



1 **Microbial communities associated with sediments and**
2 **polymetallic nodules of the Peru Basin**

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15 **Abstract.** Industrial-scale mining of deep-sea polymetallic nodules will need to remove nodules in
16 large areas of the seafloor. The regrowth of the nodules by metal precipitation is estimated to take
17 millions of years. Thus for future mining impact studies, it is crucial to understand the role of nodules
18 in shaping microbial diversity and function in deep-sea environments. Here we investigated microbial
19 community composition based on 16S rRNA gene sequences retrieved from sediments and nodules of
20 the Peru Basin (>4100 m water depth). The nodule field of the Peru Basin showed a typical deep-sea
21 microbiome, with dominance of the classes Gammaproteobacteria, Alphaproteobacteria,
22 Deltaproteobacteria, and Acidimicrobiia. Nodules and sediments host distinct bacterial and archaeal
23 communities, with nodules showing lower diversity and a higher proportion of sequences related to
24 potential metal-cycling bacteria (i.e. Magnetospiraceae, Hyphomicrobiaceae), bacterial and archaeal
25 nitrifiers (i.e. *AqSI*, unclassified Nitrosomonadaceae, *Nitrosopumilus*, *Nitrospina*, *Nitrospira*), and
26 bacterial sequences found in ocean crust, nodules, hydrothermal deposits and sessile fauna. Sediment
27 and nodule communities overall shared a low proportion of Operational Taxonomic Units (OTU; 21 %
28 for Bacteria and 19 % for Archaea). Our results show that nodules represent a specific ecological niche
29 (i.e. hard substrate, high metal concentrations and sessile fauna), with a potentially relevant role in
30 organic carbon degradation. Differences in nodule community composition (e.g. Mn-cycling bacteria,
31 nitrifiers) between the Clarion-Clipperton Fracture Zone (CCZ) and the Peru Basin suggest that
32 changes in environmental setting (i.e. sedimentation rates) play also a significant role in structuring the
33 nodule microbiome.
34



35 **1 Introduction**

36 Polymetallic nodules (or manganese nodules) occur in abyssal plains (4000–6000 m water depth) and
37 consist primarily of manganese and iron, as well as many other metals and rare earth elements (Crerar
38 and Barnes, 1974; Kuhn et al. 2017). Nodules are potato- or cauliflower-shaped structures with typical
39 diameters of 4–20 cm and are typically found at the sediment surface or occasionally buried in the
40 uppermost 10 cm sediment horizon. The mechanisms of nodule formation are not completely
41 elucidated. The current understanding is that they are formed via mineral precipitations from bottom
42 waters (*Hydrogenetic* growth) or pore waters (*Diagenetic* growth) involving both abiotic and
43 microbiological processes (Crerar and Barnes, 1974; Riemann, 1983; Halbach et al., 1988; Wang et
44 al., 2009). The formation of nodules is a slow process that is estimated to range between thousands and
45 millions of years per millimetre growth (Kerr, 1984; Boltenkov, 2012).

46 Rising global demand for metals has renewed interests in commercial mining of deep-sea nodule
47 deposits. Mining operations would remove nodules, disturb or erode the top decimeters of sediment,
48 and create near bottom sediment plumes that will resettle and cover the seafloor (Miller et al., 2018).
49 Although the first nodules have been discovered in the 1870's (Murray, 1891), only little is known
50 about the biodiversity, biological processes and ecological functions of the nodules and their
51 surrounding sediments as specific deep-sea habitat. Major questions remain, for example as to spatial
52 turnover on local and global scales, the role of the microbial community in and around nodules, the
53 role of nodules as substrate for endemic species. Hence, there is the need to thoroughly characterize
54 baseline conditions as a requirement for any mining operations as these will require assessments of
55 impacts associated with mining.

56 Extensive and dense nodule fields are found in different areas of the Pacific and Indian deep seas.
57 Nodule accumulations of economic interest have been found in four geographical locations: the
58 Clarion-Clipperton Fracture Zone (CCZ) and the Penrhyn Basin in the central north and south Pacific
59 Ocean, respectively; the Peru Basin in the south-east Pacific; and in the center of the north Indian
60 Ocean (Miller et al., 2018). Previous work on the structure of microbial communities of nodule fields
61 by 16S rRNA gene sequencing focused on the CCZ and the central South Pacific Ocean (Xu et al.,
62 2007; Wu et al., 2013; Tully and Heidelberg, 2013; Blöthe et al., 2015; Shulse et al., 2016; Lindh et al.,
63 2017). All studies showed that polymetallic nodules harbor microorganisms that are distinct from the
64 surrounding sediments and overlying water. They indicate that nodule communities show a pronounced
65 spatial variability, but these results are so far not conclusive. Similar microbial communities were
66 observed in nodules collected at distances of 6000 km and 30 km (Wu et al., 2013; Shulse et al. 2016),
67 while Tully and Heidelberg (2013) found that nodule communities varied among sampling sites (<50
68 km). Besides, potential Mn-oxidizers and -reducers such as *Ateromonas*, *Pseudoalteromonas*,
69 *Shewanella* and *Colwellia* were proposed as a core of the nodule microbiome involved in the formation
70 of nodules (Wu et al. 2013; Blöthe et al., 2015), but they were not found in all nodules sampled so far
71 (Tully and Heidelberg, 2013; Shulse et al. 2016). The lack of knowledge on the diversity and
72 composition of microbial assemblages of other nodule provinces makes it difficult to assess whether
73 observed differences within the CCZ may reflect regional differences in environmental conditions (e.g.



74 input of organic matter, bathymetry, topography, sediment type), or in abundance and morphology of
75 nodules, or in the colonization of the nodules by epifauna and protozoans.

76 In this study we investigated the diversity and composition of bacterial and archaeal communities
77 associated with manganese nodule fields of the Peru Basin. The Peru Basin is located about 3000 km
78 off the coast of Peru and covers about half of the size of the CCZ, which is 5.000–9.000 km away. The
79 present-day organic carbon flux in this area is approximately two times higher than in the CCZ,
80 resulting in higher content of organic carbon in the surface sediments (>1% vs 0.2–0.6% in the CCZ),
81 and a shallower oxic-suboxic front (10 cm vs tens of meters sediments depth in the CCZ; Müller et al.,
82 1988; Heakel et al., 2001; Volz et al., 2018). As a consequence of differences in environmental
83 conditions (e.g. organic carbon flux, carbonate compensation depth, sediment type, topography and
84 near-bottom currents), the Peru basin and the CCZ host manganese nodules with different geological
85 features (Kuhn et al. 2017). This includes: i) nodules from the Peru Basin are often larger, with a
86 typical cauliflower shape, compared to those in CCZ that have a discoidal shape and a size of 2–8 cm
87 (Kuhn et al. 2017); ii) average nodule abundance in the Peru Basin is lower (10 kg m^{-2}) than in CCZ
88 (15 kg m^{-2} ; Kuhn et al. 2017); iii) Mn nodules from the Peru Basin are thought to be mainly formed by
89 suboxic diagenesis, whereas CCZ nodules apparently exhibit a mixture of diagenetic and hydrogenetic
90 origin (von Stackelberg 1997; Chester and Jickells 2012); iv) while Peru Basin and CCZ nodules
91 consist of the same type of mineral (disordered phyllomanganates), they have a different metal content
92 (Wegorzewski and Kuhn 2014; Wegorzewski et al. 2015).

93 An increasing number of studies and policy discussions address the scientific basis of ecological
94 monitoring in deep-sea mining, highlighting the need to identify appropriate indicators and standards
95 for environmental impact assessments and ecological management. A key aspect is avoiding harmful
96 effects to the marine environment, which will have to include loss of species and ecosystem functions.
97 The aims of this study was to assess the structure and similarity of benthic microbial communities of
98 nodules and sediments of the Peru Basin nodule province, and to compare them with those of other
99 global deep-sea sediments and nodules in the CCZ. The focus was on similarity comparisons in order
100 to investigate endemism and potential functional taxa that could be lost due to the removal of
101 manganese nodules by mining activities. To achieve this, the hypervariable 16S rRNA regions V3–V4
102 for Bacteria and, V3–V5 for Archaea were amplified from DNA extracted from nodules and
103 surrounding sediments and sequenced using the Illumina paired-end MiSeq platform. The hypotheses
104 tested were i) nodules shape deep-sea microbial diversity and functions, ii) nodules host specific
105 microbial community compared to the surrounding sediments, and iii) environmental setting and
106 nodule features impact microbial community composition.

107



108 2 Methods

109 2.1 Sample collection

110 Sediment samples and polymetallic nodules were collected as a part of the MiningImpact project of the
111 Joint Programming Initiative JPI Healthy and Productive Seas and Oceans (JPIOcean) on board of
112 R/V Sonne (expedition SO242/2; 28th of August - 1st of October 2015) in the Peru Basin around 7° S
113 and 88.5° W. Samples were collected at three sites outside the seafloor area selected in 1989 for a long-
114 term disturbance and recolonization experiment (DISCOL; Thiel et al., 2001), for this reason they were
115 called “References Sites”. Sediment samples were collected using TV-guided MULTiple Corer (TV-
116 MUC) at three stations per site (Table 1). The cores were sliced on board in a temperature-controlled
117 room (set at *in situ* temperature), and aliquots of sediment were stored at –20 °C for DNA extraction
118 and prepared for cell counts (see sections below). Manganese nodules were sampled, using a TV-
119 MUC, or a Remotely Operated Vehicle (ROV Kiel6000). The nodules were partly located at the
120 surface or buried down to 3 cm below the seafloor (bsf) with diameters of a few cm. Nodules were
121 gently rinsed with 0.22-µm filtered cold bottom seawater to remove adhering sediment, stored in sterile
122 plastic bags at –20 °C and crushed before DNA extraction in the home lab.

123 2.2 DNA extraction and sequencing

124 The nodules collected with the MUC were crushed and stored at –20 °C. From the nodules collected
125 with the ROV, only the surface layer was scraped off using a sterile spoon, and subsequently crushed
126 and frozen (–20 °C). The DNA was extracted from 1 g of wet sediment (0-1 cm layer) and from 1 g of
127 wet nodule’s fragments using the FastDNATM SPIN Kit for Soil (Q-BIOgene, Heidelberg, Germany)
128 following the manual protocol. An isopropanol precipitation was performed on the extracted DNA, and
129 DNA samples were stored at –20 °C. As control for DNA contamination (negative control), DNA
130 extraction was carried out on purified water after being in contact with sterile scalpel and plastic bag.

131 Amplicon sequencing was done at the CeBiTec laboratory (Centrum für Biotechnologie, Universität
132 Bielefeld) on an Illumina MiSeq machine. For the 16S amplicon library preparation we used the
133 bacterial primers 341F (5′-CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-3′) and 785R (5′-GACTACHVGGGTATC
134 TAATCC-3′), and the archaeal primers Arch349F (5′-GYGCASCAGKCGMGAAW-3′) and
135 Arch915R (5′-GTGCTCCCCGCCAATTCCT-3′) (Wang and Qian, 2009; Klindworth et al., 2013),
136 which amplify the 16S rDNA hypervariable region V3-V4 in Bacteria (400–425 bp fragment length)
137 and the V3-V5 region in Archaea (510 bp fragment length). The amplicon library was sequenced with
138 the MiSeq v3 chemistry, in a 2x300 bp paired run with >50,000 reads per sample, following the
139 standard instructions of the 16S Metagenomic Sequencing Library Preparation protocol (Illumina, Inc.,
140 San Diego, CA, USA).

141 The quality cleaning of the sequences was performed with several software tools. CUTADAPT
142 (Martin, 2011) was used for primer clipping. Subsequently the TRIMMOMATIC software (Bolger et
143 al., 2014) was used to remove low-quality sequences (for Bacteria SLIDINGWINDOW:4:10
144 MINLEN:300; for Archaea SLIDINGWINDOW:6:13 MINLEN:450): In case of bacteria data this step
145 was performed before the merging of reverse and forward reads with PEAR (Zhang et al., 2014) while
146 merging of the archaeal data set was done after removing low-quality sequences in order to enhance the



147 number of retained reads for long archaeal 16S fragments. Clustering of sequences into OTUs
148 (operational taxonomic units) was done using the SWARM algorithm (Mahé et al., 2014). The
149 taxonomic classification was based on the SILVA rRNA reference database (release 132), at a
150 minimum alignment similarity of 0.9, and a last common ancestor consensus of 0.7 (Pruesse et al.,
151 2012). Raw sequences with removed primer sequences were deposited at the European Nucleotide
152 Archive (ENA) under accession number PRJEB30517 and PRJEB32680; the sequences were archived
153 using the service of the German Federation for Biological Data (GFBio; Diepenbroek et al., 2014).
154 The total number of sequences obtained in this study is reported in table 2. Absolute singletons
155 (SSOabs), i.e. OTUs consisting of sequences occurring only once in the full dataset (Gobet et al., 2013)
156 were removed (Table 2). Similarly, contaminant sequences (as observed in the negative control) and
157 unspecific sequences (i.e., bacterial sequences in the archaeal amplicon dataset, and archaeal,
158 chloroplast, and mitochondrial sequences in the bacterial dataset) were removed from amplicon data
159 sets before the analysis (Table 2). The dominant OTU sequences and OTU sequences highly abundant
160 in the nodules were subjected to BLAST search (BLASTn; Gene Bank nucleotide database
161 12/06/2019) in order to identify in which others habitats the closest related (i.e. >99 %) sequences have
162 been previously reported.

163 2.3 Data analysis

164 The first three Hill Numbers, or the effective number of species, were used to describe alpha-diversity:
165 species richness (H_0), the exponential of Shannon entropy (H_1), and the inverse Simpson index (H_2 ;
166 Chao et al., 2014). Coverage-based and sample-size-based rarefaction (based on actual number of
167 sequences) and extrapolation (based on double number of sequences) curves were calculated for the
168 Hill's numbers using the R package iNEXT (Hsieh et al., 2018). Calculation of the estimated richness
169 (Chao1) and the identification of unique OTUs (present exclusively in one sample) were based on
170 repeated ($n = 100$) random subsampling of the amplicon data sets. Significant differences in alpha-
171 diversity indices between substrates (i.e. manganese nodules and sediments) were determined by
172 analysis of variance (ANOVA), or by non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test (KW) when ANOVA's
173 assumptions were not satisfied.

174 Beta-diversity in samples from different substrates and from the substrate in samples from different
175 sites was quantified by calculating Bray-Curtis dissimilarity based on centred log-ratio (CLR)
176 transformed OTU abundances and Jaccard dissimilarity based on a presence/absence OTU table. The
177 latter was calculated with 100 sequence re-samplings per sample on the smallest dataset (40613
178 sequences for Bacteria and 1835 sequences for Archaea). Bray-Curtis dissimilarity was used to produce
179 non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) plots, and the Jaccard dissimilarity coefficient was used
180 to calculate the number of shared OTUs between samples. The permutational multivariate analysis of
181 variance (PERMANOVA; Anderson, 2001) was used to test difference in community structure and
182 composition.

183 Differentially abundant OTUs and genera were detected using the R package ALDEx2 (Fernandes et
184 al. 2014) at a significance threshold of 0.01 and 0.05 for Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) adjusted
185 parametric and non-parametric (KW) P-values, respectively. We only discussed the taxa that were at



186 least two times more abundant in nodules than in sediments (i.e. $\text{Log}_2(\text{Nodule/sediment}) \geq 1$) and with
187 a sequences contribution of total number of sequences ≥ 1 % (for genera) or ≥ 0.1 % (for OTUs).
188 All statistical analyses were conducted in R using the core distribution with the additional packages
189 vegan (Oksanen et al. 2015), compositions (Van den Boogaart et al., 2014), iNEXT (Hsieh et al.,
190 2018), and ALDEx2 (Fernandes et al. 2014).

191 3 Results

192 3.1 Microbial alpha-diversity

193 Bacterial and archaeal communities in 5 nodules and 9 sediment samples (Table 1) were investigated
194 using specific sets of primers for Bacteria and Archaea on the same extracted pool of DNA per station.
195 The number of bacterial sequences retrieved from DNA extracted from sediments and nodules was on
196 average 5 ± 5 and 25 ± 14 times higher, respectively, than those obtained for archaea (t-test: $p < 0.001$,
197 $df = 11$, $t = 4.5$).

198 Table 2 shows the statistics of sequence abundance and proportion of singletons and cosmopolitan
199 types. Sequence abundances of bacteria were comparable between sediments and nodules.
200 Cosmopolitan OTU; i.e. those present in 80 % of the sediments and nodule samples were only 9 % of
201 all taxa (77 % of all sequences), whereas rare OTU occurring only in < 20 % of all samples represented
202 50 % the taxa (4 % of all sequences). Sediments vs nodules contained only 4 and 2 %, respectively, of
203 endemic taxa, defined as those were abundant in either substrate but rare in the other. Thus the
204 contribution of unique OTUs to the total number of OTUs was lower in manganese nodules than in
205 sediments samples (Table 3, Figure 1a). Bacterial and archaeal diversity was investigated calculating
206 the total number of OTUs (Hill number $q=0$; H_0) and the estimated richness (Chao1), and the unique
207 OTUs (present exclusively in one station). For this analysis, the latter were calculated with sequence
208 re-sampling, to overcome differences in sequencing depth. Abundance-based coverage estimators,
209 exponential Shannon (Hill number $q=1$; H_1) and inverse Simpson (Hill number $q=2$; H_2), were also
210 calculated. The rarefaction curve indicates that the richness (H_0) of the less abundant and rare OTUs
211 was somewhat underestimated both in nodules and in sediments (Figure S1 a-b). However, the
212 bacterial and archaeal diversity was well described for the abundant OTUs (H_1 and H_2 ; Figure S1 a-b);
213 with more than 90 % of the estimated diversity covered (Figure S1 c-d). Both in sediments and nodules
214 the alpha-diversity indices were higher for Bacteria than for Archaea (t-test: $p < 0.0001$, $df = 12$,
215 $t = 8.0 - 16.0$), while the contribution of unique OTUs to the total number of OTUs was comparable
216 (Table 3). Bacterial communities in manganese nodules have lower Hill numbers and Chao1 indices
217 compared to those associated to sediments (Table 3, Figure 1a). Archaeal communities showed the
218 same patterns for diversity indices and unique OTUs, with exception for H_2 index that did not show
219 significant difference between nodules and sediments (Table 3, Figure 1b).

220 3.2 Patterns in microbial community composition

221 The changes in microbial community structure at OTU level (beta-diversity) between substrates and
222 samples were quantified by calculating Bray-Curtis dissimilarities from CLR transformed OTU



223 abundance. Shared OTUs were estimated by calculating Jaccard dissimilarity from OTU
224 presence/absence based on repeated random subsampling of the amplicon data sets. Microbial
225 communities associated with manganese nodules differed significantly from those found in the
226 sediments (Figure 2, Table S1). Also, significant differences were detected in sediment microbial
227 community structure among the different sites (PERMANOVA; Bacteria: $R^2 = 0.384$; $p = 0.003$; $F_{2,8} =$
228 1.87 ; Archaea: $R^2 = 0.480$; $p = 0.013$; $F_{2,8} = 2.31$; Table S1), and between communities associated with
229 nodules and sediment at Reference South (PERMANOVA; Bacteria: $R^2 = 0.341$; $p = 0.023$; $F_{1,6} = 2.59$;
230 Archaea: $R^2 = 0.601$; $p = 0.029$; $F_{1,6} = 7.53$; Table S1). “Site” defined by geographic location, and
231 “Substrate”, i.e. origin from sediment or nodule, explained a similar proportion of variation in bacterial
232 community structure (27 % and 23 %, respectively). “Substrate” had a more important role in shaping
233 archaeal communities than “Site” (explained variance 35 % and 19 %, respectively; Table S1). The
234 number of shared OTUs between nodules and sediments (Bacteria: 21 %; Archaea: 19 %) was lower
235 than those shared within nodules (Bacteria: 30 %; Archaea: 30 %) and within sediments (Bacteria: 31
236 %; Archaea: 32 %) (Figure 4).

237 Bacterial communities in manganese nodules and sediments were dominated by the classes
238 Gammaproteobacteria (26 %), Alphaproteobacteria (19 %), Deltaproteobacteria (9 %), Bacteroidia (5
239 %), Acidimicrobiia (4 %), Dehalococcoidia (4 %), Planctomycetacia (4 %), Nitrospina (3 %), and
240 Phycisphaerae (3 %), which accounted for more than 75 % of the total sequences (Figure 3). All
241 archaeal communities were dominated by Thaumarchaeota (*Nitrosopumilales*), which represented more
242 than 95% of all sequences. The remaining small proportion of sequences was taxonomically assigned
243 to *Woesearchaeia* (Figure 4b). Nodule and sediment samples showed similar compositions of most
244 abundant bacterial genera (contribution to total number of sequence ≥ 1 %; Figure 4a). 69 bacterial
245 genera (9 % of all genera) were differentially abundant in the nodules and in the sediment, accounting
246 for 36 % and 21 % of total sequences retrieved from nodules and sediments, respectively (ALDEx2:
247 ANOVA adjusted $p < 0.01$ and KW adjusted $p < 0.05$; Table 4). Of those only one unclassified genus
248 within the family of Sphingomonadaceae and genus *Filomicrobium* were exclusively found in nodules
249 and not in the sediment samples, and their contribution to the total number of sequences was less than
250 0.06 %. Genera that were more abundant in the nodules than in the sediments included: unclassified
251 Alphaproteobacteria (7 %), *Nitrospina* (4 %), unclassified SAR324 clade (Marine group B; 3 %),
252 unclassified Hyphomicrobiaceae (3 %), Pirellulaceae Pir4 lineage (2 %), unclassified
253 Methylogiellaceae (1 %), unclassified Pirellulaceae (1 %), *Acidobacteria*, unclassified Subgroup 9 (1
254 %) and Subgroup 17 (1 %), Nitrosococcaceae *AqS1* (1 %), Calditrichaceae *JdFR-76* (1 %), and
255 *Cohaesibacter* (1 %) (Table 4). In the sediment we identified 21 genera that were more abundant than
256 in the nodules, but all together they represented only 3 % of total sequences recovered from sediments.
257 128 OTUs were highly abundant in nodules (ALDEx2: ANOVA adjusted $p < 0.01$ and KW adjusted
258 $p < 0.05$), which accounts for 24 % of total sequences retrieved from nodules (Table 5a). The closest
259 related sequences (≥ 99 % similarity) were retrieved from ocean crusts (30 %), from nodule fields (26
260 %), from hydrothermal/seep sediments and deposits (21 %), from worldwide deep-sea sediments (16
261 %), and associated to invertebrates (7 %; Table 5b and Figure 5).



262 4 Discussion

263 Industrial-scale mining of deep-sea polymetallic nodules may remove nodules and the active surface
264 seafloor layer at a spatial scale ranging from ca. 50,000–75,000 km² per claim to ca. 1 million km²
265 including all current exploration licences (Miller et al., 2018). The regrowth of nodules will take
266 millions of years, thus it is unknown if the associated biota could recover at all (Simon-Lledo et al.,
267 2019). The response of microbial communities to the loss of nodules and seafloor integrity is largely
268 unknown. It may play an important role in the ecological state of the seafloor habitat due to the many
269 functions bacteria and archaea hold in the food-web, element recycling, and biotic interactions, beyond
270 representing the largest biomass in deep-sea sediments (Joergensen and Boetius 2007). It is thus crucial
271 to understand the role of nodules in shaping microbial diversity and in hosting microbes with important
272 ecological functions. So far, only few studies were carried out to investigate the microbiota of nodule
273 fields, and most of them were focused on identifying microbes involved in metal cycling. Here, we
274 investigated similarity of microbial community structures in sediments and nodules retrieved from the
275 Peru Basin. The objectives of this study were: i) to compare the microbes of nodules fields with
276 microbiota of deep-sea sediments, in order to identify specific features of microbial diversity of nodule
277 fields; ii) to elucidate differences in diversity and in microbial community structure between sediments
278 and nodules, and their relapses on potential microbially-mediated functions; iii) to understand the
279 major drivers in shaping microbial communities associated to the nodules.

280 4.1 Microbial diversity of nodule fields is distinct from other deep-sea areas

281 Benthic bacterial assemblages in sediments and nodules of the Peru basin showed typical dominance of
282 the classes Gammaproteobacteria, Alphaproteobacteria, Deltaproteobacteria, and Acidimicrobiia, as
283 reported for worldwide deep-sea sediments (Bienhold et al., 2016; Fig. 4) and in the Pacific Nodule
284 Province (Wang et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2013; Shulse et al., 2016; Lindh et al., 2017). But at higher
285 taxonomic resolution we detected substantial differences to the microbial community composition of
286 other deep-sea regions. Sediments of the Peru Basin bacteria classes were depleted in sequence
287 abundances of Flavobacteria, Gemmetimonadetes and Bacilli, whereas sequence abundances of the
288 Chloroflexi (i.e. Dehalococcoidia), Planctomycetes (i.e. Pirellulaceae, Phycisphaeraceae) and the
289 genus *Nitrospina* were higher compared to other deep-sea regions (Bienhold et al., 2016, Varliero et
290 al., 2019). Dehalococcoidia and Planctomycetes were previously reported as important component of
291 benthic microbial assemblages in the Pacific Ocean (Wang et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2013; Blöthe et al.,
292 2015; Walsh et al., 2016; Lindh et al., 2017). Their contribution to the total community was found to
293 increase in organic matter depleted subsurface sediments (Durbin and Teske, 2011; Walsh et al., 2016).

294
295 Dominant OTUs (>1 %) belonged to unclassified Actinomarinales, Gammaproteobacteria, Subgroup
296 21 (phylum Acidobacteria), and to genus *Woeseia* (family Woeseiaceae). Members of Actinomarinales
297 and Woeseiaceae are cosmopolitan types in deep-sea sediments (Bienhold et al., 2016). For
298 Actinomarinales there are no cultivates, and the function of this group remains unknown. In the case of
299 Woeseiaceae, one representative is in culture (*Woeseia ocaeni*). *W. ocaeni* is an obligate
300 chemoorganoheterotroph (Du et al., 2016), suggesting a role in organic carbon remineralization for



301 members of that family, as recently confirmed by analysis of deep-sea assembled genomes (Hoffmann
302 et al. in revision). Closest related sequences of Subgroup 21 have been reported in deep-sea sediments
303 (Schauer et al. 2010) and across Pacific nodule fields (Wu et al., 2013), but also in association with
304 deep-sea benthic giant foraminifera (Xenophyophores) and in surrounding sediments (Hori et al.,
305 2013). The subgroup 21-like OTU was also one of the 10 most abundant OTUs retrieved from nodules
306 (0.9 %). Xenophyophores have agglutinated tests and can grow to decimetre size, suggesting that
307 members of Subgroup 21 may be colonists of biological and/or hard substrates.

308
309 Within the class Alphaproteobacteria the most abundant OTUs (>0.5 %) belonged to unclassified
310 genera of the families Magnetospiraceae (order Rhodospirillales), Hyphomicrobiaceae (order
311 Rhizobiales), and Kiloniellaceae (order Rhodovibrionales). Magnetospiraceae and Hyphomicrobiaceae
312 are the most abundant families in nodules with >2 % of OTUs. Closely related sequences have been
313 reported previously across Pacific Nodule Provinces (Xu et al., 2007; Shulse et al., 2016). The family
314 of Magnetospiraceae includes microaerophilic heterotrophs, able of magnetotaxis and iron reduction
315 (i.e. genus Magnetospirillum; Matsunaga et al. 1991; Schuler and Frankel, 1999), and thus the
316 members of this family could play a role in Fe(III) mobilization, affecting its bioavailability.
317 Hyphomicrobiaceae-like sequences found in this study are related to genera *Hyphomicrobium* and
318 *Pedomicrobium* (sequence identity 97 %), which have been reported to be involved in manganese
319 cycling (Tyler, 1970; Larsen et al., 1999; Stein et al., 2001). A potential contribution of these groups in
320 metal cycling in manganese nodules is also suggested by the presence of closest related sequences in
321 ocean crust (Santelli et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2015), which typically hosts epilithic and endolithic
322 microbial communities of chemolithotrophic metals-oxidizers (Staudigel et al., 2008). Similarly,
323 Kiloniellaceae related OTUs might be involved in metal-cycling as closely related sequences were
324 found in marine basalts (Mason et al., 2007; Santelli et al., 2008) and inside other manganese nodules
325 (Blöthe et al., 2015). Most of the marine cultivates in the family Kiloniellaceae belong to genus
326 *Kiloniella*, that have been isolated from marine macroalga (Wiese et al., 2009), the guts of Pacific
327 white shrimp (Wang et al., 2015), marine sponge (Yang et al., 2015), spider crab and clam (Gerpe et
328 al., 2017), and from the surface water of a polynia in the Western Antarctic Sea (Si et al., 2017).
329 Besides, Kiloniellaceae-like sequences were found in sponges (Cleary et al., 2013), sea start larvae
330 (Galac et al., 2016) and in seamount's iron mats (Scott et al., 2017). The presence of rich sessile and
331 mobile metazoan communities associated to nodules offers various potential hosts for members of
332 Kiloniellaceae. *Kiloniella* is a chemoheterotrophic aerobe, and the draft genome of an isolate from the
333 gut of a Pacific white shrimp shows potential for denitrification and iron acquisition and metabolism
334 (Wang et al., 2015). Thus, either as free-living or host-associated life, the potential contribution of
335 Kiloniellaceae in metal cycling requires further investigation.

336
337 Archaea were also present in sediments of the Peru Basin, with Nitrosopumilaceae (phylum
338 Thaumarchaeota) dominating the archaeal communities (Figure 4b). In contrast to what was reported
339 for CCZ (Tully and Heidelberg, 2013; Shulse et al., 2016), Archaeal sequences comprised a lower
340 portion of total sequences retrieved from sediments and nodules of Peru basin (ca. 10 %), and they



341 were lower in nodules compared to the sediments. The majority of member of Nitrosopumilaceae are
342 believed to be capable of oxidation of ammonia to nitrite, the first step of nitrification (Offre et al.,
343 2013). Archaeal ammonia oxidizers have a higher affinity for ammonia than bacterial ammonia
344 oxidizers, and they are favoured in environments with low ammonia concentrations (Martens-Habbena
345 et al., 2009). The Peru Basin has higher particulate organic-carbon fluxes as compared to central
346 Pacific Ocean (Haeckel et al., 2001; Mewes et al., 2014), which results in higher remineralisation rates
347 and higher ammonia fluxes. These limit the thickness of oxygenated sediments to 10 cm in the Peru
348 Basin while they can reach up to 2-3 m depth in the CCZ (Haeckel et al., 2001; Mewes et al., 2014;
349 Volz et al., 2018). Hence differences observed between CCZ and Peru nodule fields in the contribution
350 of archaeal sequences to microbial assemblages are likely due to ammonia availability, which is
351 controlled by organic matter fluxes.

352 **4.2 Microbial community structure differs between sediments and nodules**

353 Beta-diversity of microbial community structure in the Peru sediments showed remarkable OTU
354 turnover already on a local scale (<60 km; Figure 4), which is at the higher end for turnover rates from
355 previous microbial beta-diversity estimates for bathyal and abyssal seafloor assemblages (Jacob et al.,
356 2013; Ruff et al., 2015; Bienhold et al., 2016; Walsh et al., 2016; Varliero et al., 2019). Here we
357 focused specifically on the contribution of nodules to diversity, which could be a critical parameter in
358 the ecological assessment of nodule removal. Analysis of community composition at OTU level shows
359 that nodules and sediments host distinct bacterial and archaeal communities (Figure 2). Albeit the
360 microbial communities in the sediment showed significant differences between sites, the low number
361 of shared OTUs between sediments and nodules <20% supports the presence of specific bacterial and
362 archaeal communities associated with polymetallic nodule habitats (Wu et al., 2013; Tully and
363 Heidelberg, 2013; Shulse et al., 2016; Lindh et al. 2017). However, the proportion of truly endemic,
364 unique nodule OTUs was also low (Table 3, Figure 1a), nonetheless it is relevant to highlight that
365 nodule removal would lead to a loss of specific types of microbes in a mined deep-sea region (Blöthe
366 et al., 2015).

367
368 Microbial communities associated to nodules are generally less diverse than those in the sediments, and
369 the decrease in diversity was observed both in rare and abundant bacterial types (Figure 1 and S1). This
370 seems to be a common feature of polymetallic nodules (Wu et al., 2013; Tully and Heidelberg, 2013;
371 Zhang et al., 2014; Shulse et al., 2016; Lindh et al. 2017). Tully and Heidelberg (2013) suggested that
372 it might be due to less availability of potential energy sources (e.g. organic matter) compared to
373 sediments. Despite that the sedimentation rate exceeds the growth rate of nodules, the nodules are
374 typically exposed to bottom water and not covered by sediments (Peukert et al., 2018). Although, it is
375 unknown whether physical mechanisms (e.g. current regime or seasonal events) or biological processes
376 (e.g. grazing, active cleaning) are responsible for lack of sediments accumulation on nodules, the
377 decrease of microbial diversity with the decrease of organic matter availability is in accordance with
378 positive energy-diversity relationship reported for deep-sea sediments (Bienhold et al., 2012).
379 However, the presence of foraminiferal assemblages (Gooday et al., 2015) and specific sessile



380 metazoan communities (Vanreusel et al., 2016) on the surface of nodules may represent a potential
381 source of transformed organic matter (e.g. dissolved organic matter) and catabolic products, which may
382 represent a much more valuable energy source for microbes than refractory particulate organic matter
383 sinking from water column. Furthermore, higher microbial diversity in the sediments than in the
384 nodules could be the result of the accumulation of allochthonous microbes, as suggested by the higher
385 proportion of rare and unique OTUs in the sediments. Lastly, the nodules offer hard substrate and
386 presence of metals, which can select for specific Bacteria and Archaea. Similarly, hydrothermal
387 deposits have typically lower bacterial diversity than deep-sea sediments despite chemical energy
388 sources being highly available (Ruff et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2018). We propose that the decreased
389 diversity of abundant OTUs in nodules, observed especially for Bacteria, suggests selection for
390 colonists adapted to specific ecological niches associated with nodules (e.g. high metals concentration,
391 hard substrate, presence of sessile fauna).

392 **4.3 Potential functions of microbial communities associated to nodules**

393 The presence of a large proportion of bacterial community with low abundance in the sediments, but
394 enriched by the nodule environment at the level of genera (35 %) and OTUs (24 %) (Table 4 and 5a)
395 indicates niche specialization. The most abundant OTUs (13 % of bacterial community) in nodules
396 include unclassified Hyphomicrobiaceae, Magnetospiraceae, Alphaproteobacteria, Arenicellaceae and
397 SAR324, *Nitrospina*, *AqSI*, Methyloligellaceae, Subgroup 9, Subgroup 17, Kiloniellaceae,
398 *Cohaesibacter* and JdFR-76, which closest related sequences have been retrieved from Pacific nodules
399 (e.g. Wu et al. 2013; Blöthe et al., 2015), basaltic rocks (e.g. Mason et al 2007; Santelli et al 2008;
400 Mason et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2015), sulfide and carbonate hydrothermal deposits (e.g. Sylvan et al.,
401 2012; Kato et al., 2015), and giant foraminifera (Hori et al., 2013; Table 5b and Figure 5). There are
402 currently no cultivated representatives and metabolic information for these members of the Bacteria,
403 and it is not known whether they have metal tolerance mechanisms or they are actively involved in
404 metal cycling. The high abundance of potential metal reducers (i.e. Magnetospiraceae) and oxidizers
405 (i.e. Hyphomicrobiaceae), and presence of encrusting protozoans (Gooday et al., 2015), microbial
406 eukaryotes (Shulse et al., 2016) and metazoans (Vanreusel et al., 2016) create specific ecological
407 niches, which may be at least partially responsible for the observed selection of microbial taxa in
408 nodules. Overall, these findings suggest that bacterial groups adapted to lithic or biological substrates
409 preferentially colonize nodules, likely favoured by manganese and iron availability, formation of
410 biofilms and presence of sessile fauna communities.

411 The reduction and dissolution of Mn oxides by dissolved organic matter (e.g. humic compounds)
412 occurs typically in photic or reducing aquatic environments (Sunda et al., 1983; Stone and Morgan,
413 1984; Stone, 1987; Sunda and Huntsman, 1994). However reductively dissolution of Mn oxides by
414 dissolved organic substrates has been observed also in dark oxygenated seawater (Sunda et al., 1983;
415 Sunda and Huntsman, 1994), suggesting that it could be a relevant abiotic process in manganese
416 nodules. Indeed, this reaction yields manganese(II) and low-molecular-weight organic compounds
417 (Sunda and Kieber, 1994), which potentially may favour Mn-oxidizing Bacteria and microbial
418 exploitation of refractory dissolved organic matter. Intense extracellular enzymatic activities have been



419 reported for seafloor-exposed basalts (Meyers et al., 2014), raising the question of whether the close
420 related microbes associated to nodules might have comparable degradation rates. Furthermore, nodules
421 host diversified communities of suspension feeders such as serpulid tubeworms, sponges, corals and
422 crinoids (Vanreusel et al., 2016), which filter microbes and POC from the bottom water and release
423 DOM and catabolic metabolites (e.g. ammonia). Thus, nodules may act as hot spots of organic carbon
424 degradation. Albeit metabolic activity has never been quantified on nodules and sequence abundances
425 are lower, the increased abundance of nitrifiers in nodules compared to the sediments reported for
426 Pacific Nodule Province (Tully and Heidelberg, 2013; Shulse et al., 2016) and in this study could
427 indicate a high activity. Nitrifiers catalyse the oxidation of ammonia, a catabolic product of
428 heterotrophic metabolism, to nitrite and eventually to nitrate. In the CCZ the nitrifier community was
429 composed of archaeal ammonia-oxidizing *Nitrosopumilus*, which represented a large portion of the
430 microbial assemblages (up to 20 %), and a minor contribution of bacterial nitrite-oxidizing *Nitrospira*
431 (Tully and Heidelberg, 2013; Shulse et al., 2016). Peru Basin sediments and nodules showed more
432 diversified nitrifier communities, which are enriched by ammonia oxidizing *AqSI* (1 %) and
433 unclassified Nitrosomonadaceae (1 %) and by nitrite-oxidizing *Nitrospina* (4 %) and *Nitrospira* (1 %;
434 Table 4 and 5). *Nitrospina* are not commonly reported for deep-sea sediments, but they are the
435 dominant nitrite oxidizers in the oceans (Luecker et al., 2013). They have recently been reported as
436 symbiont of deep-sea glass sponges (Tian et al., 2016), which also commonly colonize FeMn nodules
437 (Vanreusel et al., 2016). The *Nitrospina*-related OTUs detected in the nodules showed only low
438 similarity with pelagic *Nitrospina gracilis* and *Nitrospina*-like sequences found in deep-sea glass
439 sponge (sequence identity of 93 %), but were closely related with sequences recovered from marine
440 basalts (Mason et al., 2007; Santelli et al. 2008; Mason et al. 2009), suggesting nodules as a native
441 habitat.

442 5 Conclusions

443 The sediments of nodule fields in the Peru Basin host a specific microbial community composition of
444 bacterial taxa reported for organic carbon poor environments (i.e. Chloroflexi, Planctomycetes) and
445 potentially involved in metal-cycling (i.e. Magnetospiraceae, Hyphomicrobiaceae). Nodule
446 communities were distinct from sediments and showed a higher proportion of sequences from potential
447 Mn-cycling bacteria including bacterial taxa found in ocean crust, nodules and hydrothermal deposits.
448 Our results are in general agreement with previous studies in the CCZ, confirming that nodules provide
449 a specific ecological niche. However remarkable differences in community composition (e.g. Mn-
450 cycling bacteria, nitrifiers) between the CCZ and the Peru Basin in microbial community composition
451 also show that environmental setting (i.e. POC flux) and features of FeMn nodules (e.g. metal content)
452 may play a significant role in structuring the nodule microbiome. This indicates that microbial
453 community structure and function would be impacted by nodule removal, and that regional differences
454 would need to be assessed, to determine the spatial turnover and the impact on endemic types.
455 Furthermore, our results suggest that the removal of nodules, and potentially also the blanketing of
456 nodules with plume sediments suspended during the mining operations may affect the cycling of metal
457 and other elements. Future work is needed to characterize metabolic activities on and in nodules, and to



458 understand factors and processes controlling nodule colonization. Specifically, restoration experiments
459 should take place to test whether artificial substrates favour the recovery of microbial and fauna
460 communities, and their related ecological functions.

461 **Data availability**

462 Raw sequences with removed primer sequences were deposited at the European Nucleotide Archive
463 (ENA) under accession number PRJEB30517 and PRJEB32680.

464 **Author contributions**

465 **A.B, F.J, F.W.** and **M.M** conceived the study. **A.B, F.J, F.W.** and **T.W.** performed sampling
466 activities. **M.M.** compiled and analysed the data. **M.M.** wrote the paper with the contribution from all
467 Authors.

468 **Competing interest**

469 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

470 **Special issue statement**

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721 Figure captions

722 Figure 1. Comparison of diversity indices and unique OTUs between manganese nodules and
723 sediments for (a) bacterial and (b) archaeal communities. H_0 : number of OTUs ($q=0$); H_1 : exponential



724 Shannon ($q=1$); H_2 : inverse Simpson ($q=2$); Unique: OTUs present exclusively in each station
725 (percentage relative to total OTUs of whole dataset). Chao1 and Unique OTUs were calculated with
726 100 sequence re-samplings per sample to the smallest dataset (40613 sequences for Bacteria and 1835
727 sequences for Archaea). Red line shows the median. F: statistic *F-ratio*, with subscript numbers
728 reporting the degrees of freedom between groups and within groups, respectively; p: probability level;
729 KW-test: Kruskal-Wallis test; χ^2 : Chi square test value, with subscript numbers reporting the degrees
730 of freedom between groups and sample size, respectively.

731 Figure 2. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) plot based on Euclidean distance similarity
732 matrix of bacterial (a) and archaeal (b) community structure at OTU level. Sequence abundances of
733 OTUs were centre log-ratio transformed. Permutational multivariate analysis of variance
734 (PERMANOVA) showed significant differences between nodule and sediment associated microbial
735 communities (for details see Table S1). Each sample (dot) is connected to the weighted averaged mean
736 of the within group distances. Ellipses represent one SD of the weighted averaged mean.

737 Figure 3. Bacterial community structure at dominant class level (cut-off ≥ 1 %). MN: manganese
738 nodules; MUC: sediments.

739 Figure 4. Bacterial (a) and Archaeal (b) dominant genera (cut-off ≥ 1 %) for surface nodules and
740 sediments. Cluster on top of barplot showed dissimilarity in OTUs composition, as defined by Jaccard
741 dissimilarity index based on presence/absence OTU table and calculated with 100 sequence re-
742 samplings per sample on the smallest dataset (40613 sequences for Bacteria and 1835 sequences for
743 Archaea). un.: unclassified. * due to extremely low number of sequences ($n=182$), this sample was not
744 included in analysis requiring sequence re-samplings. MN: manganese nodules; MUC: sediments.

745 Figure 5. Habitats coverage for the closest related sequences (≥ 99 % similarity) to OTUs highly
746 abundant in the nodules. For details see Table 4a-b.

747 **Table captions**

748 Table 1. Stations list and description of investigated sites/substrates.

749 Table 2. Statistics of sequence and OTUs abundance, and proportion of absolute singletons,
750 cosmopolitans and endemics for sediments ($n=9$) and nodule ($n=5$ for Bacteria, $n=4$ for Archaea)
751 samples collected in Peru Basin. Absolute singletons: OTUs consisting of sequences occurring only
752 once in the entire dataset; Cosmopolitan: OTUs present in 80 % of sediments and 80 % of nodule
753 samples; Endemics: OTUs exclusively present only in 80 % sediments (and <20 % of nodule samples)
754 or in 80 % nodule samples (and <20 % of sediments samples).

755 Table 3. Bacterial and archaeal diversity indices and unique OTUs for all nodules and sediment
756 samples. Indices and unique OTUs were calculated without singletons.



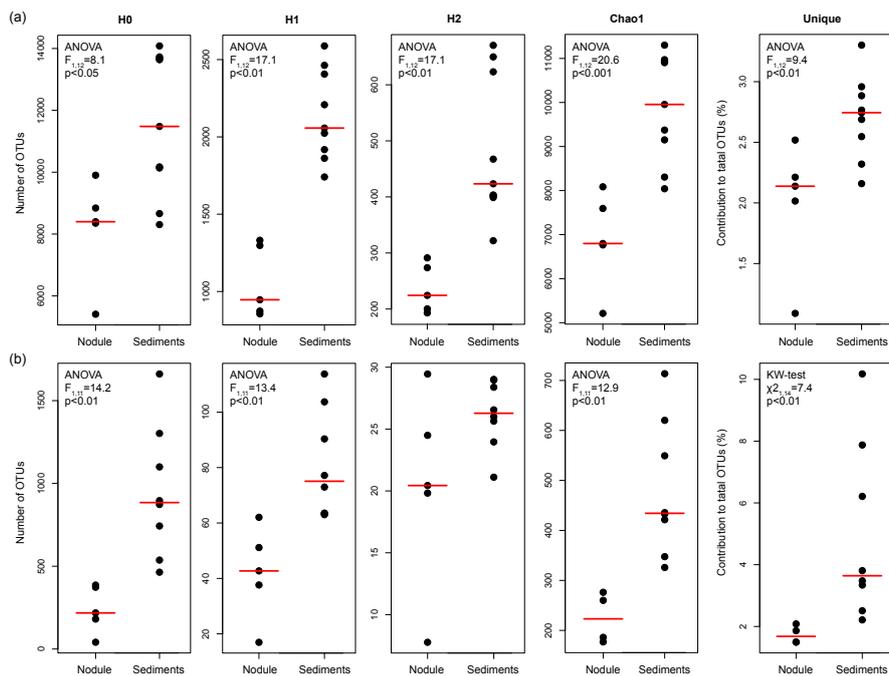
757 Table 4. Genera differentially abundant in nodules and sediments (ALDEx2: glm adjusted $p < 0.01$; KW
758 adjusted $p < 0.05$). In bold the most abundant genera (≥ 1 %) at least two times more abundant in nodule
759 than in sediment; in italic the genera exclusively present (i.e. unique) in nodules. Base 2 logarithm of
760 the ratios between geometric mean centred sequences number of nodule (Nod) and sediment (Sed), and
761 average of the sequences contribution of total number of sequences (%) retrieved in nodules and in
762 sediments are shown.

763 Table 5. (a) OTUs highly abundant in nodules (ALDEx2: glm adjusted $p < 0.01$; KW adjusted $p < 0.05$).
764 Only OTUs ≥ 0.1 % are reported. Base 2 logarithm of the ratios between geometric mean centred
765 sequences number of nodule (Nod) and sediment (Sed), and average of the sequences contribution of
766 total number of sequences (%) retrieved in nodules and in sediments are shown. (b) Closest related
767 sequences as indemnified with BLASTn (NCBI nucleotide database 12/06/2019).

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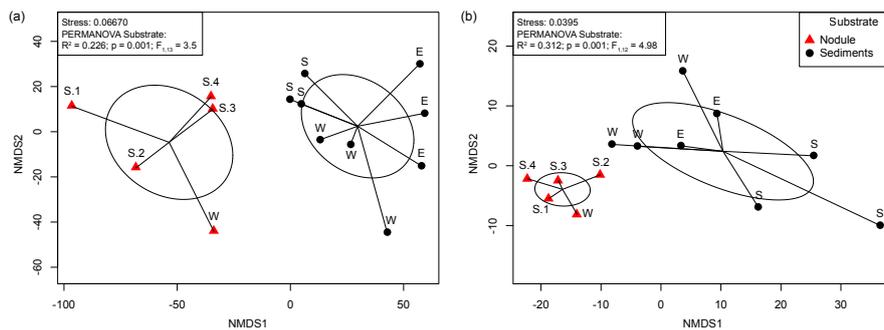
769 **Figure 1.**



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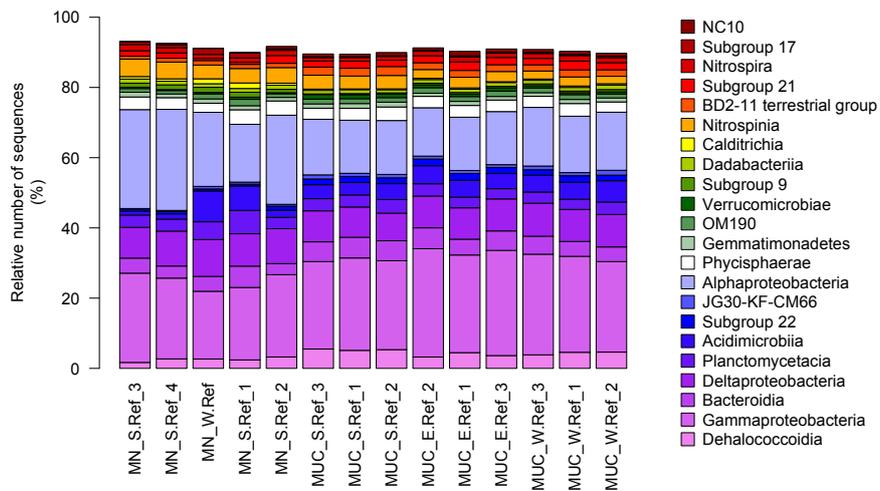
772 **Figure 2.**



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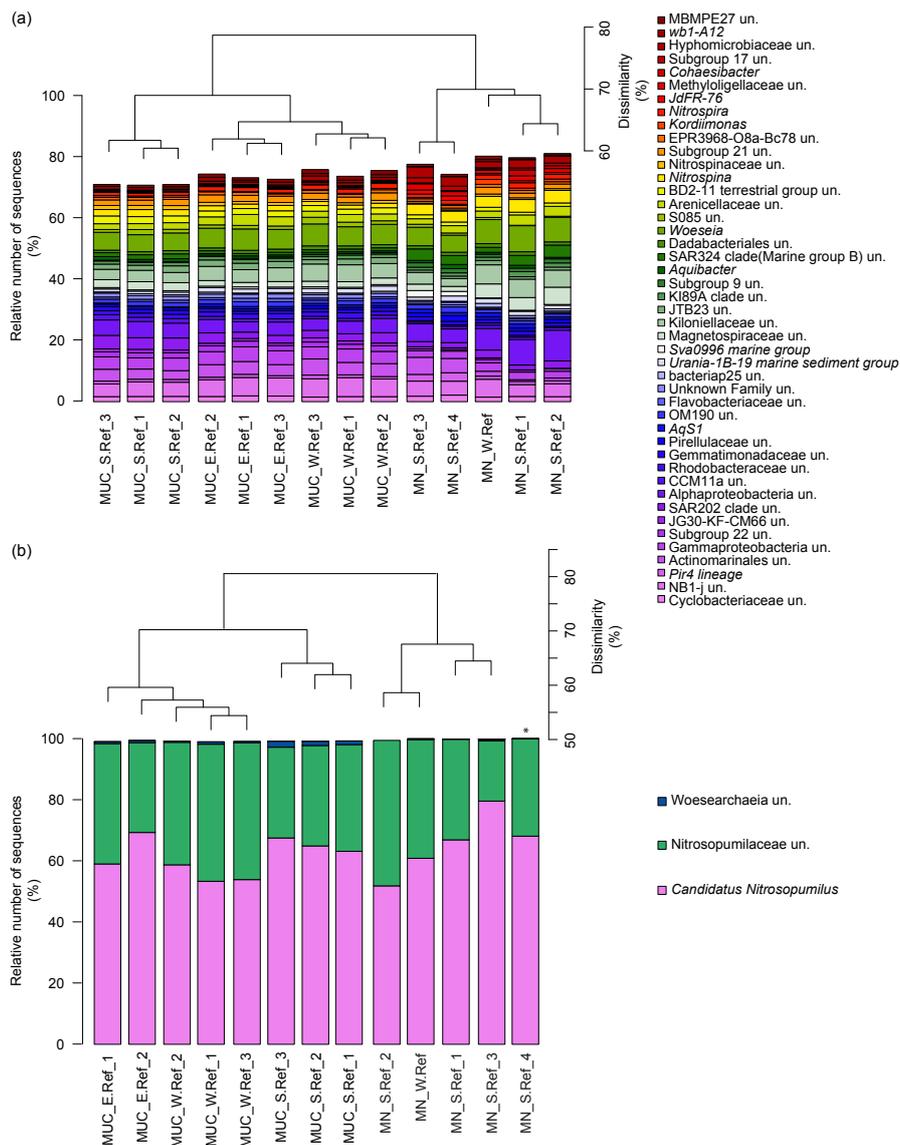
775 **Figure 3.**



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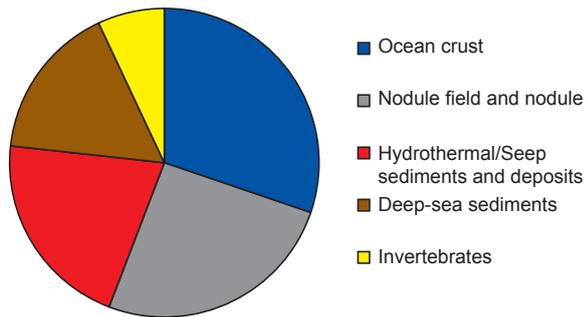
777 **Figure 4.**



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780 **Figure 5.**



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783 **Table 1.**

Station	Sample ID	Sampling Time	Latitude (N)	Longitude (E)	Depth (m)	Device	Site	Sediment layer (cm bsf)	Substrate
SO242/2_147	MUC_E.Ref_1	02.09.15	-7.1007	-88.414	4198.2	MUC	Reference East	0-1	sediments
SO242/2_148	MUC_E.Ref_2	02.09.15	-7.1006	-88.414	4198.8	MUC	Reference East	0-1	sediments
SO242/2_151	MUC_E.Ref_3	03.09.15	-7.1006	-88.414	4197.8	MUC	Reference East	0-1	sediments
SO242/2_194	MN_W.Ref	15.09.15	-7.0761	-88.526	4129.5	MUC	Reference West	surface	nodule
SO242/2_194	MUC_W.Ref_1	15.09.15	-7.0761	-88.526	4129.5	MUC	Reference West	0-1	sediments
SO242/2_194	MUC_W.Ref_2	15.09.15	-7.0761	-88.526	4129.5	MUC	Reference West	0-1	sediments
SO242/2_194	MUC_W.Ref_3	15.09.15	-7.0761	-88.526	4129.5	MUC	Reference West	0-1	sediments
SO242/2_198	MN_S.Ref_1	16.09.15	-7.1262	-88.450	4145.6	ROV	Reference South	surface	nodule
SO242/2_198	MN_S.Ref_2	16.09.15	-7.1262	-88.450	4145.6	ROV	Reference South	surface	nodule
SO242/2_208	MN_S.Ref_3	19.09.15	-7.1256	-88.450	4150.7	MUC	Reference South	surface	nodule
SO242/2_208	MN_S.Ref_4	19.09.15	-7.1256	-88.450	4150.7	MUC	Reference South	surface	nodule
SO242/2_208	MUC_S.Ref_1	15.09.15	-7.0761	-88.526	4129.5	MUC	Reference South	0-1	sediments
SO242/2_208	MUC_S.Ref_2	15.09.15	-7.0761	-88.526	4129.5	MUC	Reference South	0-1	sediments
SO242/2_208	MUC_S.Ref_3	15.09.15	-7.0761	-88.526	4129.5	MUC	Reference South	0-1	sediments

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MUC: TV-guided Multiple Corer; ROV: Remote Operated Vehicle (Kiel 6000); bsf: below seafloor.

786 **Table 2.**

Bacteria	OTUs		Sequences	
	n.	%	n.	%
Entire dataset	557468		2271610	
Contaminants	20	0.0	15710	0.7
Absolute singletons	525169	94.2 (56 / 39) ^b	525169	23.1 (14 / 9) ^b
Working dataset ^a	32279	5.8	1730731	76.2
Sediments dataset ^a	28666	5.1 (88.8) ^c	1032246	45.4 (59.6) ^c
Nodule dataset ^a	19279	3.5 (59.7) ^c	698485	30.8 (40.3) ^c
Cosmopolitan OTUs ^a	1452	0.5 (8.9) ^c	1167668	58.4 (76.7) ^c
Endemics OTUs sediments ^a	1356	0.2 (4.2) ^c	39895	1.8 (2.3) ^c
Endemics OTUs nodules ^a	599	0.1 (1.9) ^c	52328	2.3 (3.0) ^c

Archaea	OTUs		Sequences	
	n.	%	n.	%
Entire dataset	51856		293098	
Contaminants	0	0.0	0	0.0
Absolute singletons	49482	95.4 (77 / 19) ^b	49482	16.9 (14 / 3) ^b
Working dataset ^a	2372	4.6	243616	83.1
Sediments dataset ^a	2356	4.5 (99.3) ^c	219460	74.9 (90.1) ^c
Nodule dataset ^a	591	1.1 (24.9) ^c	24156	8.2 (9.9) ^c
Cosmopolitan OTUs ^a	112	0.2 (4.7) ^c	194736	66.4 (79.9) ^c
Endemics OTUs sediments ^a	198	0.4 (8.3) ^c	10610	3.6 (4.4) ^c
Endemics OTUs nodules ^a	5	0.01 (0.2) ^c	121	0.04 (0.05) ^c

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^a after removal of contaminants (defined by negative control) and absolute singletons sequences (see Materials and Methods for details), percentage calculated on Entire dataset.

^b contribution of sediments and nodules to absolute singletons, respectively.

^c percentage calculated on working dataset.

793 **Table 3.**



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Bacteria	Sequences n. ^a	Sequences n. ^b	H ₀	H ₁	H ₂	Chao1 ^c	sd	Unique (%) ^c	sd
MUC_E.Ref_2	226078	161443	13638	2024	402	10930	201.6	2.7	0.1
MUC_E.Ref_3	218324	166847	13680	2057	423	10972	200.1	2.9	0.1
MUC_E.Ref_1	222924	164985	14082	2208	467	11302	166	3.0	0.1
MN_W.Ref	209563	159724	9902	1296	290	8085	143.6	2.2	0.1
MUC_W.Ref_1	137990	104301	11480	1918	403	9955	164	2.8	0.1
MUC_W.Ref_2	112259	81103	10171	1862	399	9151	148.3	2.3	0.1
MUC_W.Ref_3	236896	178985	13727	1741	322	10905	198.9	3.3	0.1
MN_S.Ref_1	313418	236498	8841	853	192	6798	138.3	2.5	0.1
MN_S.Ref_2	220364	172668	8399	872	199	6766	132.8	2.1	0.1
MN1_S.Ref_3	114074	43932	5409	945	223	5211	73.28	1.1	0.1
MN2_S.Ref_4	64218	76729	8351	1329	272	7594	124.2	2.0	0.1
MUC_S.Ref_1	77424	65890	10137	2588	670	9374	110.5	2.7	0.1
MUC_S.Ref_2	58575	45832	8662	2406	623	8306	93.85	2.2	0.1
MUC_S.Ref_3	59503	40613	8306	2463	650	8041	84.73	2.5	0.1

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Archaea	Sequences n. ^d	Sequences n. ^b	H ₀	H ₁	H ₂	Chao1 ^c	sd	Unique (%) ^c	sd
MUC_E.Ref_2	40952	34494	896	63	21	433	52	3.5	0.5
MUC_E.Ref_3	25090	20215	743	73	26	421	50	3.3	0.6
MUC_E.Ref_1	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
MN_W.Ref	11737	12623	373	51	24	260	33	2.1	0.4
MUC_W.Ref_1	18097	14878	537	63	24	348	36	2.5	0.5
MUC_W.Ref_2	37656	31192	873	77	28	436	53	3.8	0.6
MUC_W.Ref_3	13031	10444	464	64	26	326	31	2.2	0.4
MN_S.Ref_1	7423	5384	218	38	20	186	26	1.5	0.3
MN_S.Ref_2	15314	9472	386	62	29	276	29	1.5	0.4
MN1_S.Ref_3	6099	1835	181	43	20	177	15	1.9	0.3
MN2_S.Ref_4 ^e	722	182	41	17	8	na	na	na	na
MUC_S.Ref_1	34166	29221	1100	90	27	549	66	6.2	0.6
MUC_S.Ref_2	41633	36378	1302	104	29	620	71	7.9	0.8
MUC_S.Ref_3	75344	64433	1661	114	29	714	75	10.2	0.9

H₀: number of OTUs; H₁: exponential Shannon; H₂: inverse Simpson; Unique: OTUs present exclusively in one station (percentage relative to total OTUs of whole dataset); na: not available.

^a after the merging of forward and reverse reads;

^b after removal of un-specific and contaminants sequences (see Materials and Methods for details);

^c calculated with 100 sequence re-samplings per sample to the smallest dataset (40613 sequences for Bacteria and 1835 sequences for Archaea), average data and standard deviation (sd) are given;

^d after quality trimming of merged forward and reverse reads;

^e due to extremely low number of sequences, this sample was not included in analyses requiring sequences re-sampling.



805 **Table 4.**

Enriched in Nodule	LOG2(Nod/Sed)	Nodule (%)	Sediment (%)	Enriched in Sediment	LOG2(Nod/Sed)	Nodule (%)	Sediment (%)
<i>Sphingomonadaceae_unclassified</i>	-	0.04	0.00	Planctomycetales_unclassified	-0.02	0.44	0.49
<i>Filamicrobium</i>	-	0.01	0.00	Lutibacter	-1	0.00	0.02
Geminococcaceae_unclassified	4	0.12	0.01	Chloroflexi_unclassified	-2	0.03	0.09
Methyloceanibacter	4	0.17	0.02	AT-s3-28_unclassified	-2	0.03	0.09
Robiginotomaculum	4	0.09	0.00	Chitinophagales_unclassified	-2	0.05	0.16
Mesorhizobium	3	0.25	0.01	Bacteriovoraceae_unclassified	-2	0.04	0.14
Cohaesibacter	3	0.78	0.10	Nannocystaceae_unclassified	-2	0.02	0.07
OPB56_unclassified	3	0.03	0.00	Cellvibrionaceae_unclassified	-2	0.02	0.08
67-14_unclassified	3	0.31	0.06	OM182 clade_unclassified	-2	0.13	0.47
Syntrophaceae_unclassified	3	0.06	0.01	Candidatus Komeliibacteria_unclassified	-2	0.01	0.03
Maribacter	3	0.06	0.01	Roseobacter clade NAC11-7 lineage	-2	0.04	0.11
Methyloflegellaceae_unclassified	2	1.46	0.31	Bacteroidia_unclassified	-2	0.03	0.11
Entotheonellaceae_unclassified	2	0.20	0.04	IS-44	-2	0.05	0.20
Blastocatella	2	0.18	0.04	Oligoflexaceae_unclassified	-2	0.01	0.08
Calorithrix	2	0.03	0.01	Lentimicrobiaceae_unclassified	-2	0.01	0.04
Hyphomicrobiaceae_unclassified	2	2.72	0.71	Marinoscillum	-3	0.02	0.08
Planctomicrobium	2	0.05	0.01	Anaerolineaceae_unclassified	-3	0.05	0.36
Simkaniaceae_unclassified	2	0.13	0.03	Colwelliaceae_unclassified	-3	0.01	0.13
Microtrichaceae_unclassified	2	0.13	0.03	Subgroup 7_unclassified	-3	0.00	0.03
LD1-PA32_unclassified	2	0.05	0.01	Peredibacter	-3	0.01	0.05
Subgroup 17_unclassified	2	1.03	0.27	Marinimicrobia (SAR406 clade)_unclassified	-4	0.01	0.07
JdFR-76	2	0.93	0.26	Total		1.00	2.91
Subgroup 9_unclassified	2	1.26	0.42				
Chlamydiales_unclassified	2	0.16	0.06				
SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	2	3.12	1.10				
Vermiphilaceae_unclassified	2	0.14	0.05				
Acanthopleuribacter	1	0.04	0.01				
Bythopirellula	1	0.04	0.01				
Nitrospina	1	3.79	1.72				
Gemmataceae_unclassified	1	0.04	0.02				
Planctomycetacia_unclassified	1	0.05	0.03				
SM1A02	1	0.29	0.15				
Ekhidna	1	0.17	0.09				
Phycisphaeraceae_unclassified	1	0.49	0.27				
AqS1	1	1.10	0.66				
Microtrichales_unclassified	1	0.19	0.08				
Pirellulaceae_unclassified	1	1.31	0.75				
pltb-vmat-80_unclassified	1	0.05	0.00				
Pir4 lineage	1	1.60	0.91				
Alphaproteobacteria_unclassified	1	7.15	4.44				
Babeliales_unclassified	1	0.10	0.07				
Parvularculaceae_unclassified	1	0.06	0.04				
PAUC43f marine benthic group_unclassified	1	0.54	0.36				
Subgroup 10	0	0.75	0.67				
Aquibacter	0	0.83	0.73				
Cyclobacteriaceae_unclassified	0	1.76	1.70				
Gemmatimonadaceae_unclassified	0	1.17	1.15				
Rhodothermaceae_unclassified	0	0.38	0.39				
Total		35.37	17.82				

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807 **Table 5.**

808 **(a)**

Phylum	Class	Order	Family	Genus	OTU	LOG2 (Nod/Sed)	Nodule (%)	Sediment (%)
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhizobiales	Hyphomicrobiaceae	Hyphomicrobiaceae_unclassified	otu29	2	2.5	0.7
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhodospirillales	Magnetospiraceae	Magnetospiraceae_unclassified	otu11	2	2.2	0.7
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria_unclassified	Alphaproteobacteria_unclassified	Alphaproteobacteria_unclassified	otu31	8	1.5	0.0
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria_unclassified	Alphaproteobacteria_unclassified	Alphaproteobacteria_unclassified	otu83	8	0.9	0.0
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria_unclassified	Alphaproteobacteria_unclassified	Alphaproteobacteria_unclassified	otu160	6	0.3	0.0
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria_unclassified	Alphaproteobacteria_unclassified	Alphaproteobacteria_unclassified	otu249	7	0.2	0.0
Proteobacteria	Deltaproteobacteria	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	otu65	8	0.7	0.0
Proteobacteria	Deltaproteobacteria	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	otu78	2	0.6	0.1
Proteobacteria	Deltaproteobacteria	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	otu202	3	0.4	0.0
Proteobacteria	Deltaproteobacteria	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	otu317	1	0.2	0.1
Proteobacteria	Deltaproteobacteria	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	otu947	4	0.2	0.0
Proteobacteria	Deltaproteobacteria	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	otu588	2	0.1	0.0
Proteobacteria	Deltaproteobacteria	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	SAR324 clade(Marine group B)_unclassified	otu425	2	0.1	0.0
Nitrospirae	Nitrospina	Nitrospinales	Nitrospinae	Nitrospina	otu68	3	1.4	0.1
Nitrospirae	Nitrospina	Nitrospinales	Nitrospinae	Nitrospina	otu227	6	0.2	0.0
Nitrospirae	Nitrospina	Nitrospinales	Nitrospinae	Nitrospina	otu215	3	0.2	0.0
Nitrospirae	Nitrospira	Nitrospirales	Nitrospiraceae	Nitrospira	otu636	6	0.2	0.0
Nitrospirae	Nitrospina	Nitrospinales	Nitrospinae	Nitrospina	otu434	3	0.1	0.0
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Arenocellales	Arenocellaceae	Arenocellaceae_unclassified	otu36	2	1.4	0.4
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Arenocellales	Arenocellaceae	Arenocellaceae_unclassified	otu162	5	0.4	0.0
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Steroidobacteriales	Woeseliaceae	Woeselia	otu97	4	0.5	0.0
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Steroidobacteriales	Woeseliaceae	Woeselia	otu266	2	0.2	0.1
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Steroidobacteriales	Woeseliaceae	Woeselia	otu521	6	0.2	0.0
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Steroidobacteriales	Woeseliaceae	Woeselia	otu346	4	0.2	0.0
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Steroidobacteriales	Woeseliaceae	Woeselia	otu991	5	0.1	0.0
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhizobiales	Methyloligellaceae	Methyloligellaceae_unclassified	otu113	2	0.5	0.1
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhizobiales	Methyloligellaceae	Methyloligellaceae_unclassified	otu104	7	0.3	0.0
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhizobiales	Methyloligellaceae	Methyloligellaceae_unclassified	otu234	3	0.2	0.0
Acidobacteria	Subgroup 9	Subgroup 9_unclassified	Subgroup 9_unclassified	Subgroup 9_unclassified	otu255	6	0.5	0.0
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Nitroococcales	Nitroococaceae	AqS1	otu122	2	0.8	0.3
Acidobacteria	Subgroup 17	Subgroup 17_unclassified	Subgroup 17_unclassified	Subgroup 17_unclassified	otu326	5	0.7	0.0
Acidobacteria	Subgroup 17	Subgroup 17_unclassified	Subgroup 17_unclassified	Subgroup 17_unclassified	otu895	1	0.1	0.1
Calditrichaeta	Calditrichia	Calditrichales	Calditrichaceae	JdFR-76	otu171	1	0.6	0.2
Calditrichaeta	Calditrichia	Calditrichales	Calditrichaceae	JdFR-76	otu541	4	0.2	0.0
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhodovibrionales	Kiloniellaceae	Kiloniellaceae_unclassified	otu357	3	0.1	0.0
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhodovibrionales	Kiloniellaceae	Kiloniellaceae_unclassified	otu435	4	0.1	0.0
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhodovibrionales	Kiloniellaceae	Kiloniellaceae_unclassified	otu370	3	0.1	0.0
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhodovibrionales	Kiloniellaceae	Kiloniellaceae_unclassified	otu467	6	0.1	0.0
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhodovibrionales	Kiloniellaceae	Kiloniellaceae_unclassified	otu450	2	0.1	0.0
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhodovibrionales	Kiloniellaceae	Kiloniellaceae_unclassified	otu519	3	0.1	0.0
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhizobiales	Rhizobiaceae	Coehaebacter	otu71	4	0.7	0.1
Actinobacteria	Acidimicrobia	Actinomarinales	Actinomarinales_unclassified	Actinomarinales_unclassified	otu163	2	0.3	0.1
Actinobacteria	Acidimicrobia	Actinomarinales	Actinomarinales_unclassified	Actinomarinales_unclassified	otu532	6	0.2	0.0
Acidobacteria	Subgroup 9	Subgroup 9_unclassified	Subgroup 9_unclassified	Subgroup 9_unclassified	otu342	3	0.3	0.0
Acidobacteria	Subgroup 9	Subgroup 9_unclassified	Subgroup 9_unclassified	Subgroup 9_unclassified	otu674	3	0.1	0.0
Gemmatimonadetes	Gemmatimonadetes	Gemmatimonadales	Gemmatimonadaeae	Gemmatimonadaeae_unclassified	otu203	1	0.4	0.2
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Kordimonadales	Kordimonadaeae	Kordimonas	otu86	2	0.4	0.1
Bacteroidetes	Bacteroidia	Cytophagales	Cytophagaceae	Cytophagaceae_unclassified	otu233	3	0.4	0.0
Dadabacteria	Dadabacteria	Dadabacteriales	Dadabacteriales_unclassified	Dadabacteriales_unclassified	otu347	3	0.2	0.0
Dadabacteria	Dadabacteria	Dadabacteriales	Dadabacteriales_unclassified	Dadabacteriales_unclassified	otu1016	3	0.1	0.0
Actinobacteria	Thermoleophilina	Solirubrobacterales	67-14_unclassified		otu324	3	0.3	0.0
Proteobacteria	Deltaproteobacteria	NB1-1	NB1-1_unclassified	NB1-1_unclassified	otu344	1	0.1	0.0
Planctomycetes	Planctomycetia	Planctomycetales	Planctomycetaceae	Planctomycetaceae_unclassified	otu538	2	0.1	0.0
Actinobacteria	Acidimicrobia	Microtrichales	Microtrichaceae	Microtrichaceae_unclassified	otu669	2	0.1	0.0
Acidobacteria	Blastocatella (Subgroup 4)	Blastocatellales	Blastocatellaceae	Blastocatella	otu489	3	0.1	0.0
Entotheonellaeota	Entotheonella	Entotheonellales	Entotheonellaceae	Entotheonellaceae_unclassified	otu788	4	0.1	0.0
Acidobacteria	Thermoanaerobaculia	Thermoanaerobaculiales	Thermoanaerobaculiaeae	Subgroup 10	otu711	3	0.1	0.0
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Oceanospirillales	Kangiellaceae	Kangiellaceae_unclassified	otu744	5	0.1	0.0
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Thiohalorubridales	Thiohalorubridaceae	Thiohalorubridaceae_unclassified	otu571	6	0.1	0.0
Bacteroidetes	Bacteroidia	Cytophagales	Cytophagaceae	Evisina	otu651	5	0.1	0.0
Bacteroidetes	Bacteroidia	Flavobacteriales	Flavobacteriaceae	Flavobacteriaceae_unclassified	otu579	6	0.1	0.0
Gemmatimonadetes	BD2-11 terrestrial group	BD2-11 terrestrial group_unclassified	BD2-11 terrestrial group_unclassified	BD2-11 terrestrial group_unclassified	otu1439	3	0.1	0.0

809 **(b)**
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OTU	NCBI ID ≥ 99% similarity	Habitat(s)
otu29	KT748605.1; JX227334.1; EU491654.1	basaltic crust; nodule fields
otu11	JX227511.1; JQ013353.1; FJ938664.1	nodule fields; deep-sea sediments; cobalt-rich crust
otu31	MG580220.1; KF268757.1	Mariana subduction zone sediments; heavy metal contaminated marine sediments
otu83	MG580220.1; JN621543.1	Mariana subduction zone sediments; manganese oxide-rich marine sediments
otu160	MG580740.1; JX227257.1	Mariana subduction zone sediments; nodule fields
otu249	JQ287236.1; KM051824.1	inactive hydrothermal sulfides; basaltic crust
otu66	JX226721.1 ^a	nodule fields
otu78	JN860354.1; HQ721444.1	hydrothermal vents; deep-sea sediments;
otu202	MG580143.1; JX227690.1; JN860358.1	Mariana subduction zone sediments; nodule fields; hydrothermal vents
otu317	JX227432.1; AY627518.1	nodule fields; deep-sea sediments;
otu947	JX226721.1 ^a	nodule fields
otu588	LC081043.1	nodule
otu425	JX227680.1; FJ938661.1	nodule fields; cobalt-rich crust
otu68	JN886931.1; FJ752931.1; KJ590663.1	hydrothermal carbonate sediments; polychaete burrow environment; biofilm
otu227	MG580382.1; AM997732.1	Mariana subduction zone sediments; deep-sea sediments
otu215	KC901562.1; AB015560.1	basaltic glasses; deep-sea sediments
otu636	HM101002.1; EU491612.1; KC682687.1	Marine Sponge Halichondria; ocean crust;
otu434	EU287401.1; JN977323.1	Subsurface sediments; marine sediments
otu36	JX227383.1; KY977840.1; AM997938.1	nodule fields; Mariana subduction zone sediments; deep-sea sediments
otu162	FN553503.1; AM997671.1	hydrothermal vents; deep-sea sediments
otu97	JX227693.1; FJ024322.1; EU491736.1	nodule fields; ocean crust
otu266	AB694157.1; JX227083.1	deep-sea benthic foraminifera; nodule fields
otu521	KY977757.1; KT336088.1; JX227223.1	Mariana subduction zone sediments; nodules; nodule fields
otu346	KY977757.1; JX227223.1	Mariana subduction zone sediments; nodule fields
otu991	JX227363.1; AM997733.1	nodule fields; deep-sea sediments
otu113	JX226757.1; EU491557.1	nodule fields; ocean crust
otu184	EU491404.1	ocean crust
otu234	EU491604.1	ocean crust
otu255	JX227709.1; FJ437705.1; KM110219.1	nodule fields; hydrothermal deposits
otu122	MG580277.1; AM997814.1; AJ966605.1	Mariana subduction zone sediments; deep-sea sediments; nodule fields
otu326	JN886905.1; KT748584.1	hydrothermal carbonate sediments; basalt crust
otu865	JX227375.1; FJ938651.1; AY225640.1	nodule fields; cobalt-rich crust; hydrothermal sediments
otu171	AM997407.1; FJ205352.1; EU491267.1	deep-sea sediments; hydrothermal vents; ocean crust
otu541	AB694393.1	deep-sea benthic foraminifera
otu357	EU236317.1; GU302472.1	marine sponge; hydrocarbon seep
otu435	KY609381.1; KM051717.1; JX226899.1	Fe-rich hydrothermal deposits; basaltic crust; nodule fields
otu370	EU491648.1 ^a	ocean crust
otu467	FN553612.1; AB858542.1; KM051770.1	hydrothermal vents; sulfide deposits; basaltic crust
otu450	AM997745.1; KM051762.1; EU491108.1	deep-sea sediments; basaltic crust; ocean crust
otu519	GU220747.1; MG580729.1	Fe-rich hydrothermal deposits; Mariana subduction zone sediments
otu71	FJ205181.1; JX226787.1	hydrothermal vents; nodules fields
otu163	JX227427.1; JN886907.1; EU491661.1	nodule fields; hydrothermal carbonate sediments; ocean crust
otu532	EU491402.1; JX227188.1; EU374100.1	ocean crust; nodule fields; deep-sea sediments
otu342	JX227410.1; FJ205219.1; KT336055.1	nodule fields; hydrothermal vents; nodules
otu674	JX227662.1; KT336085.1; FJ938601.1	nodule fields; nodules; cobalt-rich crust
otu203	KP305065.1; FJ938598.1	corals; cobalt-rich crust
otu86	AM997620.1; FJ938474.1	deep-sea sediments; cobalt-rich crust
otu233	JX227464.1; AM997441.1	nodule fields; deep-sea sediments
otu347	JX227062.1; EU491655.1	nodule fields; ocean crust
otu1016	KF616695.1; KM396663.1; EU491261.1	carbonate methane seep; brine seep; ocean crust
otu324	JX226791.1; JN886912.1	nodule fields; hydrothermal carbonate sediments
otu344	EU438185.1; KY977824.1	deep-sea sediments and hydrothermal vents; ocean crust
otu538	KM356353.1; JX226930.1; DQ996924.1	carbonate methane seep; nodule fields; deep-sea sediments
otu669	EU491619.1; MG580068.1; KT748607.1	ocean crust
otu489	EU491660.1; MG580531.1; AM998023.1	ocean crust; deep-sea sediments
otu788	JN886890.1; MG580099.1	hydrothermal carbonate sediments; ocean crust
otu711	JX193423.1; GU302449.1; AY225643.1	mariculture sediments; hydrocarbon seep; ocean crust
otu744	AB831375.1; EU290406.1; KM454306.1	deep-sea methane-seep sediments; marine sponge; marine sediments
otu571	JQ287033.1; AM911385.1; EU236424.1	hydrothermal sulfides; cold-water corals; sponges
otu651	KT972875.1 ^a	outcrops
otu579	EU491573.1; KT336070.1	ocean crust; nodules
otu1439	JN886922.1; KC747092.1; JN884864.1	hydrothermal carbonate sediments; deep-sea sediments; methane seep

^a ≥ 98% similarity.