectively. The microbial community in those waters is also dominated by the 349 same Burkholderiaceae bacterium found in SC-3 (36.9% in SC-4 and 30.0% in SC-5), followed by the 350 Leptospirillum sp. present in the sediments of SC-3 (18.3% in SC-4 and 11.4% in SC-5). In the third place, we 351 detected large guantities of the heterotrophic acidophile Acidithrix (OTU SC0005; 7.58% in SC-4 and 11.88% in 352 SC-5). To the best of our knowledge, Acidithrix ferrooxidans is the unique species from this genus that has been 353 described to date. This bacterium is capable to catalyze the dissimilatory oxidation of ferrous iron under aerobic 354 conditions, and the reduction of ferric iron under micro-aerobic and anaerobic conditions (Jones and Johnson 355 2015). Given the oxic nature of SC-4 and SC-5, it is presumable that the Acidithrix detected in both water samples 356 contributes to the oxidation of ferrous iron. These conditions are very appropriate also for the obligate aerobe 357 Leptospirillum sp. (see above) and for other iron-oxidizing bacteria present in these samples in minor abundance 358 (i.e. Ferritrophicum spp. and Ferrovum spp.). In addition, other heterotrophic bacteria from the genera 359 Trichococcus and Acidocella were found in the water from sampling points SC-4 and SC-5, respectively.

360

361 Finally, the sediments obtained from SC-4 and SC-5 showed a similar microbial composition (Fig. 5). The most 362 prominent organism in both samples is a Gammaproteobacterium of the genus Metallibacterium (OTU SC0002). 363 Once again, this genus has only one reported species (*M. scheffleri*) and has been very poorly studied. Among the 364 few known metabolic functions of this species, it is known that it is capable of reducing ferric iron, but does not 365 oxidize ferrous iron (Ziegler et al. 2013). We found also a large abundance of some of the microorganisms 366 identified in the water samples from sampling points SC-4 and SC-5, such as the Burkholderiaceae 367 Betaproteobacterium, Acidithrix sp., Leptospirillum sp. and Ferrovum sp. Other microorganisms found in the 368 sediments of SC-5 were a Gammaproteobacterium (OTU\_SC0013) from the uncultured group KF-JG30-C25 and 369 another Actinobacterium (OTU\_SC0020) whose closest isolate (91.4% similarity according to BLAST) is the 370 heterotrophic iron(III)-reducer Aciditerrimonas ferrireducens (Itoh et al. 2011). Specifically, members of KF-JG30-371 C25 group have been detected in AMD habitats such as the uranium mining waste pile at Johanngeorgenstadt in 372 Germany (Selenska-Pobell 2002).

373

#### 374 Conclusions

375

376 This work reports the microbiological composition of the volcanic influenced acid rock drainage known as San 377 Cayetano (northeast of Irazu volcano, Costa Rica). The low [iron]/[sulfate] ratio suggest that most of the sulfuric 378 acid in this VARD is of volcanic origin, possibly due to the disproportionation reaction of SO<sub>2</sub> and biotic or abiotic 379 H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation in the groundwater. The moderately high temperature of the water at the spring of San Cayetano is 380 also consistent with underground mixing with volcanic water. We analyzed the microbial composition of water and 381 sediment samples along 900 meters from the origin of the river. Interestingly, we found a remarkable abundance 382 of a yet not-described diversity of microorganisms amongst the most represented taxa thriving in San Cayetano 383 VARD. Nevertheless, we could also identify the presence of bacteria and archaea that, along with the chemistry of 384 the site, resembles the composition of typical ARD environments. The structure of the microbial community in San 385 Cayetano undergoes important changes as a function of the oxygen gradient observed in the distinct water 386 samples. At the origin of the river (SC-1 and SC-2), the microbial profile is dominated mainly by putative 387 anaerobic, sulfur-oxidizing microorganisms such as Sulfobacillus sp., Acidithiobacillus sp., the putative sulfate 388 reducing Deltaproteobacterium and the Hydrogenophilaceae Gammaproteobacterium. Their presence at the first 389 two sampling points, suggest that these microorganisms are likely involved in both sulfate reduction as well sulfide 390 oxidation, completing the sulfur cycle. At the third sampling point (SC-3), the oxygen content increases eight-fold

391 (from 0.40 mg L<sup>-1</sup> to 3.77 mg L<sup>-1</sup>), also generating a drastic change in the microbial community. Most of the sulfur-392 oxidizing taxa found at the origin of the river are substituted by iron-oxidizers (Ferritrophicum spp., Leptospirillum 393 sp.) and heterotrophic microorganisms (Burkholderiaceae Betaproteobacterium). After 600 meters downstream 394 from the origin of San Cayetano, the river is completely oxygenated. Consequently, the last two samples (SC-4 395 and SC-5) are totally dominated by aerobic microorganisms, mostly related to heterotrophic metabolism 396 (Burkholderiaceae Betaproteobacterium, Trichococcus sp. Acidocella sp.) or iron-oxidation (Leptospirillum sp., 397 Acidithrix sp., Ferritrophicum spp., Ferrovum spp.). Our data are consistent with the notion that the initial volcanic 398 chemistry of the aguifer is fundamentally modified by the microbial metabolism and by the increase of oxygen 399 along the river course until its confluence with the previously characterized Rio Sucio (Arce-Rodriguez et al. 2017).

400

401 Over the 900 meters course of the stream analyzed, we were able to find both aerobic and anaerobic organisms 402 carrying out many different metabolic activities (*i.e.* sulfur- and iron- oxidation/reduction, nitrogen metabolism, 403 carbon oxidation, etc.). Furthermore, these organisms have to cope with the high concentration of heavy metals 404 such as arsenic, chromium or zinc. Taking also into account the large diversity of unclassified microorganisms 405 found along San Cayetano, it is reasonable to presume that this untapped ecosystem is endowed with metabolic 406 functions and enzymatic activities with a biotechnological interest that could be further exploited. This work also contributes to the knowledge of volcanic and ARD environments in which the conditions are created only by 407 408 natural factors which contrasts with the majority of published works on ARD environments in the world which have 409 been influenced by human activity.

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413

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421

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### 578 Tables

#### **Table 1. Physical properties and chemical composition of San Cayetano.**

Property/element/ion	SC-1	SC-2	SC-3	SC-4	SC-5
Temperature (°C) / ± 0.1	38.0	38.2	37.8	32.7	29.7
pH / ± 0.1	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.0
Dissolved oxygen	0.40	0.50	3.77	5.85	6.06
(mg L <sup>.1</sup> )/ ± 0.01					
Aluminum (mg L <sup>-1</sup> ) ± 5	41	33	41	34	45
Arsenic (μg L-¹) ± 0.7	19.2	20.8	20.7	12.9	11.3
Cadmium (μg L <sup>-1</sup> )	< 0.11	< 0.11	< 0.11	< 0.11	< 0.11
Calcium (mg L <sup>-1</sup> ) ± 2	4	4	4	4	3
Chloride (mg L <sup>-1</sup> ) $\pm$ 10	246	203	227	200	222
Copper (mg L <sup>.1</sup> )	< 0.10	< 0.10	< 0.10	< 0.10	< 0.10
Chromium ( $\mu$ g L <sup>-1</sup> ) / ± 2	30	33	33	32	29
Fluoride (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	<0.09	<0.09	<0.09	<0.09	<0.09
Iron (mg $L^{-1}$ ) / ± 2	45	51	61	40	35
Magnesium (mg L-1) ± 3	58	64	64	63	59
Manganese (mg L-1) ± 0.06	1.98	2.05	1.98	2.00	2.02
Nickel (μg L-1) / ± 2	6	10	8	10	10
Nitrate (mg L-1)	< 0.10	< 0.10	< 0.10	< 0.10	< 0.10
Lead (µg L-1)	< 1.2	< 1.2	< 1.2	< 1.2	< 1.2
Potassium (mg L <sup>.</sup> 1) ± 0.6	31.8	34.2	33.4	35.0	33.8
Sodium (mg L <sup>_1</sup> ) ± 2	73	79	78	78	75
Sulfate (mg L <sup>-1</sup> ) ± 50	1190	950	883	870	874
Zinc (μg L-1) ± 10	115	109	141	119	121

#### 585 **Figure legends**

586

587 **Fig. 1 San Cayetano stream in Central Mountain Range, Costa Rica**. The San Cayetano stream is located in 588 the Central Valley, next to the Irazú volcano. This stream has a length of about 3 km to its mouth in the Rio Sucio.

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Fig. 2 Sampling points from San Cayetano stream. Water and sediment samples were taken in five places along the river: at the origin (SC-1), ten meters from the origin (SC-2), 30 meters from origin (SC-3), 600 meters from origin (SC-4) and 900 meters from origin (SC-5). As shown in the figure, between sampling points a gradient occurs in the oxygen content.

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**Fig. 3 Taxonomic composition of San Cayetano**. Relative abundance of bacterial and archaeal organisms to the phylum level. The OTUs were taxonomically classified into the RDP taxonomy as reported by the SINA classification tool, as described in Materials and Methods. The water samples at each of the sampling points are identified as SC-1 to SC-5. Sediment samples are identified with legends SC-2S1 to SC-5S4.

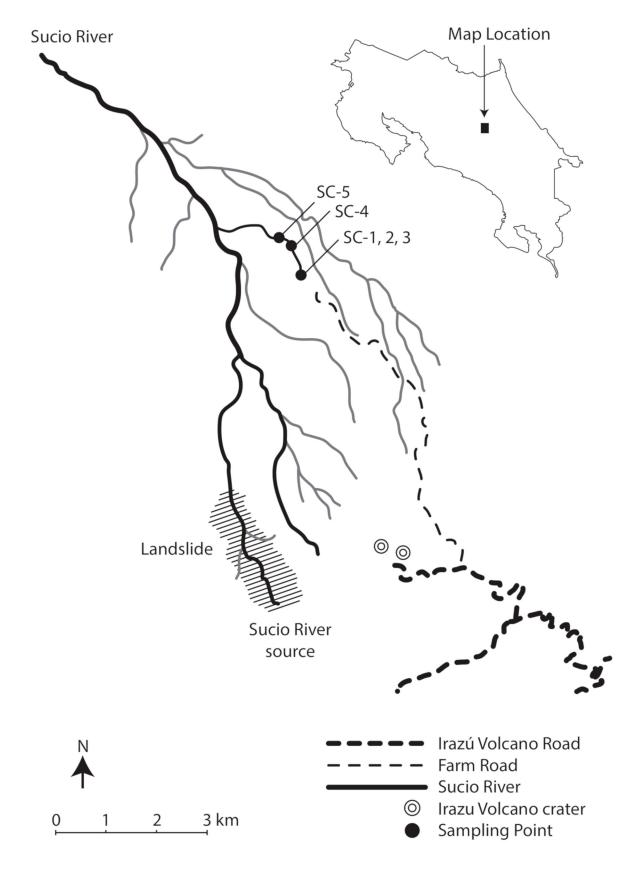
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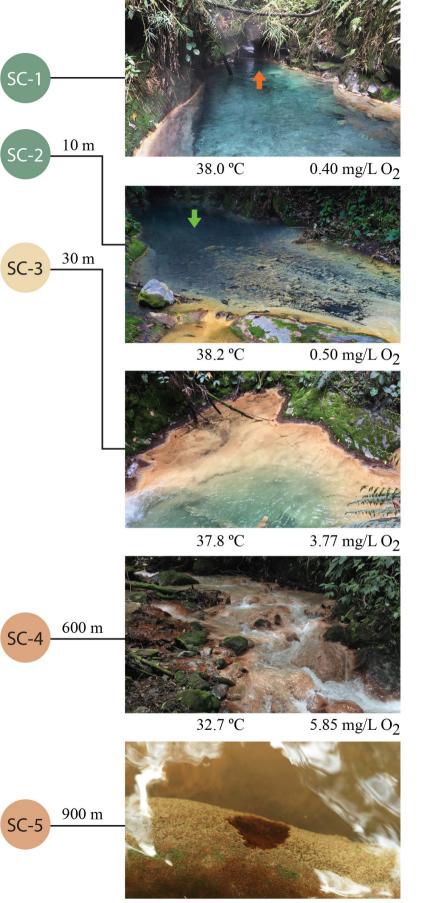
Fig. 4 Non-metric multidimensional scaling analysis of the prokaryotic communities in San Cayetano volcanic influenced acid rock drainage. A clustering of communities according to the oxygen content of the samples and also by the habitat (water column versus sediment) is shown. The NMDS and the Permanova analyses were performed with the package Vegan.

Fig. 5 Heat map representing the most abundant genera in each sample. The heat map depicts the relative percentage of 16S rRNA gene sequences assigned to each genus (y axis) across the 16 samples analysed (x axis). Square colors shifted towards black indicate higher abundance.

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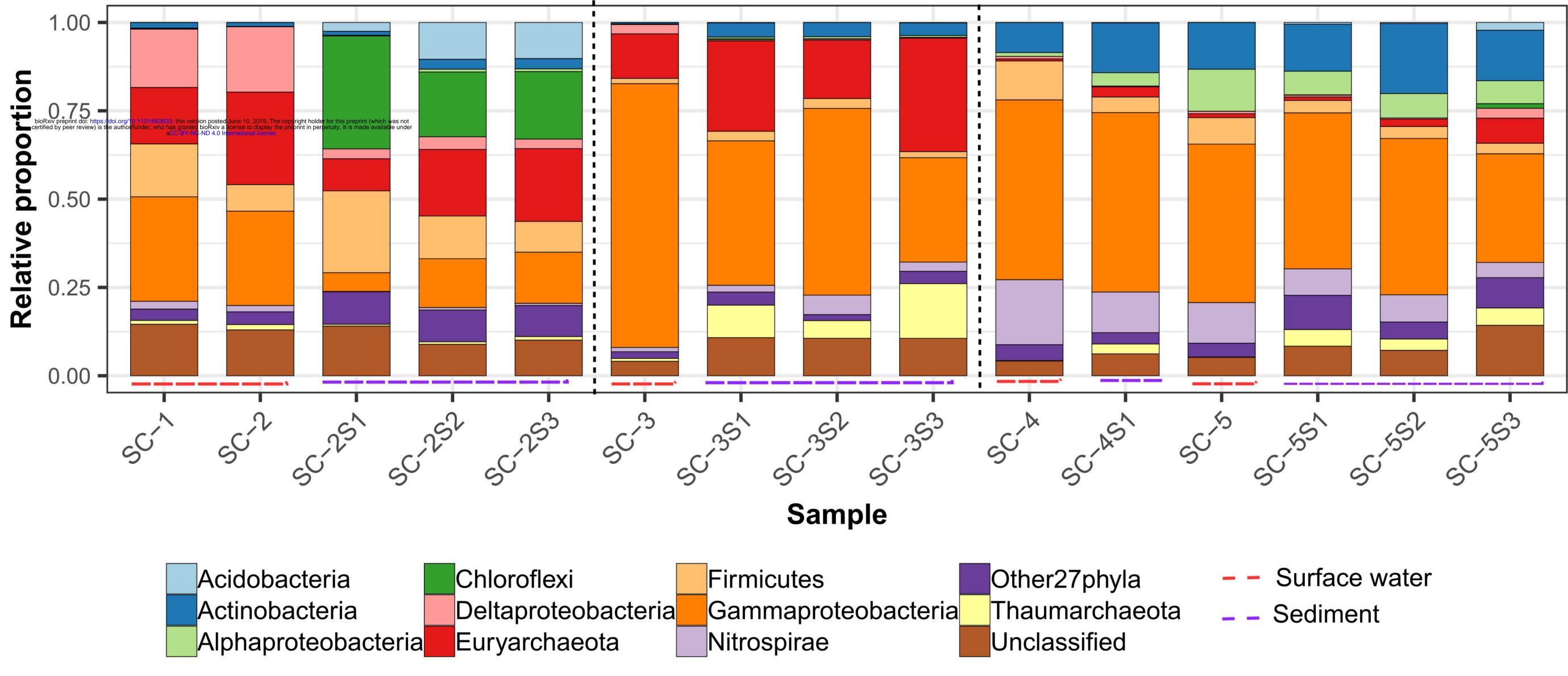


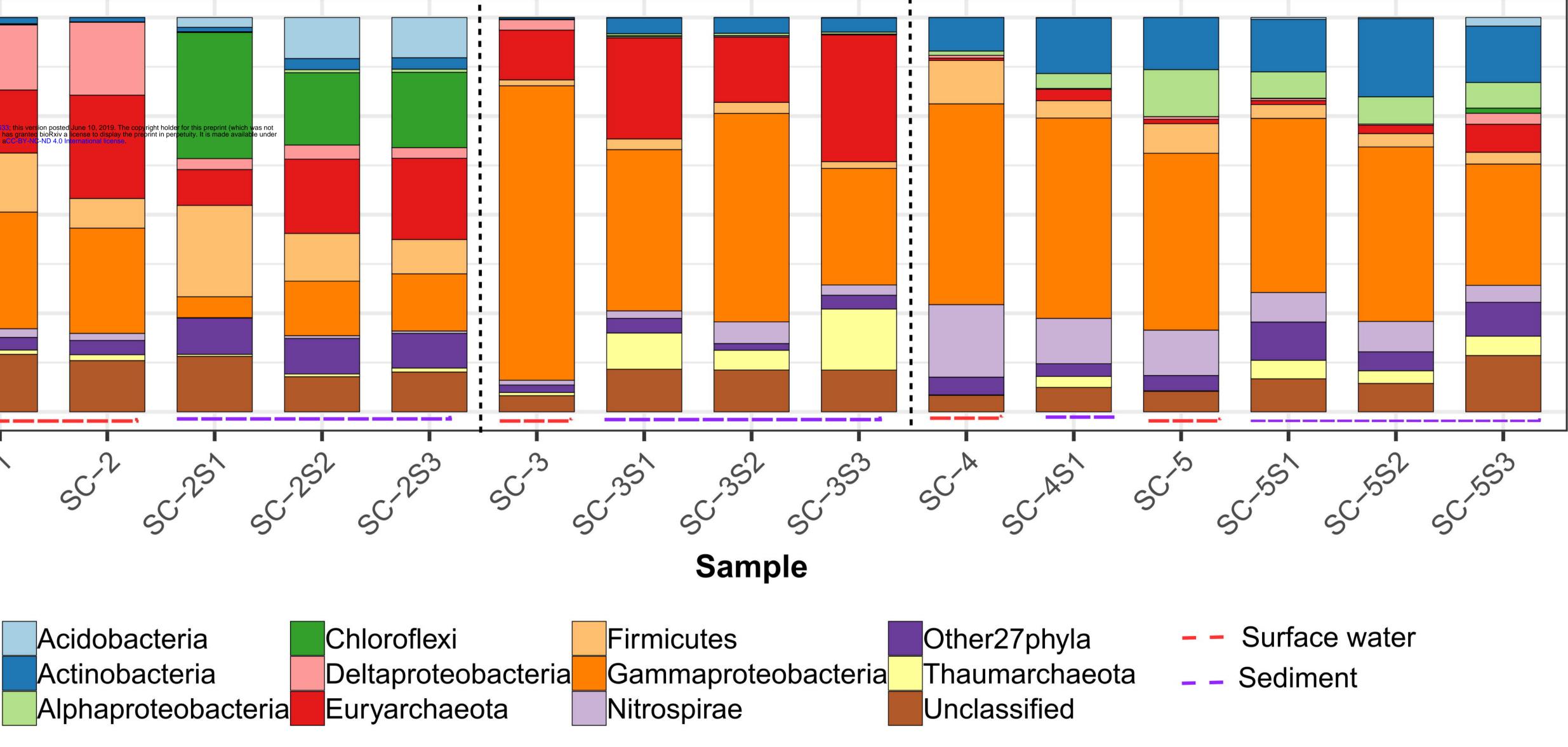


29.7 °C

6.06 mg/L O<sub>2</sub>

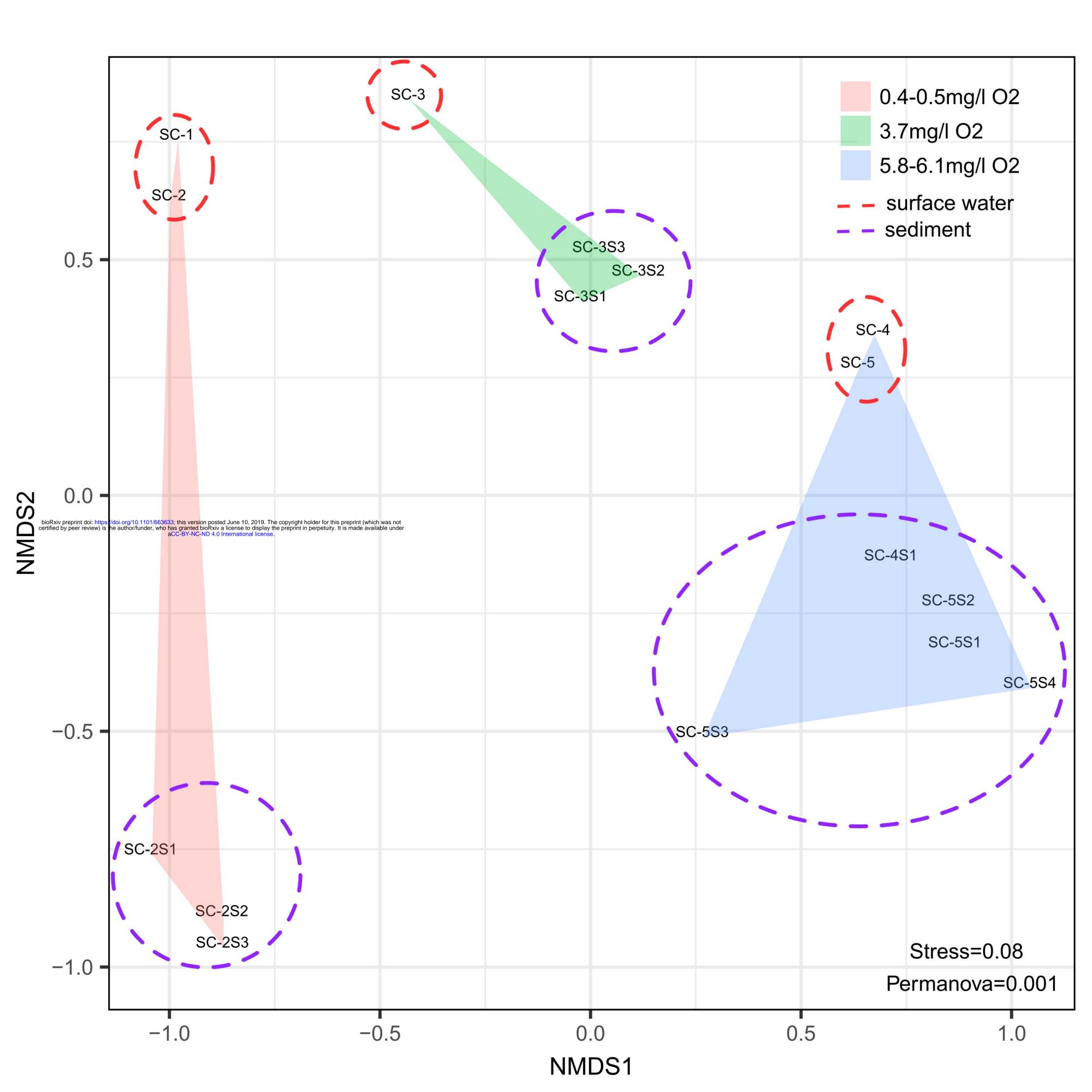
## 0.4-0.5 mg/l O2

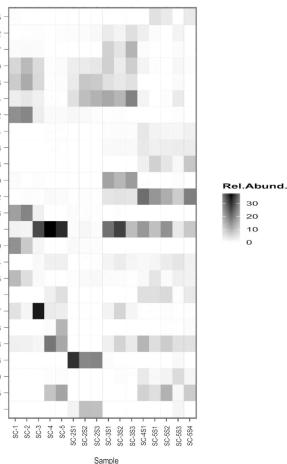




# 3.7 mg/l O2

# 5.8-6.1 mg/l O2





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