

1 Heterogeneity of methane seep biomes in the Northeast Pacific

2 Authors: Sarah Seabrook^{1*}, Fabio De Leo^{2,3}, Tamara Baumberger⁴, Nicole Raineault⁵, Andrew
3 R. Thurber^{1,6}

4 Affiliations:

5 ¹College of Earth, Ocean, and Atmospheric Sciences, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR
6 97331, USA

7 ²Ocean Networks Canada, University of Victoria, PO Box 1700 STN CSC, Victoria, BC, Canada
8 V8W 2Y2,

9 ³Department of Biology, University of Victoria, PO Box 3080, Victoria, BC, Canada V8W 2Y2

10 ⁴National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Pacific Marine and Environmental
11 Laboratory, Newport, OR 97365, United States

12 ⁵Ocean Exploration Trust, Narragansett, RI 02882, United States

13 ⁶Department of Microbiology, College of Science, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR
14 97331, USA

15

16 * Corresponding Author: seabroos@oregonstate.edu

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18 Abstract:

19 Methane seeps provide biogeochemical and microbial heterogeneity in deep-sea habitats. In the
20 Northeast (NE) Pacific Ocean recent studies have found an abundance of seeps at varying spatial
21 separations and within distinct biogeochemical environments ranging in oxygen, depth, and
22 temperature. Here, we examine 8 newly discovered seeps and 2 known seeps covering 800 km
23 and varying across 2000m water depth to identify: (1) novel megafaunal communities in this

24 geographical region; (2) variations in the microbiome of seep habitats across the margin; (3)
25 spatial and biogeochemical drivers of microbial diversity at seeps. In addition to authigenic
26 carbonates, clam beds, microbial mats, and exposed hydrates - we also observed Siboglinidae
27 tube worm bushes and an anomalous deep-sea barnacle adding to the overall habitats known
28 from the NE Pacific. The microbial communities showed high variability in their spatial
29 distribution and community structure. The seep communities formed distinct groups that
30 included multiple groups of anaerobic methane oxidizing Archaea (ANME; 1, 2ab, 2c, and 3),
31 often co-occurring within one site – however, there were also other sites with clearly dominant
32 members (e.g. ANME-1s at Nehalem Bank). Sulfide oxidizers were dominated by the non-mat
33 forming Campylobacterales and even though vertical gradients in redox potential typify seep
34 sediments, in two cases there was not a significant change in community structure across the top
35 5cm of sediment. We posit that these patterns were driven by ‘bubble-turbation,’ and
36 bioirrigation by megafauna. A surprising latitudinal trend was observed in species diversity and
37 richness with increasing richness significantly correlated to increasing latitude. Overall, our
38 results demonstrate that heterogeneity is ubiquitous in the seep biome, spanning all faunal
39 classes, and that the understanding of seeps and the drivers of the community structure can be
40 improved by studying seeps at a range of spatial scales.

41

42 1. Introduction

43 Cold seep habitats are increasingly recognized for their ubiquity in the world’s oceans (Brothers
44 et al., 2013; Grupe et al., 2015; Johnson et al., 2015; Levin, 2005). Resulting from the upward
45 advection of hydrocarbons through the sediment, seeps are important sources of energy and
46 heterogeneity in many marine environments (Guilini et al., 2012; Levin and Sibuet, 2012). In

47 these habitats, chemosynthetic microbial communities convert released hydrocarbons into energy
48 that supports the surrounding ecosystem (summarized in Levin et al., 2016). Abiotic factors (i.e.
49 fluid flux and composition) shape the microbial community (Knittel and Boetius, 2009; Sahling
50 et al., 2002) which, in turn, structures the distribution of the associated macro- and megafauna
51 (Cordes et al., 2010; Levin, 2005). A diversity of chemosynthetic production occurs within the
52 sediment including: (1) the anaerobic oxidation of methane (AOM) carried out by Archaea
53 belonging to the “ANME” group in consortia with sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB; Knittel and
54 Boetius, 2009; Orphan et al., 2001); (2) sulfide oxidation (thiotrophy) by mat forming microbes
55 (i.e. *Beggiatoa* and *Thioploca*) and non-mat forming lineages (i.e. Campylobacterales); and (3)
56 aerobic methane oxidation performed by Gammaproteobacteria (Valentine, 2011). The
57 distribution of these microbial taxa is thought to be driven by the rate of fluid flow from the
58 subsurface (methane supply), which also impacts the metazoans present, including clam and
59 Siboglinidae beds (Bernardino and Smith, 2010; Boetius and Suess, 2004). Recent studies have
60 found methane to be deterministic in the composition of the microbial community in comparison
61 with non-seep habitats (Ruff et al., 2016).

62

63 Patterns in biogeography have traditionally been thought to be driven by either local
64 environmental factors (e.g. biogeochemistry), historical geologic events (e.g. geographic
65 isolation), or a combination of both. On large spatial scales (10-20 thousand km) the physical
66 distance between microbial communities has been shown to drive the community structure,
67 while at intermediate spatial scales (10-3000 km) both environmental conditions and physical
68 distance structure the community, and at small spatial scales (0.1-0.3km), the environmental
69 conditions are the most deterministic (Martiny et al., 2006). Seep habitats exemplify the effect of

70 local environmental variables with distinct vertical and horizontal gradients in the microbial
71 community, which are governed primarily by the availability of electron acceptors (Knittel and
72 Boetius, 2009; Lloyd et al., 2010; Ruff et al., 2015). The distinct biogeochemical processes
73 present within seep habitats correlate to distinct indicator taxa (e.g. ANMEs and SRBs) that
74 contrast with cosmopolitan species typically associated with non-seep marine sediments. The
75 cosmopolitan species drive similarities among the microbial communities of marine sediments
76 globally, particularly at the phylum level (Ruff et al., 2015). However, at the class level and
77 lower these indicator taxa create distinctive microbiomes that are found across spatial scales,
78 with suggestion that cold seeps are island-like habitats that do not necessarily fit traditional
79 models of microbial biogeography (Ruff et al., 2015). Recent discoveries on the pervasiveness of
80 seeps across continental margins provides the opportunity to further disentangle the role of
81 spatial separation and fluid flow in structuring the seep microbiome.

82

83 The geologic dynamics of the Cascadia Margin are ideal for the formation of seep habitats. This
84 margin is situated on the accretionary wedge that is associated with the Juan de Fuca subduction
85 zone. The geologic setting of this region yields an environment suited for the migration of
86 subsurface gases to the surface (e.g. Torres et al., 2004; Tréhu et al., 1999). Within the past few
87 years, the known areas of seepage on the Cascadia margin have increased from a few to over five
88 hundred (Bell et al., 2017; Johnson et al., 2015). This margin includes sites that have been
89 studied extensively (e.g. Hydrate Ridge; Boetius and Suess, 2004) and have helped shape our
90 current understanding of methane biogeochemistry (e.g. Hinrichs et al., 1999; Marlow et al.,
91 2014; Orphan et al., 2001). Further, this is a region where productivity, seepage, and oxygen
92 gradients are common and have been shown to impact the composition of fauna present in the

93 region (De Leo et al., 2017; Guilini et al., 2012; Levin et al., 2010). More recently, advances
94 made possible by the installation of Ocean Networks Canada's NEPTUNE cabled observatory,
95 have been allowing continuous and long-term monitoring of cold seep environments in Barkley
96 Canyon (Barkley Hydrates) and Clayoquot Slope, sites located ~500 km north from Hydrate
97 Ridge. This, together with the exploration efforts along the rest of the margin, creates an
98 opportunity for us to delve into the complexity of seep environments along the Cascadia Margin,
99 including potential drivers of modulations in seepage and biogeography of seep fauna.

100

101 While we have learned much about the microbial fauna of the Cascadia Margin, most of this has
102 been focused on a few known sites. Here we describe the habitat types, faunal associations, and
103 the microbial communities present at 8 newly discovered seep sites along the margin, as well as
104 at seep and non-seep sites that have been monitored for nearly 6 years in the context of the
105 NEPTUNE cabled observatory. We use these data to ask:

- 106 1. What 'habitats' are present at the 8 recently discovered seep habitats?
- 107 2. What is the Cascadia Margin methane seep microbiome?
- 108 3. How variable is the microbial community among sites?
- 109 4. Are there any biogeographic patterns that suggest potential drivers of faunal
110 distributions?

111

112 2. Methods

113 2.1. Study sites and sampling:

114 Samples from the Oregon and Washington margins were collected during Cruise NA072 aboard
115 the *E/V Nautilus* which focused on the Cascadia Margin, defined here as the region between 40-

116 48°N off the west coast of North America. Push core samples (internal diameter 6.4 cm) were
117 taken by the *ROV Hercules* from seep habitats at each of the sites (Table 1, Figure 1). Upon
118 retrieval, cores were extruded, sectioned at 1 cm intervals with the sides of the cores discarded to
119 avoid smearing and frozen at -80°C. Samples were also collected further north (47—49°N) along
120 the Cascadia Margin off of British Columbia, Canada, and within the long-term seafloor
121 monitoring sites of Ocean Networks Canada's (ONC) NEPTUNE cabled observatory (Barnes
122 2007). Push core samples of the same internal diameter were collected during two of ONC's
123 yearly maintenance cruises, with *ROV Jason* aboard *R/V TG Thomson* (Cruise TN328, Sept
124 2015), and *ROV Hercules* aboard *E/V Nautilus* (Cruise NA071, May-June 2016; Table 1). These
125 sediment cores were vertically sectioned at 0-1, 1-2, 2-3, and 3-5 centimeter intervals, and also
126 preserved at -80°C.

127

128 2.2. DNA extraction and 16S rRNA gene amplification

129 DNA was extracted from 0.25-0.30g of sediment from the vertically sectioned push core samples
130 with the DNeasy PowerSoil Kit (Mobio/Qiagen) following manufacturer's instructions. The V4
131 region of the 16s rRNA gene was PCR-amplified with 5PRIME HotMasterMix in triplicate with
132 515fb and 806rb primers that were bi-directionally barcoded to facilitate multiplexed sequencing
133 following the Earth Microbiome Protocol (Caporaso et al. 2012; Apprill et al. 2015). Amplicons
134 were pooled, quantified using a Qbit and cleaned using the Qiaquick PCR purification kit
135 (Qiagen). Bi-directional sequencing was performed on the Illumina MiSeq platform using the V2
136 chemistry (2x250 bp) at the Center for Genome Research and Biocomputing (CGRB) at Oregon
137 State University.

138

139 2.3. Microbial community analysis

140 Sequences were aligned, and quality filtered using mothur v39 (Schloss et al., 2011) and
141 Usearch7 (64 bit; Edgar, 2010). Archaeal and bacterial sequences were clustered using QIIME v.
142 1.9.1 at 97% Operational Taxonomic Unit (OTU_{0.03}) and assigned by comparison to the Silva
143 v123 database formatted for QIIME (<https://www.arb-silva.de/download/archive/qiime/>). For
144 complete pipeline see Supplementary Materials. The 16S rRNA gene sequences are archived in
145 the National Center for Biotechnology Information public database under accession SRP107137
146 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJNA386387>).

147

148 To compare the community composition and structure across the sites we used both univariate
149 and multivariate statistical analyses to visualize and quantify differences in the community
150 structure. Aligned sequences were rarefied to the least abundant quality-filtered sequences per
151 sample after omitting those with uncharacteristically low sequencing success (which was 16,801
152 sequences per sample for this project) after which they were summarized into discrete taxonomic
153 levels on QIIME v. 1.9.1. Bray-Curtis similarity comparisons on log transformed rarified
154 OTU_{0.03}'s were used to generate nonmetric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) plots and cluster
155 diagrams which were used to visualize patterns in the community structure. PERmutation
156 Multivariate ANalysis Of VAriance (PERMANOVA, McArdle and Anderson, 2001) was used to
157 identify significant differences among sites, regions, habitat types and sediment vertical
158 fractions. The levels of similarity among samples and groups were measured using the SIMilarity
159 PERcentage Analysis (SIMPER, Clarke and Warwick, 2001), and species richness, diversity
160 indexes and rarefaction curves were calculated and compared across sites. Multiple regression
161 analysis was used to identify the main drivers diversity. The factors considered in these analyses

162 were depth, bottom temperature, dissolved oxygen, and latitude. All multidimensional analyses
163 were performed using the software package PRIMER v7 with the PERMANOVA+ add on
164 (Clarke and Gorley, 2015; Anderson et al., 2008).

165

166 3.0 Results

167

168 3.1. Site descriptions

169 3.1.1 Juan de Fuca

170 This seep was found at 150m depth and consisted of numerous patches of white thiotrophic mats
171 (Table 1, Figure 2a). No bubbling was observed *in situ*, although bubble plumes were observed
172 by multibeam. In addition to the mat, there were patches of reduced (black) sediment (*sensu* Ritt
173 et al., 2011) indicative of active methane release from the habitat. No seep-endemic megafauna
174 nor authigenic (seep-derived) carbonates were observed at this site.

175 3.1.2 Astoria Canyon SW Wall

176 Two seeps were sampled from the Astoria Canyon region (Figure 1), a shallow one (495m)
177 which was located on the wall of the canyon and a deeper one (see below). The shallow one
178 (Astoria Canyon SW Wall) had dense vesicomyid clam and authigenic carbonates (Figure 2b);
179 the carbonates served as a substrate to macroinvertebrates including cold water corals. Bubble
180 plumes were abundant at this site.

181 3.1.3. Astoria Canyon

182 The deeper site at Astoria Canyon, within the oxygen minimum zone (OMZ; 850m, 4.78 $\mu\text{mol/L}$
183 O_2), had a diversity of seep habitats including pockmarks, tube-dwelling polychaete beds (*sensu*
184 Thurber et al. 2014), microbial mats, exposed hydrates and reduced sediments (Figure 2c). At

185 this site there were also gastropods with what appeared to be thiotrophic bacteria growing on
186 their back. Bubbling was observed at various locations in the canyon, corresponding to multiple
187 plumes in the multibeam data.

188 3.1.4. Nehalem Bank

189 The seep habitats discovered in Nehalem Bank (190m) consisted of sparse microbial mats and
190 episodic bubbling events were also observed. Both white and orange microbial mats (Figure 2d)
191 were found at this location and a persistent oil slick was found on the surface of the water
192 overlying this site.

193 3.1.5 Heceta SW

194 The Heceta SW site (1225m) had a mosaic of dense seep habitats (Figure 2e,f). Habitats present
195 included Siboglinidae bushes (of the vestimentiferan type here and throughout) and vesocomyid
196 clam beds, polychaete beds, sparse *Acharax spp.* individuals, as well as distributed authigenic
197 carbonates and pockmarks. The varied seep habitats hosted a diversity of fauna including
198 anemones, sponges, crustaceans, and gastropods. The site also had exposed hydrates and intense
199 bubbling events.

200 3.1.6. Coquille SW

201 The Coquille SW site, within an OMZ (615m, 7.43 $\mu\text{mol/L O}_2$), included authigenic carbonates,
202 clam beds, and microbial mats (Figure 2g). The clam shells had what appeared to be arborescent
203 foraminifera covering them. Authigenic carbonates were distributed throughout the Coquille SW
204 site and provided substrate for many sessile invertebrates, including cold water corals. Several
205 bubbling events were observed during the exploration of this site.

206 3.1.7 Klamath Knoll

207 Occurring within an OMZ (735m, 5.27 μ mol/L O₂), this site consisted of extensive carbonate
208 platforms with sediment channels interspersed and thin sediment layers on top of the authigenic
209 carbonates. Microbial mats (orange and white variations) and clam beds were present, with the
210 clam beds typically occurring within sediment channels. Many cold water coral species, sponges,
211 and anemones were adhered to the abundant authigenic carbonates. A region of intense sporadic
212 bubbling was found on the edge of a carbonate overhang (Figure 2g).

213 3.1.8 Trinidad Canyon

214 Although not sampled, the few instances of seep endemic fauna at Trinidad Canyon (2149m)
215 were notable. At this site, we discovered evidence of what appeared to be a largely inactive seep
216 habitats including beds of clam shells and potentially inactive authigenic carbonates. However,
217 we also discovered small beds of live clams, patches of reduced sediment, live Siboglinidae
218 bushes, and a live gooseneck barnacle assemblage (Figure 2i). These live assemblages suggested
219 that there was still some degree of methane flowing through the sediment, despite the other areas
220 appearing to be dormant/extinct seeps.

221 3.1.9 Barkley Canyon

222 The two sampling sites in Barkley Canyon are located adjacent to the northern flank and at mid
223 portion of the canyon (Fig 1). Barkley Axis, at 987 m, intersects the core of the OMZ offshore
224 Vancouver Island (ranging 6.7-13.4 μ mol/L O₂), with the seafloor consisting of a mixture of
225 sandy and muddy sediments and patches of microbial mats. The Barkley Hydrates site, at 870 m,
226 is situated in a 1 km² plateau slightly less than a kilometer west from Barkley Axis. A mosaic of
227 exposed hydrate mounds, bacterial mats and muddy sediments compose the seafloor at this
228 location (Thomsen et al., 2012; Chatzievangelou et al., 2016).

229 3.1.10 Clayoquot Slope

230 This seep site at a depth of 1250 m (near the bottom of the OMZ with values ranging from 13.4-
231 22.3 $\mu\text{mol/L O}_2$) is located 20 km landward of the toe of the Cascadia subduction zone, and
232 presents localized and temporally variable methane bubble emissions (Römer et al., 2016). Clam
233 beds (*Calyplogena* spp.), carbonate mounds with the presence of ampharetid polychaete thickets,
234 and high densities of sea pens in conspicuous associations with the ophiuroid *Asteronix loveni* in
235 the area.

236 3.1.11 Cascadia Basin

237 In this abyssal site, at 2660 m of depth and ~100 km offshore from the Cascadia subduction
238 zone, the seafloor landscape is typical of abyssal settings with a nearly flat topography and fine
239 grained sediments with very little spatial heterogeneity at 10's of km scales. Local benthic
240 megafauna is mostly constituted of echinoderms (holothurians and seastars), and macrourid
241 fishes.

242 3.1.12 Endeavour

243 Located at the northern segment of the medium rate (6 cm/yr) spreading center known as the
244 Juan de Fuca Ridge, the Endeavour vent field is perhaps one of the best-studied vent sites
245 worldwide (Kelley et al., 2012). At 2300m of depth, the sampling site at Endeavour is comprised
246 of a highly three-dimensionally structured habitat with very tall sulfide towers and black
247 smokers, pillow lava and other basaltic rock formations. The core sampled at Endeavour for this
248 project was retrieved from sediment that did not overlay the vents and is considered to be
249 reference sediment.

250

251 3.2 Overall trends in the microbial communities

252 A total of 1,663,299 sequences across the 104 samples were used to explore the microbial
253 community structure. This resulted in the identification of 30,652 Bacterial and Archaeal OTU's
254 recovered, with 19.6% belonging to Archaea and the remaining 24,617 OTUs classified as
255 bacteria. The microbial communities identified in this study were most similar (indicated by
256 SIMPER similarity percentages) within regional groupings: Oregon/California Margin seeps
257 (40.6%), British Columbia Seeps (40.8%), and British Columbia reference sites (43.8%) (Figure
258 3). Although there was only one sample from the Washington Margin, it was most similar to the
259 British Columbia seeps (33.7%); the Washington Margin seep was 30% similar to the
260 Oregon/California Margin seeps. There were significant differences among these groupings
261 (PERMANOVA pseudo-F=12.708, $p \leq 0.001$, significance of the pairwise comparisons based on
262 this model are indicated below). The Oregon/California Margin seeps were significantly different
263 from the British Columbia reference sites ($p \leq 0.001$) and the British Columbia seep sites
264 ($p \leq 0.001$) and not significantly different from the Washington Margin seep ($p = 0.060$). The
265 British Columbia seep sites were significantly different from the British Columbia reference sites
266 ($p < 0.001$) but not significantly different from the Washington Margin sample ($p = 0.260$), while
267 the British Columbia reference sites were significantly different from the Washington Margin
268 sample ($p = 0.040$).

269

270 Within the aforementioned regional groupings, the microbial community structure was
271 significantly different between the different habitat types (clam bed vs. microbial mat) of the
272 Oregon/California and Washington Margin seep sites (PERMANOVA, pseudo-F=11.41,
273 $p \leq 0.001$, Figure S1). We were unable to test the role of habitat in structuring the community at
274 other locations, due to limited samples for comparison of both habitats at a given site. There

275 were also significant differences between the vertical fractions of sediment sampled (pseudo-
276 $F=2.00$, $p < 0.001$, Table S1). The pairwise comparison based on this model revealed no
277 differences among vertical fractions that were next to each other (i.e. 1-2cm and 2-3cm;
278 $p > 0.050$) however there was a significant difference between those samples that were most
279 separated vertically (i.e. 0-1 cm and 4-5 cm, and 0-1 cm and 3-5 cm; $p < 0.003$).

280

281 Surprisingly, there was an apparent decrease in species richness from north to south (Figure 4).
282 To quantify what factors may be driving this pattern, we utilized a multiple regression analysis
283 including depth, oxygen saturation, temperature and latitude as explanatory variables. This
284 identified that latitude best explained this pattern of OTU richness, solely explaining 29% of the
285 variance ($r^2=0.29$, $p < 0.001$). All of the other factors except for oxygen correlated with each
286 other and latitude so, due to concerns of co-variance, were thus excluded from further analysis.
287 This covariance should be kept in mind when considering latitude as a driver of variance.
288 Oxygen did not significantly increase the fit of the model. Exploring trends in the microbial
289 community further with a multiple regression analysis based on the Shannon Diversity indexes
290 for the samples and including the aforementioned variables revealed both latitude and oxygen
291 concentration as the drivers of variance in OTU diversity. Notably, latitude ($p < 0.001$) was again
292 the most significant driver, explaining 22% of the variance, while latitude and oxygen saturation
293 ($p=0.006$) together explained 30% of the variance.

294

295 3.3 Microbial community composition

296 The abundances of the top 19 bacterial Orders varied among sites with the most obvious
297 differences between the groupings of Oregon Margin seep sites, Washington Margin seep site,

298 British Columbia seep sites, and British Columbia reference sites (two-way crossed ANOSIM;
299 $r_{\text{spearman}} = 0.87$, $p_{\text{spearman}} \leq 0.001$; Figure 5). Within the Oregon and Washington Margin seep sites,
300 the order Desulfobacterales was the most dominant, making up $20 \pm 1.5\%$ (\pm SE here and
301 throughout) of the community composition. SRB's *Desulfobulbus*, *SEEP-SRB1*, and *SEEP-SRB2*
302 were the main taxa within the Desulfobacterales at the Oregon margin seep sites comprising
303 $6 \pm 1.0\%$, $4 \pm 0.5\%$, $1 \pm 0.5\%$ of the relative abundance, respectively. Camplyobacterales
304 (*Sulfurovum* ($4 \pm 0.4\%$) and *Sulfurimonas* ($2 \pm 0.4\%$), Thiotrichales ($4.9 \pm 0.5\%$), Chromatiales
305 ($2.5 \pm 0.2\%$), Anaerolineales ($2.3 \pm 0.3\%$), and Methylococcales ($2.3 \pm 0.3\%$) were also abundant. In
306 the sample from the Washington margin Xanthomonadales was the most abundant bacteria at 8%
307 along with the Deltaproteobacteria Sh765B-TzT-29 (6.7%), Myxococcales (6.6%),
308 Methylococcales (5.9%), Cellvibrionales (5.6%), and Desulfobacterales (4.4%).
309
310 At the British Columbia reference sites, Xanthomonadales was the most abundant bacteria
311 observed making up $11.7 \pm 0.4\%$ of the community. The Deltaproteobacteria Sh765B-TzT-29 was
312 the next most abundant at the non-seep sites ($6.5 \pm 3\%$ of the community). Brocadiales (associated
313 with Anaerobic Ammonia Oxidation [ANNAMOX]; $6.4 \pm 0.7\%$), Rhodospirillales ($5.5 \pm 0.2\%$),
314 and Chromatiales ($2.8 \pm 0.3\%$) were also abundant.
315
316 In the British Columbia seep samples, Deulfobacterales was the most abundant at $8.5 \pm 0.7\%$
317 followed by Xanthomonadales ($6.8 \pm 0.6\%$), the Deltaproteobacteria Sh765B-TzT-29 ($6.2 \pm 0.5\%$),
318 and Brocadiales ($3.6 \pm 0.2\%$). There is variation with in this overall trend, however, particularly
319 with the core that was taken from an area that appeared to be experiencing the greatest seep input
320 (i.e. black sediment indicative of a reduced environment) that was sampled at Clayoquot Slope,

321 where Campylobacterales increases in abundance throughout the core to 11.5% of the relative
322 abundance at 3-5cm, despite averaging $0.9\pm 0.5\%$ for the British Columbia seep samples overall.

323

324 The most dominant Archaea were those normally associated with methane seep and benthic
325 habitats with the orders ANME, Woeseearchaea, Marine Group I, Thermoplasmata, and Marine
326 Benthic Group B dominating (Figure 6). The phylum Woeseearchaea was the most abundant in
327 the Washington Margin seep site, British Columbia seep sites, and British Columbia reference
328 samples ranging from 4.0% of the microbial community at Cascadia Basin to 0.5% at the Juan de
329 Fuca seep. The seep sites off of Oregon/California had ANME-1 as the most abundant Archaeal
330 taxa, for which they composed $3.7\pm 1.3\%$ of the community composition. Some of these sites had
331 co-occurrences of all ANME types whereas others had just one ANME group dominating.

332

333 3.4 Vertical patterns in the abundance of key players in the seep microbiome of the Oregon
334 Margin

335

336 3.4.1 Anaerobic methane oxidizers (ANME)

337 The distribution of ANME varied among sites in its composition and vertical distribution
338 (Figure 7). ANME-1b dominated, composing $5\pm 3.5\%$ of the microbial community at 5 cm
339 sediment depth, in both cores from Astoria Canyon SW Wall (Cores A and B). However, in
340 Astoria Canyon SW Wall-B, ANME-2ab (2.7%) and ANME-1 (2.2%) were also present below
341 2-3 cm. Although ANME-1's did not dominate between 0 and 5 cm in the Nehalem Bank cores
342 (Cores A and B), ANME-1a was present at 3-4 cm with a peak of 4.2% in Nehalem Bank-B.
343 Only Nehalem Bank-A was sequenced below 5 cm and it showed an impressive dominance of

344 ANME-1 peaking at 52% of the microbial community at 8-9 cm depth. Klamath Knoll was
345 largely dominated by ANME-1a, with a sharp peak of 12.3% at 3-4 which coincided with a small
346 peak of 2% in ANME-1.

347

348 While ANME-1 appeared to dominate the ANME community in certain cores, others had
349 abundant ANME-2 lineages that showed differential depth distributions. For example, the
350 ANME community between 0 and 5 cm at Nehalem Bank (Cores A and B) was dominated by
351 ANME-2ab with a peak at the 4-5 cm depth ($4.4\pm 3.4\%$). In addition, Astoria Canyon and
352 Coquille SW samples had both ANME-2ab and ANME-2c increasing throughout the top 5
353 centimeters of sediment with ANME-2ab the most dominant (0.7% and 0.8%, respectively).
354 Astoria Canyon also had a peak (0.2%) in the relative abundance of ANME-3 at 3-4 cm, but it
355 was not dominant. The core sampled at Heceta SW had low overall relative abundance of
356 ANME, however the ANME community that was present was dominated by ANME-3 with a
357 peak at 3-4 centimeters depth, albeit at a low relative abundance (0.025%) of the microbial
358 community; this contrasted with the other sites where ANME-2 and ANME-1 lineages
359 dominated.

360

361 3.4.2 Sulfate Reducing Bacteria (SRB)

362 Deltaproteobacteria associated with sulfate reduction, which are in many cases known to be the
363 syntrophic partners of ANME, followed similar trends of clear changes in vertical distributions
364 and among site variance in composition (Figure 8). *Desulfobulbus*, comprising an average of
365 $6.8\pm 1.0\%$ of the relative abundance of the microbial community, was the most dominant SRB in
366 the 0-3 cm range at all sites, continuing to be the most dominant down to 5 cm at Astoria Canyon

367 (peak at 3-4 cm of 15%), Heceta SW (peak at 2-3 cm of 7.8%), and Coquille SW (peak at 3-4 cm
368 of 4.5%). After 3-4 cm in Astoria Canyon SW Wall (Cores A and B), SEEP-SRB1 becomes the
369 most dominant SRB at $10 \pm 1.0\%$ relative abundance. This is coupled with an increase in both
370 *Desulfococcus* and SEEP-SRB2 after 2-3 cm to 2.8% and 3.7%, respectively, in Astoria Canyon
371 SW Wall-B. Similarly, in Nehalem Bank (Cores A and B), SEEP-SRB1 increases in relative
372 abundance after 3-4 cm to $5.8 \pm 2.6\%$ at 4-5 cm concurrent with an increase in Nehalem Bank-B
373 of *Desulfococcus* (1.8%) and SEEP-SRB2 (1.5%) to 4-5 cm. *Desulfococcus* also increases in
374 Nehalem Bank-A to 7% of the relative abundance at 5 cm, and SEEP-SRB2 - although making
375 up only 0.6% of the microbial community at 4-5 cm, increases to 26% of the relative abundance
376 at 5-6 cm. Seep-SRB1 dominates in the Klamath Knoll core, reaching a maximum relative
377 abundance of 11% at 4-5cm. *Desulfobulbus* decreases throughout the 0-5cm from 2% to 0.5% of
378 the relative abundance in the Klamath Knoll core and SEEP-SRB2 increases from 0.01% to
379 2.6%, respectively.

380

381 3.4.3 Sulfide Oxidizing Bacteria

382 The sulfide-oxidizing Thiotrichales (mat-forming) order and the *Sulfurovum* (non-mat forming)
383 genera also showed differential trends in their vertical distribution in the Oregon/California
384 Margin seep samples (Figure 5). At Astoria Canyon SW wall (Cores A and B), Thiotrichales
385 decreased in relative abundance from $5.7 \pm 0.5\%$ of the microbial community at 0-1 cm depth to
386 $2.8 \pm 0.01\%$ at 4-5 cm depth. Similarly at Nehalem Bank (Cores A and B) and Astoria Canyon,
387 Thiotrichales decreased from $18.8 \pm 0.6\%$ and 3.4% at 0-1 cm to $2.7 \pm 0.8\%$ and 2.0% at 4-5cm,
388 respectively. Divergent from this, at Heceta SW and Coquille SW, Thiotrichales increased in
389 relative abundance from 4.3% and 2.6% of the microbial community at 0-1cm to 7.4% and 6.7%

390 at 4-5 cm. There were no clear trends in the relative abundance of Thiotrichales at Klamath
391 Knoll. At Nehalem Bank (Cores A and B) and Astoria Canyon, *Sulfurovum* increased in relative
392 abundance from $0.6\pm 0.2\%$ and 1.5% at 0-1cm to $5.9\pm 1\%$ and 3.4% at 4-5 cm, respectively.
393 Similarly, *Sulfurovum* increased in relative abundance as well at Heceta SW from 2.7% at 0-1cm
394 to 4.1% at 4-5 cm. However, at Coquille SW and Klamath Knoll, *Sulfurovum* decreased in
395 relative abundance from 13.7% and 3.0% of the relative abundance at 0-1 cm to 2.9% and 0.8%
396 at 4-5 cm, respectively.

397

398

399 4. Discussion

400

401 4.1 Overall patterns in distribution and abundance:

402 A range of seep habitats were observed throughout the explorations of the Cascadia Margin. This
403 included: microbial mats (both orange and white variations), clam and tube-dwelling polychaete
404 beds, siboglinid assemblages, and sparse instances of *Archarax* spp. and gooseneck barnacles.

405 The heterogeneity within and among seep biomes is highlighted by this variation in the observed
406 megafaunal assemblages. Notable is the discovery of vestimentiferan siboglinids at Heceta SW
407 and Trinidad Canyon, adding to the limited reports of this group within seep habitats in the NE
408 Pacific (see Bernardino and Smith, 2010; Grupe et al., 2015; Kulm et al., 1986). The discovery
409 of vestimentiferans at Heceta SW was particularly interesting because of the similarity of this
410 habitat to Hydrate Ridge and Eel River Basin, which occur in areas that also experience lower
411 oxygen concentrations associated with the OMZ and have been extensively explored but
412 conspicuously lack vestimentiferan siboglinids (Levin et al., 2010). One guiding hypothesis on

413 why these taxa do not occur at Eel River Basin and Hydrate Ridge has been that they both occur
414 within or near the upper bounds of the OMZ and low oxygen has been suggested to exclude
415 vestimentiferans (and bathymodiolin mussels) from these locations. While this may be the case
416 for why the vestimentiferans are present at Trinidad Canyon, a site that is well below the
417 permanent OMZ (56.90 $\mu\text{mol/L O}_2$), Heceta SW lies just below the most intense core of the
418 OMZ and has hypoxic conditions (16.26 $\mu\text{mol/L O}_2$). Eel River Basin methane seep occurs
419 slightly shallower than Heceta SW and in even more normoxic water, making the occurrence of
420 vestimentiferan siboglinids at Heceta SW surprising and challenging the notion that oxygen
421 concentration alone drives the lack of vestimentiferan siboglinids. The discovery of gooseneck
422 barnacles at Trinidad Canyon was also notable as the gooseneck barnacles include groups that
423 are vent-endemic with interesting biogeographical and evolutionary distributions (Herrera et al.,
424 2015) but are not common members of methane seeps (but see Yamaguchi et al., 2004). Large
425 gooseneck barnacles do include non-reducing habitat groups as well. While it is unclear whether
426 the one we observed is a previously unknown seep endemic, or just a deep-sea species taking
427 advantage of the hard substrate provided by the Siboglinidae tubes, this increases the fauna
428 known to inhabit seeps in this region.

429

430 Seep communities are a result of both the current and historic dynamics of the region with
431 multiple successional patterns proposed. Consequentially, fluid flow rate and duration of seepage
432 can influence the fauna present. At many seep systems the rate of fluid flow is thought to drive
433 the patterns of fauna (e.g. Bernardino et al., 2010; Sahling et al., 2002). Microbial mats occur in
434 areas of higher methane and sulfide flux whereas clam beds have lower or oscillating flow
435 regimes (Tryon et al., 2002) and Siboglinidae's are intermediate in their flux regime

436 (summarized in Bernardino et al., 2010). Taxonomic distribution may also be driven by
437 successional stages of a seep in addition to seepage rate. It has been posited that upon the onset
438 of seepage, microbial mats appear which are then replaced by clam beds and/or siboglinid
439 assemblages as the seep matures. As the seepage continues, authigenic carbonates form as a
440 byproduct of the anaerobic oxidation of methane that in turn provide substrate for background
441 communities (Bowden et al., 2013; Cordes et al., 2009). Thus the extent and rate of seepage can
442 both lead to similar patterns of fauna. While this presents a challenge for interpreting certain
443 faunal groups in seep habitats others are more clear. For example, habitats that had a diversity of
444 seep habitats (defined by the fauna present) and that had extensive carbonate features (i.e. Heceta
445 SW, Astoria Canyon sites, Coquille SW, and Klamath Knoll) are likely seeps that have been
446 persistent for long time periods and/or experience sustained and higher flow than others. In
447 contrast sites with mostly microbial mats (i.e. Juan de Fuca and Nehalem Bank) may either be
448 relatively recent features or experience lower flux that does not lead to the development of more
449 expansive or diverse habitats.

450
451 Another surprising trend was that many of the taxa that are often found as dominant in seeps co-
452 occurred to a greater extent than previously expected and a few taxa were more dominant than
453 expected. Particularly, the different ANME lineages often co-occur but one dominates (Knittel
454 and Boetius, 2009). Here we observed some of the sites with extreme dominance (e.g. Nehalem
455 Bank and ANME-1) and other sites where there was a more even distribution (Astoria Canyon
456 SW Wall). Additionally, ANME-2 lineages have been shown to be dominant at other known
457 seeps in the region (i.e. Hydrate Ridge; Knittel and Boetius, 2009) and although we observed this
458 at some sites, in many instances ANME-1 lineages comprised the majority of the ANME present.

459 Further ANME- 3, often found in mud volcanoes, was present at some of our sites, including
460 being the dominant ANME type at Heceta SW (albeit at a low total percentage of the microbial
461 community). The spatial scale and survey approach taken here can help us understand the
462 distribution of microbial taxa and both further refine and augment distribution patterns (such as
463 those proposed by Ruff et al. 2014).

464 4.2 Small scale variability

465 Methane seeps are an area with large gradients in the biogeochemical composition over small
466 vertical spatial scales within the sediment. The sediment has often become anoxic within the
467 first mm of the sediment and sulfate concentrations can approach zero within the top few cm of
468 sediment in areas of high seepage. These steep chemoclines lead to niche specification within
469 the microbial community (Boetius and Suess, 2004; Cordes et al., 2010; Macalady et al., 2008).
470 The sulfide oxidizing groups of bacteria are thought to be influenced by these steep chemoclines
471 (Pjevac, 2014). Microbial mats, most often dominated by Thiotrichales of the genera *Beggiatoa*
472 and *Thioploca*, have been found to be more prominent in diffusive controlled niches with high
473 sulfide/oxygen levels and are often most abundant at the sediment surface (Macalady et al.,
474 2008). This contrasts with *Sulfurovum* and other Campylobacterales types that are thought to
475 dominate in areas of increased sulfide flux and lower concentrations of oxygen, sometimes even
476 using nitrate rather than oxygen as the electron acceptor (Grünke et al., 2011; Nguyen, 2016;
477 Pjevac, 2014). Within the microbial mats at the Cascadia Margin seeps, we found Thiotrichales
478 to be more abundant in the surface sediment with the Campylobacterales (i.e. *Sulfurovum*
479 another sulfide oxidizing group), more dominant in deeper sediment layers. Thus the distribution
480 of Thiotrichales and Campylobacterales observed at our sites fit the distribution patterns found

481 elsewhere, with Thiotrichales dominating the surface and better oxygenated regions with the
482 Camplyobacterales found deeper in the sediment.
483
484 Clam beds, which often have a sulfide peak at or below 4 cm depth in the sediment, were present
485 at Astoria Canyon SW Wall, Heceta SW, Coquille SW and Klamath Knoll (Sahling et al., 2002;
486 Valentine et al., 2005). At these sites *Sulfurovum* was found to increase with depth down to 5
487 cm, except from at Coquille SW and Klamath Knoll where *Sulfurovum* decreased from 0-1 cm to
488 4-5 cm. The core from Klamath Knoll was taken from a clam bed within a sediment filled
489 channel, a physically different environment than the other clam beds sampled. This potentially
490 contributed to its divergence in community structure, and in the abundance of *Sulfurovum*, due to
491 the hydrodynamics caused by the adjacent carbonate outcrops. Another core that had a unique
492 vertical distribution of the microbial community compared to the other cores was a core that was
493 collected from a clam bed in Coquille SW. The uniqueness of this core could have been partially
494 driven by what appeared to be aborescent foraminifera growing on clam shells and tufts of
495 microbial mat distributed throughout the bed. The presence of protists such as aborescent
496 foraminifera in seep environments has been shown to increase habitat heterogeneity and
497 contribute to carbon cycling (Pasulka et al., 2017). The marked difference in the microbial
498 community between this core, collected from a clam bed, and the others sampled in clam beds
499 was indicated with a greater similarity of this core to other cores collected from microbial mats at
500 0-1 cm (Figure S1). In this particular case it is difficult to disentangle if the abundance of the
501 protists is driving this or if the protists are a result of the biogeochemistry of the environment.
502

503 Both the Astoria Canyon core and the Heceta SW core showed little vertical trend in abundance
504 in microbial taxa. The Astoria Canyon core, taken from a dense microbial mat, was from an area
505 of significant bubbling and surrounded by exposed hydrates. Likely, in this core, the lack of a
506 clear vertical trend with the microbial community was due to ‘bubble-turbation’ of the sediment.
507 This is similar to what occurs at mud volcanoes such as the Håkon Mosby Mud Volcano
508 (HMMV), where sediment mixing alters the microbial community in the surface sediment
509 (Lösekann et al., 2007). Unlike HMMV, aerobic methanotrophs did not comprise >50% of the
510 microbial community in this site (maximum of 11.5% of total microbial community), which may
511 reflect the lower availability of oxygen within overlying water (Table 1). The high abundance of
512 SRBs and ANMEs within the top few cms of sediment also suggest that oxygen penetration was
513 limited within the Astoria Canyon microbial mat sampled. The other location that showed a
514 similar trend was from a clam bed at Heceta SW with large clams present; there were also a few
515 siboglinids within the sediment. Clams both bioirrigate and bioturbate the sediment (Wallmann
516 et al., 1997), potentially smearing biogeochemical gradients, and often occur in areas where there
517 is fluid flow both into and out of the sediment (Orphan et al., 2004; Tryon et al., 2002, 1999). So
518 unlike the Astoria canyon core that we posit is bubble-turbated, the faunalurbation at this site
519 likely led to the absence of a clear vertical trend with the microbial community within the top 5
520 cms. Further, sulfate leakage from the roots of siboglinids has been shown to occur, a process
521 which stimulates the anaerobic oxidation of methane around the root area (Cordes et al., 2005,
522 2003). Thus the presence of siboglinids could have been removing vertical gradients and creating
523 horizontal gradients, as a result of both the sulfate leakage from the roots, leading to horizontal
524 rather than vertical chemoclines and the more ‘smeared’ structure of the microbial community at
525 Heceta SW.

526

527 4.3 Biogeographic patterns

528 A surprising trend was the latitudinal gradient in seep microbial community. While we were
529 unable to heavily replicate sampling from within any one site our approach did allow us to
530 collect a snap shot of the microbial community across significant spatial scales and
531 environments. The sites ranged in depth from 190 m to 2149 m (Table 1 and 2), spanned 800 km
532 of latitude, and varied from sparse microbial mats to massive hydrate outcrops with extensive
533 bubble emission. While on a fundamental level, this highlights the diversity of seep habitats and
534 dynamics on the margin, it also allowed a holistic view of the seepage beyond one particular site,
535 complimenting those studies that provide high resolution at a site-level spatial scale. With this
536 approach we found that there were significant shifts in the community composition going from
537 the sites off Vancouver Island to the more southerly sites.

538

539 The composition of seep communities studied here were dominated by SRBs, methanotrophs,
540 and sulfate oxidizing bacteria while the non-seep sites were dominated by cosmopolitan bacteria
541 associated with deep-sea sediments. While the role of seepage rates, successional patterns, and
542 background fauna have been used to explain overall patterns of diversity in seep sediments in the
543 past, the results here add to this by suggesting that large scale latitudinal trends may have an
544 overarching influence on these previously observed patterns. Previous studies have described
545 increased diversity and species richness of macrofauna in non-seep sites, with this observation
546 attributed often to higher niche specification of seep communities (Grupe et al., 2015). This is in
547 contrast to our findings, as we observed increased diversity of microbial taxa at seep compared to
548 our reference sites.

549

550 Here, variance of both species richness and diversity with latitude suggest that latitude may be a
551 driver in the composition and richness of the methane seep microbiome. The additional variance
552 of diversity with oxygen saturation highlights the potential impact that variations in oxygen
553 saturation, observed in areas such as OMZ, could have upon microbial communities. Together,
554 this supports previous work indicating impacts on the heterogeneity of marine environments
555 from variations in oxygen saturation (such as in OMZs; Guilini et al., 2012; Pasulka et al., 2016),
556 while also revealing a potential new driver of community composition in seep microbiomes. We
557 would like to point out that in some cases the areas sampled as seep habitats within the ONC
558 array system off Vancouver Island did not appear to experience the same extent of seepage as
559 those sampled more southerly, even though very active seep sites do occur in within the ONC
560 sites. They were, however, very clearly seep habitats as ANME were present, and importantly, if
561 one omits all of the British Columbia samples from the analysis there is still a latitudinal trend
562 (Figure 4). Additional focused surveying efforts along the NE Pacific margin would help to
563 further elucidate these possible trends in seep biogeography.

564

565 Intriguing trends in biogeographic patterns of reducing habitat communities are beginning to
566 identify large scale patterns in species composition and diversity in microbial (Ruff et al., 2015)
567 and animal communities (Bachraty et al., 2009; Van Dover et al., 2002). Biogeography of the
568 deep sea is thought-provoking due to the dispersal mechanisms of fauna that must coexist with
569 slow water movements, cold but stable temperatures, and low food supply. Reducing habitats in
570 this context serve as additional disparate islands that aid in the survival of fauna leading to
571 patterns where distance and chemical similarity have resulted in interesting constructs of the

572 mechanisms that communities use to disperse. The patterns and explanations of biogeography in
573 deep-sea macro- and megafauna communities are interesting (Baco et al., 1999; Herrera et al.,
574 2015; Hilario et al., 2015) and microbial communities have also been identified as having clear
575 biogeographic and seasonal patterns in their distribution and composition (Ladau et al., 2013;
576 Ruff et al., 2015). To understand the factors that drive these patterns of observed species
577 distributions, sampling needs to occur on nested scales where similarity at different distances and
578 the factors that drive those (or add to them) are quantified. Here, we have added to the overall
579 understanding of large scale faunal distributions, adding to limited reports of siboglinids in the
580 NE Pacific and the discovery of the gooseneck barnacle that may or may not be a seep endemic.
581 Further, we have quantified both regional and local variability of the microbial community in
582 seep habitats, contributing to important global comparisons that exist (i.e. Ruff et al. 2015).

583

584 5. Conclusions

585 Select seep habitats in the NE Pacific have been heavily studied (Hydrate Ridge, Eel River
586 Basin), but we are just beginning to appreciate the extent and variability of seepage in the NE
587 Pacific. Seeps are important to global carbon cycling, energy flow, and overall functioning of the
588 earth system (Brooks et al., 2017; Sweetman et al., 2017; Thurber et al., 2014; Levin et al. 2016).
589 In just two years, directed study of the continental margin off of Washington, Oregon, and
590 Northern California resulted in >500 individual bubble plumes (Bell et al., 2017). The seep
591 habitats discovered in this study covered a range of depths (150m to 2149m), latitudes, and
592 oxygen concentrations. In addition to the microbial mats, authigenic carbonates and vesicomid
593 clam beds that are known in the NE Pacific, we also observed siboglinid tubeworm assemblages
594 in a habitat that intersects the top of the OMZ and is similar to well-studied seep habitats (Eel

595 River Basin and Hydrate Ridge) in which they have not been found. We found significant
596 differences in the microbial community composition between regional groupings, habitat type
597 (microbial mat vs. clam bed), and vertical fraction within the sediment. Trends in species
598 richness were driven by changes in latitude while observed variance in diversity were driven by
599 both latitude and oxygen concentration. This compliments previous studies where the main
600 drivers of the seep microbial community were seafloor temperature and electron acceptor
601 availability (Ruff et al., 2015). This study highlights the variability and complexity that exists
602 within seep communities of the NE Pacific. This also presents a framework for further studies of
603 seep habitats as it provides an overview of additional sites and variance in community structure
604 that can be used to more comprehensively constrain how fluid flow, chemical, physical and
605 geological dynamics, and geographic location contribute to the composition and functioning of
606 seep ecosystems, beyond particular sites.

607

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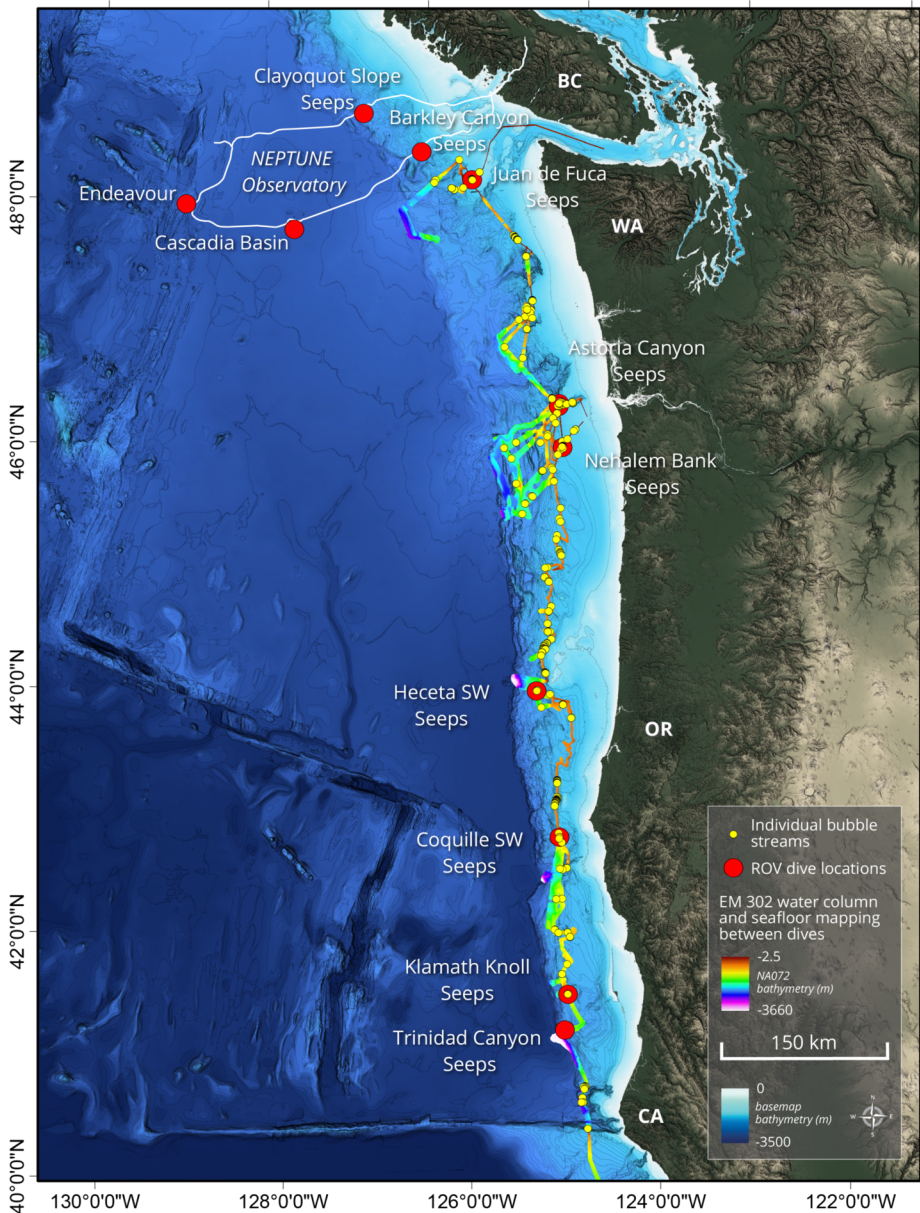
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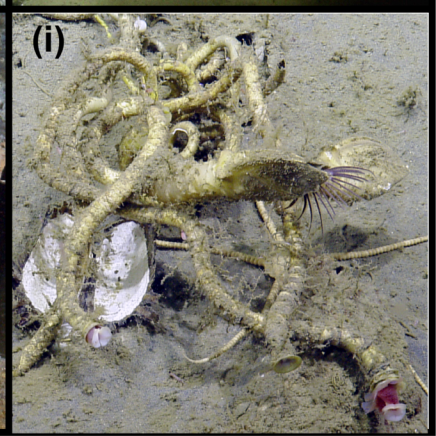
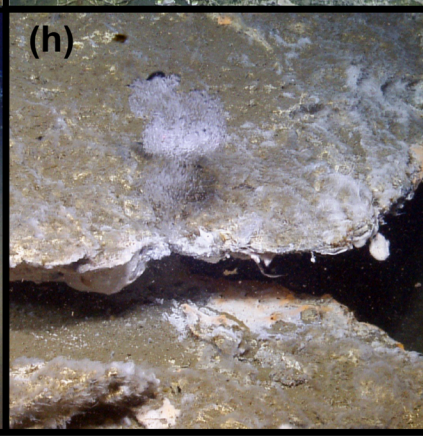
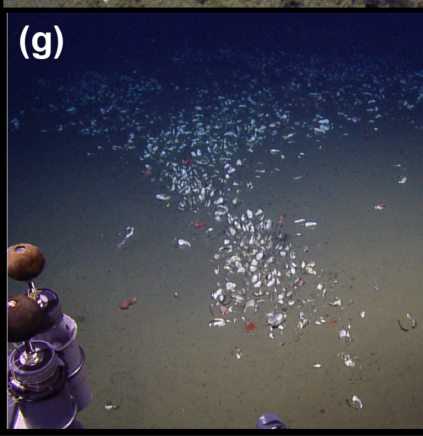
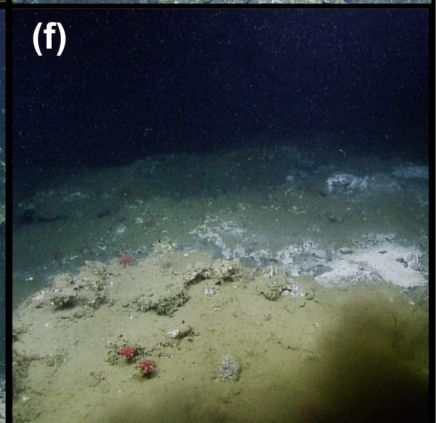
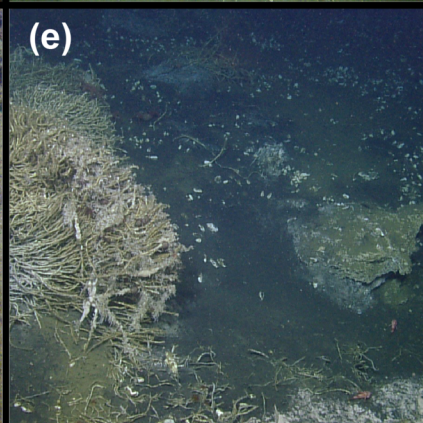
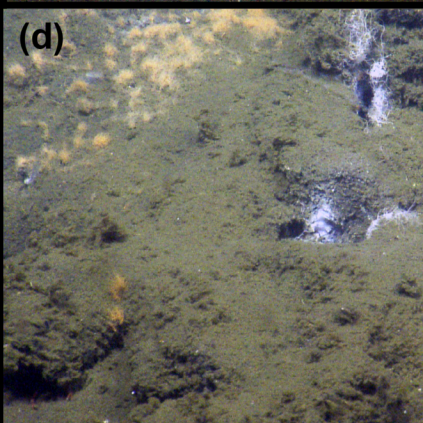
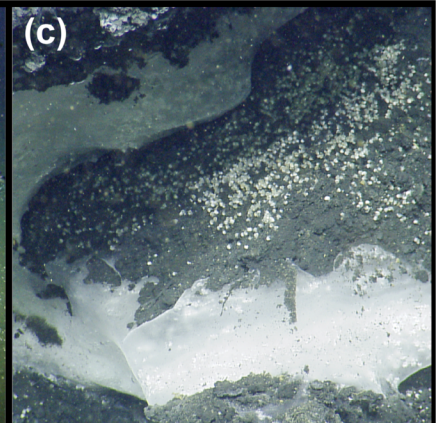
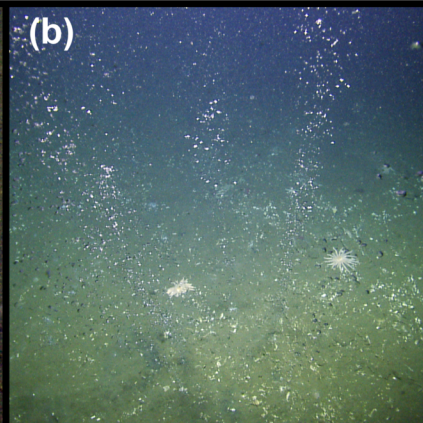
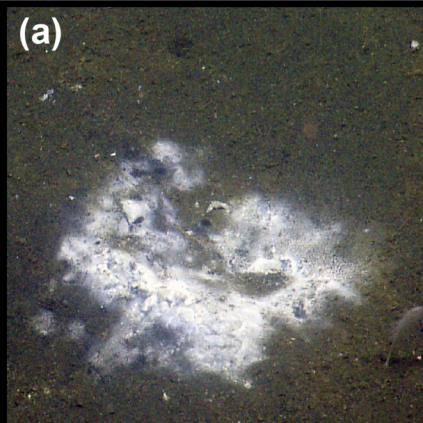
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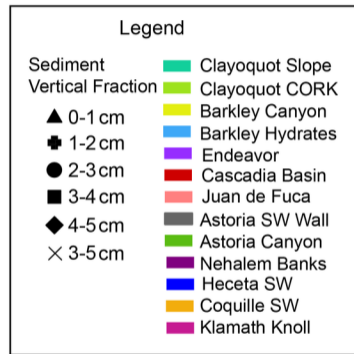
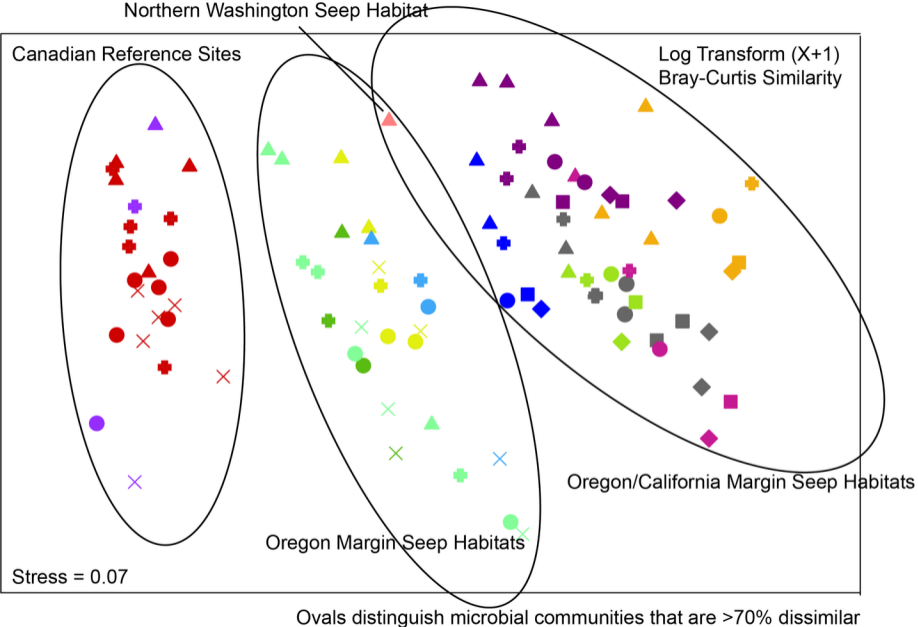
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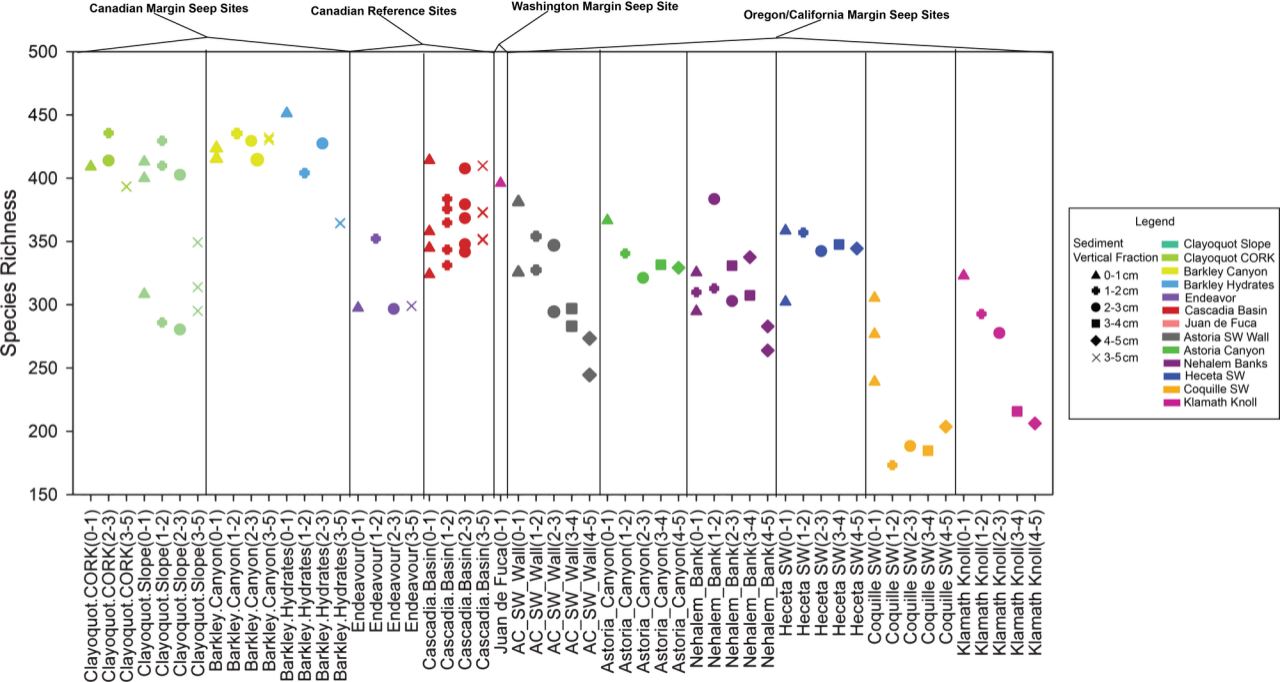
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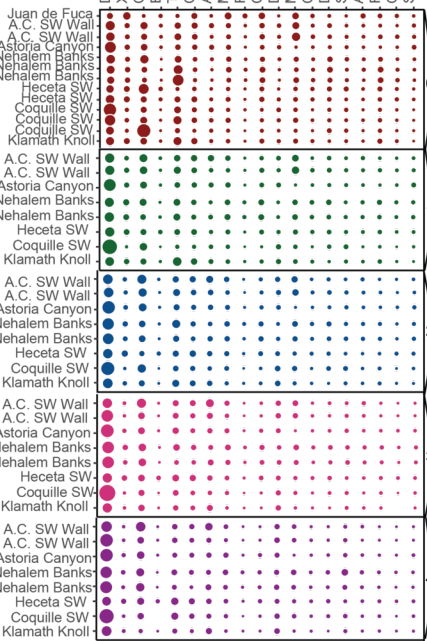




Oregon/Washington/California Margin Seep Sites

Bacterial Order

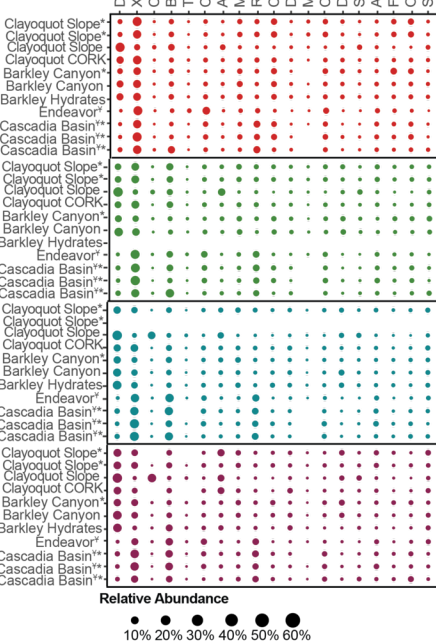
Desulfobacteriales
Xanthomonadales
Campylobacteriales
Brocadiales
Thiotrichales
Chromatiales
Anaerolineales
Myxococcales
Rhodospirillales
Cellvibrionales
Desulfurculales
Methylococcales
Cytophagales
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Spirochaetales
Acidimicrobiales
Flavobacteriales
Oceanospirillales
Syntrophobacteriales



Canadian Seep & Reference Sites

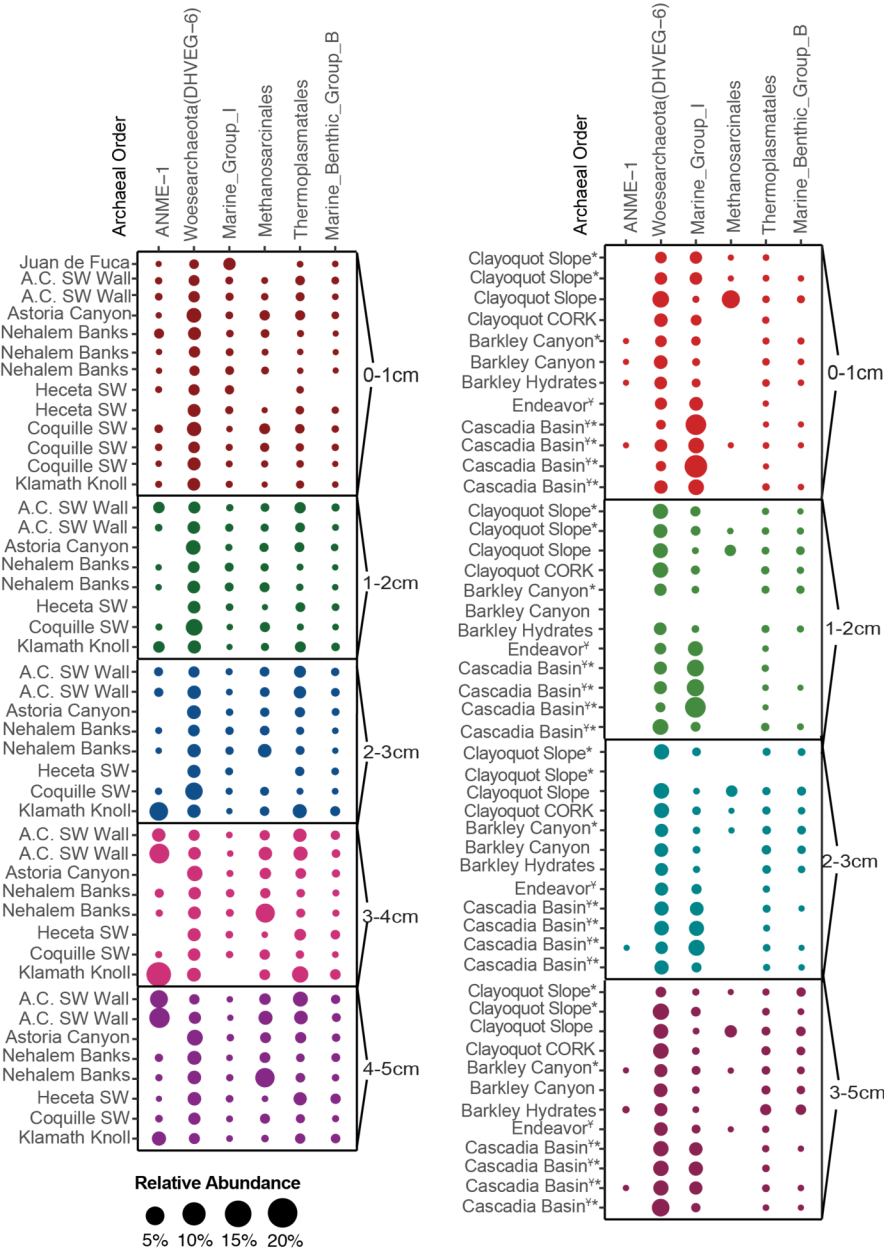
Bacterial Order

Desulfobacteriales
Xanthomonadales
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Oregon/Washington/California Margin Seep Sites

Canadian Seep & Reference Sites



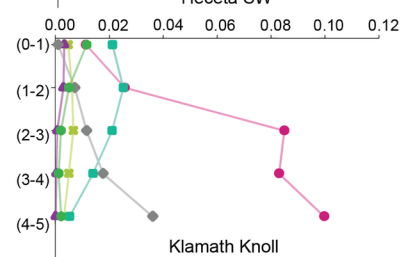
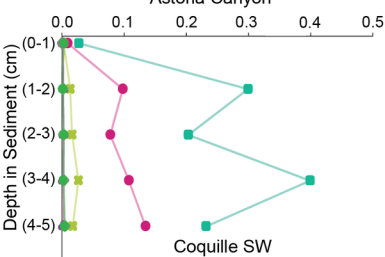
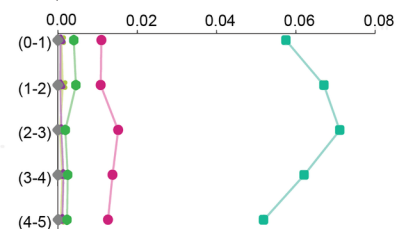
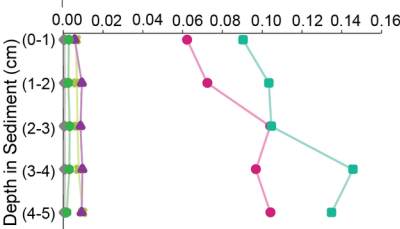
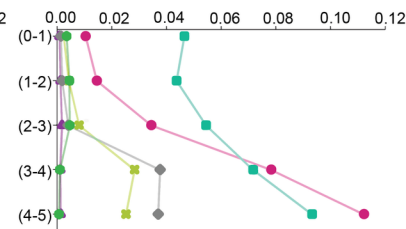
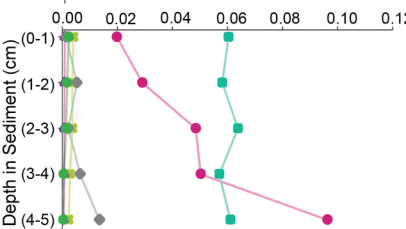
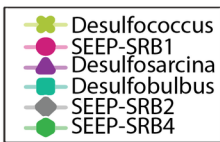
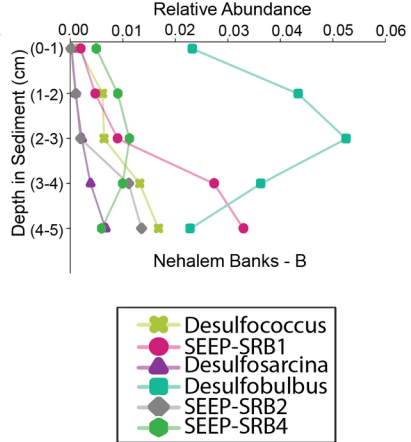
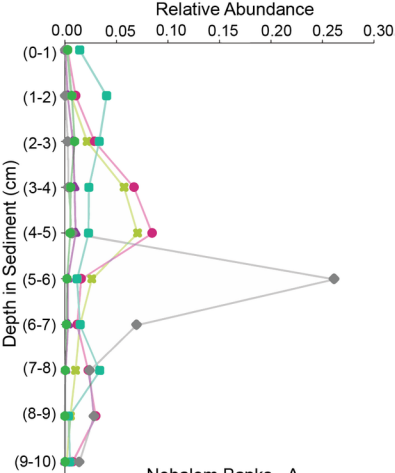


Table 1: Sampling sites off the Washington/Oregon/California Margin, 40-48°N, during E/V *Nautilus* cruise NA072 and off of British Columbia, Canada), 47-49°N, during TG Thompson (TN328), and E/V *Nautilus* (NA071) cruises.

Cruise Number	Date Sampled	Site	Latitude (N)	Longitude (W)	Depth (m)	Temperature (°C)	Oxygen (µmol/L)	Habitat description
NA072	June 2016	Juan de Fuca	48.1015	-125.5544	150	6.67	90.48	Microbial mats*
NA072	June 2016	Nehalem Bank	45.8837	-124.6434	190	6.75	66.61	Microbial mats (orange and white)*
NA072	June 2016	Astoria Canyon	46.2422	-124.6494	850	3.76	4.78	Microbial mats*, polychaete beds, exposed hydrates, pockmarks
NA072	June 2016	Astoria Canyon SW wall	46.2224	-124.6564	495	5.02	24.46	Clam beds*, authigenic carbonates
NA072	June 2016	Heceta SW	43.9109	-125.0756	1225	3.05	16.26	Siboglinidae assemblages*, microbial mats*, clam beds* polychaete beds, polychaete beds, authigenic carbonates, exposed hydrates, pockmarks
NA072	June 2016	Coquille SW	42.7107	-124.9011	615	4.61	7.43	Microbial mats*, clam beds*, authigenic carbonates
NA072	June 2016	Klamath Knoll	41.4274	-124.8917	735	4.07	5.27	Clam beds*, microbial mats (orange and white), authigenic carbonates
NA072	June 2016	Trinidad ² Canyon	41.1385	-124.9443	2149	1.98	56.90	Siboglinidae assemblages, gooseneck barnacles, live and dead clam bed assemblages, patches of reduced sediment, authigenic carbonates
TN328, NA071	Sept 2015, May 2016	Clayoquot Slope	48.6707	-126.8478	1250	2.85	13.4-22.3	Muddy sediments*, methane gas, bubbles, extensive microbial mats, clam beds*, methane gas hydrates
TN328, NA071	Sept 2015, May 2016	Barkley Canyon	48.3166	-126.0508	985	3.61	6.7-13.4	Muddy sediments*, microbial mats, methane gas hydrates, exposed hydrate mounds, clam beds
NA071	May 2016	Endeavour	47.9493	-129.0983	2300	2.47	54.46	Mid-Ocean Ridge; Hydrothermal vent field rich with fissures, pillow lava deposits sulphide towers, rocky outcrops, fine grained sediment*
TN328	May 2015	Cascadia Basin	47.7627	-127.7589	2660	1.78	72.56	Abyssal Plain; Fine-grained sediment*

* Indicates habitat sediment core was taken from

² Not sampled