Supplemental Information

Influence of oxygen and nitrate on Fe (hydr)oxide mineral transformation and soil microbial communities during redox cycling

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The Supporting Information contains 15 pages with a detailed description of sample preparation and analysis by X-ray Diffraction (XRD) and X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy (XAS). Additional Figures and Tables illustrate: the experimental summery (Table S1); nitrate concentrations during redox cycling with nitrate (Figure S1); aqueous Fe(II) concentrations, total Fe(II) concentrations and Fe (hydr)oxide mineralogy in Control Fe reducing reactors (Figure S2); taxa enriched by more than 1% in Control Fe reducing reactors (Figure S3); EXAFS spectra and fits for solid samples (Figures S4, S5 and S6); XRD patterns of solid samples (Figure S7 and S8); and characterization of 16S clone libraries (Table S2).

Solid Phase Analysis

X-ray Diffraction. XRD was utilized to verify the presence of crystalline Fe oxide phases used in the linear combination XAS analysis (described below). Samples for XRD analysis were ground into a fine powder using a mortar and pestle, packed into a boron silicate glass capillary tube, and sealed inside the glovebox to maintain anaerobic conditions. XRD patterns were collected using a Rigaku Rapid II X-ray diffractometer operating at 50 kV and 50 mA using Mo-K α radiation. Diffraction data was collected over a 2.0 - 45° 20.

X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy. XAS data was collected either at GSE-CARS beamline 13-BMD at the Advanced Photon Source (APS) or beamline 4-1 at the Stanford Synchrotron Radiation Lightsource (SSRL). At the APS, energy selection was accomplished using a Si <111> double crystal monochromator and spectra were recorded in transmission using gas ionization chambers. At SSRL, energy selection was accomplished using a Si <220> double crystal monochromator, and fluorescent X-ray production was monitored using a Lytle detector with Söller slits and a 3 µx Mn filter to limit scattered incident X-rays. Samples for XAS analysis were ground into a fine powder and ~ 30 mg of the powder were diluted in boron nitride, packed into a sample holder (20 x 5 mm), and sealed with Kapton polyamide tape inside a glovebox to maintain anaerobic conditions during analysis. Between 2 and 5 extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectra were collected and averaged for each sample. Averaged EXAFS spectra were then transformed from eV to Å⁻¹ to produce the function $\gamma[k]$, where k (Å⁻¹) is the photoelectron wave vector, which was then weighted by k^3 . Relative percentages of Fe mineral phases were determined by linear combination fitting of k^3 -weighted EXAFS experimental spectra of Fe mineral standards using SIXPACK software.¹ The Fe mineral standards used were: two-line ferrihydrite (Fe(OH)₃), lepidocrocite (γ -FeOOH), goethite (α -FeOOH), maghemite (γ - Fe_2O_3) and magnetite ($Fe^{II}Fe_2^{III}O_4$). In our results, maghemite represents partially oxidized magnetite.

| Table S1. Experimental outline listing the days in which Fe reduction (addition of glucose) and | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Fe oxidation (addition of nitrate or dissolved oxygen) began. | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |

| Experiment | Initial Fe (hydr)oxide | Glucose addition (days) | Nitrate addition (days) | Oxygen addition (days) |
|--|---------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| Fe cycling with nitrate | Lepidocrocite | 0, 26, 55, 79 | 21, 49, 74, 101 | - |
| | Ferrihydrite | 0, 26, 55, 79 | 21, 49, 74, 101 | - |
| Fe cycling with molecular O ₂ | Lepidocrocite | 0, 26, 52, 77 | - | 21, 49, 74, 101 |
| | Ferrihydrite | 0, 26, 52, 77 | - | 21, 49, 74, 101 |
| Fe reduction | Lepidocrocite | 0 | - | - |
| | Ferrihydrite | 0 | - | - |

| Taxonomic | Putative Physiology | |
|-------------------|--|--|
| Classification | | |
| Cupriavidus | Fe(II) phyllosilicate-oxidizing ² | |
| Ralstonia | Plant pathogen ³ | |
| Geobacter | Fe(III)-reducing | |
| Propionivibrio | Fermentative, acetate oxidation with ClO_4^- , ClO_3^- , NO_3^- or NO_2^{-4} | |
| Desulfovibrio | Sulfate-reducing ⁵ | |
| Sporomusa | Fermenting ⁶ | |
| Dechloromonas | Fe(II)-oxidizing ⁷ | |
| Desulfosporosinus | Sulfate-reducing; U(VI)-reducing ⁸ | |
| Clostridium | Fermentative Fe(III)-reducing ⁹ | |
| Desulfomicrobium | Sulfate-reducing ¹⁰ | |
| Rhodocyclus | Denitrifying ¹¹ | |
| Sedimentibacter | Fermenting ¹² | |
| Acetobacterium | Acetate-producing ¹³ | |
| Tolumonas | Toluene-producing ¹⁴ | |
| Pseudomonas | Organic carbon degrading | |
| Mycoplana | Decompose aromatic compounds ¹⁵ | |
| Caulobacter | Organic carbon degrading ¹⁶ | |
| Sulfurospirillum | Arsenate, Fe(III), Nitrate reducing ¹⁷ | |
| Fusibacter | Fermenting ¹⁸ | |

Table S2. Characterization of 16S clone libraries.

Sulfate-reducing organisms in Fe redox cycling. Redox cycling with glucose and dissolved O₂ stimulates the enrichment of *Geobacter* (~28%) over other taxa (Figure 3). However, sulfate reducers (e.g. *Desulfovibrio* and *Desulfomicrobium*) and fermenting organisms (e.g. *Mycoplana and Propionivibrio*) are also detected at relatively low abundance levels (Figure 3). The increase in sulfate reducer abundance correlates with consumption of sulfate (0.5 mM initial concentration) during the first reducing period. Consistent with Fe(III) reduction occurring simultaneously with sulfate reduction and fermentation.^{20,5,21}

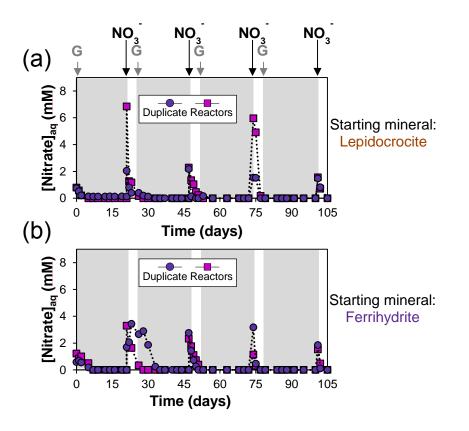


Figure S1. Impact of redox cycling with glucose (G) and nitrate (NO₃⁻) on aqueous nitrate concentrations in reactors containing lepidocrocite (a) and ferrihydrite (b) as the starting minerals.

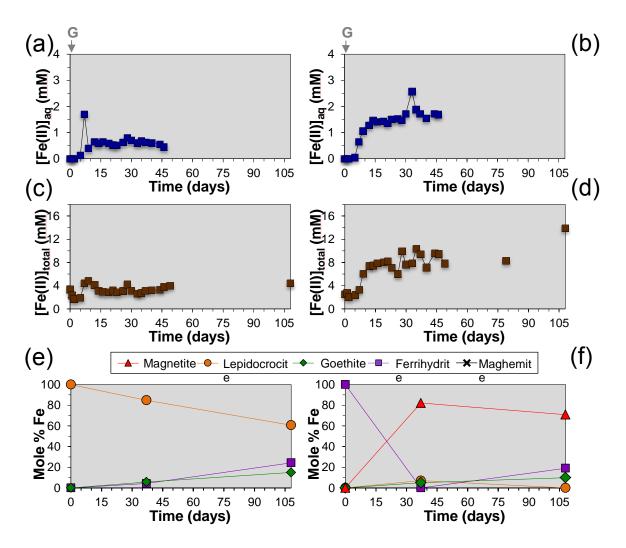


Figure S2. Impact of reduction with one glucose (G) addition on aqueous Fe(II) (a, b), total Fe(II) (c, d) and Fe (hydr)oxide mineralogy (e, f) in reactors containing lepidocrocite(a, c, e) or ferrihydrite(b, d, f) as the starting minerals.

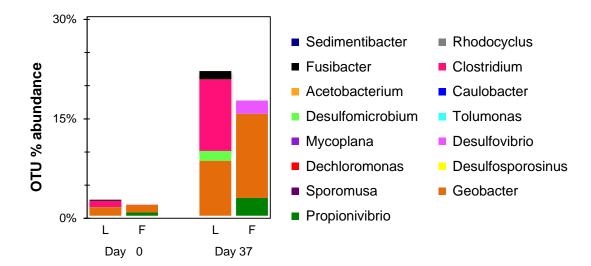


Figure S3. Taxa enriched by more than 1% (~25 reads) after 37 days of one reduction with glucose in the presence of lepidocrocite (L) and ferrihydrite (F) as the starting minerals. All taxa with functional classification are available in Table S1.

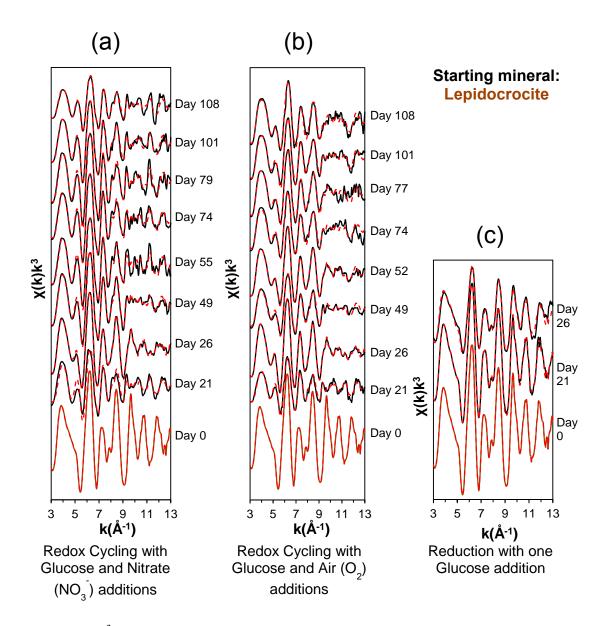


Figure S4. k^3 -weighted EXAFS spectra (solid line) and linear combination fits (dotted line) for the solid phase products at the end of each reduction and oxidation periods. The starting mineral is lepidocrocite, and redox cycles are induced with glucose (G) and nitrate (NO₃⁻) additions (a); glucose (G) and air (O₂) additions (b); and only one glucose addition (c).

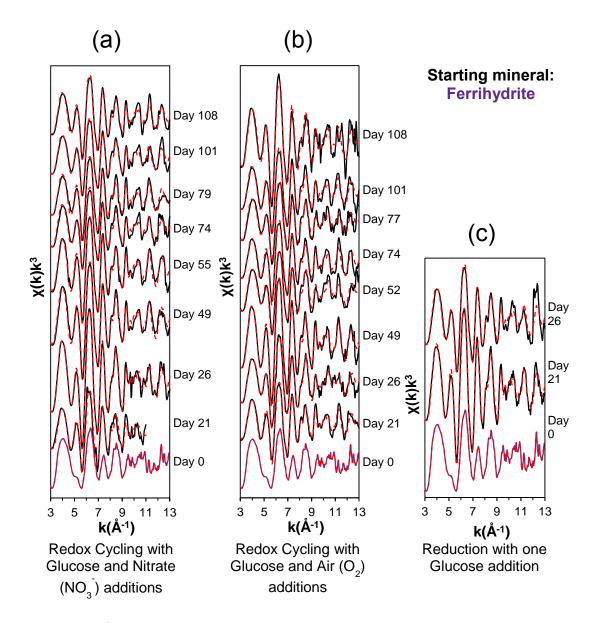


Figure S5. k^3 -weighted EXAFS spectra (solid line) and linear combination fits (striped line) for the solid phase products at the end of each reduction and oxidation periods. The starting mineral is ferrihydrite, and redox cycles are induced with glucose (G) and nitrate (NO₃⁻) additions (a); glucose (G) and air (O₂) additions (b); and only one glucose addition (c).

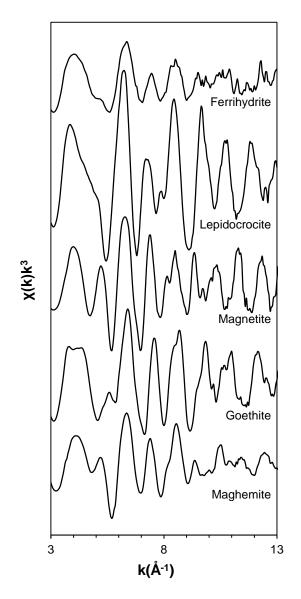


Figure S6. K³-weighted EXAFS spectra (solid line) for the solid phase Fe mineral standards used in linear combination fitting.

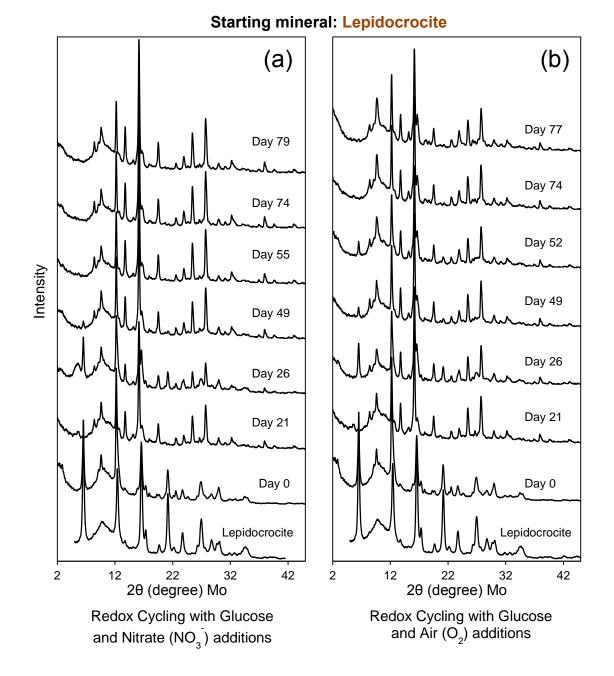
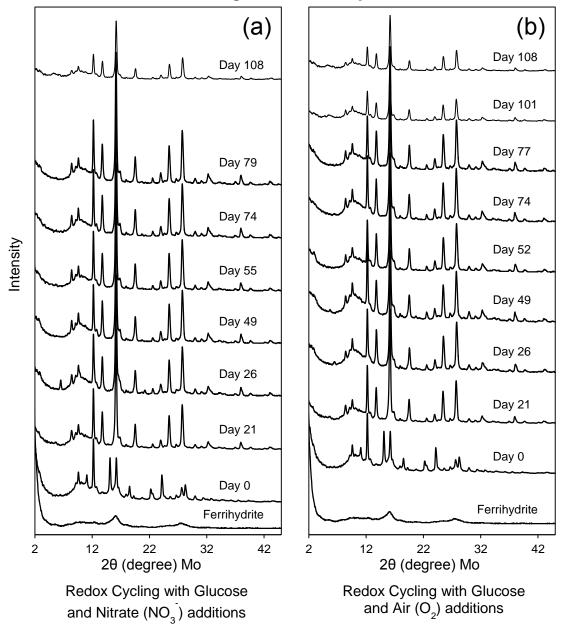


Figure S7. Powder X-ray diffraction spectra for the solid phase products at the end of each reduction and oxidation periods. The starting mineral is lepidocrocite, and redox cycles are induced with glucose (G) and nitrate (NO_3^-) additions (a) or glucose (G) and air (O₂) additions (b).



Starting mineral: Ferrihydrite

Figure S8. Powder X-ray diffraction spectra for the solid phase products at the end of each reduction and oxidation periods. The starting mineral is ferrihydrite, and redox cycles are

induced with glucose (G) and nitrate (NO₃⁻) additions (a) or glucose (G) and air (O₂) additions (b).

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