Indus and Nubra Valley hot springs affirm the geomicrobiological specialties of Trans-Himalavan hydrothermal systems

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Abbreviations used in the paper: TDS, total dissolved solids; ICPMS, inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry; EDTA, ethylenedianinetetraacetic acid; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; OTUs, operational taxonomic units; RDP, Ribosomal Database Project; SILVA, it is the name (derived from Latin silva, meaning forest) of an online collection of aligned rRNA gene sequence databases.

Abstract

Geomicrobiologies of the hot springs of Chumathang and Panamik (located in the Indus and Nubra valleys of eastern and northern Ladakh respectively) were revealed, and compared with the Lotus Pond spring of Puga Valley (eastern Ladakh), which is known for its mineralogical and ecological peculiarities. Physicochemically, the vent-waters of the explored springs, Chumathang 01, Panamik 01 and Panamik 02, were distinct from Lotus Pond, with wide variations in boron, chloride, lithium, magnesium and potassium concentrations. Their microbiomes encompassed several unique constituents, but resembled Lotus Pond in being highly-diversified and bacterialmesophiles-dominated. Higher diversities of thermophilic archaea were detected in Chumathang 01, than Panamik_01 or Panamik_02. Statistical analysis of the geochemical and microbiological data highlighted the overall uniqueness of Lotus Pond, the constraint imposed by high-temperature on the diversity of most bacterial groups, and the potential role of *in-situ* geochemicals in helping mesophilic bacteria inhabit the high temperature environments. While the microbiome architecture of the 86°C Chumathang_01 (having the highest bacterial species count) closely resembled that of the geochemically-similar, 78°C Panamik_01, both the biomes were apparently shaped by temperature and pH. In contrast, the distinctive geochemistry of the 81°C Lotus Pond was apparently instrumental in sustaining a microbiome similar to that of the cooler (70°C) Panamik_02.

Kev words: Trans-Himalayan hot spring systems; hot spring geochemistry; hot spring microbiome; mesophilic bacteria in high-temperature habitats.

1. Introduction

Aspects of geochemistry and microbiology have been characterized so well for certain types of terrestrial and marine hydrothermal systems that they have been instrumental in establishing the hypothesis of high-temperature origin of life on a firm footing (Miller and Bada 1988; Russell and Hall 1997; Wächtershäuser G 2006; Martin et al. 2008; Ghosh and Dam 2009; Patel et al. 2015; Ranjan et al. 2018). Of all terrestrial hot springs, the best studied ones are those which (i) slowly vent sulfurous, acidic fluids (Jones et al. 2000; Johnson et al. 2001, 2003; Owen et al. 2008) or (ii) rapidly discharge circumneutral to alkaline pH, sulfidic fluids having high concentrations of silicon, chloride and carbonate/bicarbonate (Mathrani et al. 1993; Atkinson et al. 2000; Hetzer et al. 2007; Roeselers et al. 2007). Based on the large body of geomicrobiological information available from these two types of springs across the world, the connection between hydrothermal habitats and thermophilic microbial groups has become almost axiomatic (Schwartzman and Lineweaver 2004; Des Marais and Walter 2019). This said, geographically and geologically distinct hot spring systems, by virtue of affording different sets of ecosystem opportunities and constraints, do host distinctive microbiotas (Ghosh et al. 2015; Chiriac et al. 2017; Ghilamicael et al. 2017; Power et al. 2018; Colman et al. 2019). Physicochemical factors intrinsic to different hydrothermal systems potentially confer differential levels of habitability to distinct hot spring environments (Xie et al., 2011; Alsop et al., 2014; Cowan et al., 2015; Najar et al. 2018; Roy et al. 2020b), thereby often allowing the colonization of high temperature sites by such microbial groups which have no known thermophilic members in their taxonomic ranks (Jimenez et al. 2012; Wemheuer et al. 2013; Chan et al. 2015; Ghosh et al. 2015; Menzel et al. 2015; Roy et al. 2016, 2020a, 2020b).

Recent explorations of geomicrobiology carried out for the sulfur-boron-rich hot springs of Puga Valley in eastern Ladakh have revealed peculiar, mesophiles-dominated microbiomes within this mineralogically special, Trans-Himalayan hydrothermal system (Roy *et al.* 2016, 2020a, 2020b). The unique geochemistry of the Puga hot springs - which includes the discharge of boiling or nearboiling water having circumneutral pH, accompanied by low levels of sulfide, silicon and total dissolved solids (TDS), but high concentrations of sodium, boron, elemental sulfur and sulfate - have been hypothesized as the key facilitator of the high *in-situ* diversity of microorganisms (Roy *et al.* 2020b). Furthermore, the characteristic geohydrology of the Puga hot spring area, located just south of the collision-boundary between the Asian and Indian continental plates involved in Himalayan orogeny (this tectonically-active terrain is called the Indus Tsangpo Suture Zone, abbreviated as ITSZ; Gansser 1964), has been identified as the key driver of microbial flux through the hydrothermal system (Roy *et al.* 2020a). In this scenario it is imperative, as well as timely, to reveal

the microbiomes of other Trans-Himalayan hot spring systems and consider the community architectures in the context of the systems' geology and chemistry. Increasing geomicrobiological knowledge on the Trans-Himalayan hot springs would enhance our overall understanding of the less-explored third category of hydrothermal systems which they represent, namely, the mineralogically diverse, neutral pH to slightly alkaline, hot springs that are typically located in areas of elevated groundwater level and/or copious melting snow or rain (Skirnisdottir *et al.* 2000; Huang *et al.* 2011). Moreover, the idiosyncratic pattern of microbiome composition discovered during the initial explorations of Trans-Himalayan hot springs suggests that these ecosystems may hold potentially paradigm-changing implications for our understanding of life's adaptation to heat, the nature of ancient metabolism, and the geobiological frameworks of early ecosystems on Earth as well as in potential extra-terrestrial locations.

In the present study centered on the Chumathang and Panamik hot spring systems located at 3950 m and 3200 m altitudes within the Indus and Nubra valleys of Eastern and Northern Ladakh respectively (figure 1), we explore the vent-waters' chemical and microbial compositions, and evaluate the geochemical dependencies of the microbiome architectures in the context of equivalent information available for the well studied Lotus Pond spring (Ghosh *et al.* 2012; Roy *et al.* 2016, 2020a) of the Puga geothermal area (altitude: 4436 m), which is also located in Eastern Ladakh, only ~20 km (aerial distance) away from Chumathang, but to the south of the Indus river across a watershed. Our comparative analyses reveal distinctive as well as unifying geomicrobiological features (physicochemical factors promoting and/or constraining the microbiota) for the hydrothermal systems located in the distinct Trans-Himalayan territories.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Geography and geology of the study area

The Trans-Himalayan region of Ladakh lies in the rain shadow zone of the Great Himalayan Range, and features a pristine, cold arid territory having minimum winter temperature around -40° C and very low rainfall round the year (Shukla *et al.* 2017). It encompasses at least three such high energy geothermal area, namely Puga, Chumathang and Panamik (figure 1), which have documented potentials for power generation (Craig *et al.* 2013). All these geothermal systems apparently originate from the northward movement of the Indian continental plate beneath the Eurasian plate near the southern Tibet margin, and are controlled by the major tectonic fault boundaries such as ITSZ for Puga and Chumathang, and Shyok Suture Zone for Panamik (Tiwari *et al.* 2016). Whereas the Puga geothermal valley (GPS coordinates of the prototypical Lotus Pond spring is 33°13'46.3" N

and 78°21'19.7" E) is to the immediate south of ITSZ, Chumathang is to its north (GPS coordinates 33°21'37.03" N; 78°19'24.51" E). Panamik hot springs, on the other hand, are located in the Nubra valley (34°46'49.92" N and 77°32'32.49" E), south of the Karakoram fault system (Borneman *et al.* 2015).

2.2 Vent-water sampling

At the time of sampling, i.e., 11:00 h of 12 August 2017, all the three venting points tested in the Chumathang geothermal area were found to discharge 86°C waters having pH 8.25, so only one of them, referred to as Chumathang_01, was sampled for further geochemical and microbiological studies. In contrast, at the time of sampling, i.e., 11:00 h of 15 August 2017, all the four venting points tested in the Panamik geothermal area were found to discharge waters having pH 7.75, whereas two of the springs vented 78°C waters and the other two vented 70°C waters. At Panamik, therefore, one spring each was chosen from the two temperature categories for sampling and further investigation; these sites, located within a distance of 5 m from each other, were designated as Panamik_01 (78°C) and Panamik_02 (70°C).

For chemical analyses, vent-water samples were collected after filtration through 0.22 μ m mixed cellulose ester membranes (Merck Life Science Private Limited, India) using separate sterile pipettes for individual sites. Batches of 100 mL sample meant for quantification of metallic elements were all acidified to pH \leq 2 by adding 400-450 μ L of 69% (w/v) HNO₃. Batches of 40 mL sample meant for estimating sulfate concentration by the standard gravimetric precipitation method were first acidified to pH 2.0 by adding a few drops of 1.2 N HCl. 1 mL preheated BaCl₂ was then added and mixed vigorously to precipitate the dissolved sulfate as BaSO₄ (Roy *et al.* 2020a).

For culture-independent studies of microbiology, 300 mL batches of vent-water sample were individually passed through sterile 0.22 µm mixed cellulose ester membranes, following which the filters were inserted into separate cryovials containing 5 mL of 50 mM Tris:EDTA having pH 7.8 (Roy *et al.* 2016, 2020a, 2020b). The cryovials were sealed with Parafilm (Bemis Company Inc., USA), packed in polyethylene bags and put into heat-insulated boxes containing dry ice. The sample-containing boxes were immediately dispatched to the laboratory at Bose Institute, and total community DNA was extracted from the samples immediately upon arrival.

2.3 Chemical analyses

Vent-water samples were tested for the concentrations of boron, calcium, lithium, magnesium and potassium with the help of inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICPMS) on an iCAP QICPMS (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA), as per instructions provided by the manufacturer. ICPMS

standards (Sigma Aldrich, USA, and VHG Labs Inc., USA) were used to prepare the calibration curves for these analyses; after analyzing multiple concentrations of the standards in triplicates, <2%, <1%, <2.1%, <1% and <2.5% deviations from actual concentrations were observed for boron, calcium, lithium, magnesium and potassium respectively.

Sodium concentration in the vent-water samples was determined with the help of a 240 AA atomic absorption spectrometer (Agilent Technologies, USA). After analyzing multiple concentrations of the standard (Sigma Aldrich, USA) in triplicates, deviations from the actual concentrations of sodium used were found to be <3%. Concentration of silicon in the vent-water samples was estimated with the help of a CARY 100 UV-visible spectrophotometer (Varian Deutschland GmbH, Germany), as described elsewhere (Grasshoff *et al.* 1999). In order to quantify chloride ions, precipitation titration with 0.1 N silver nitrate was carried out, as described previously (Mazumdar *et al.* 2009), using a Titrino 799GPT auto titrator (Metrohm AG, Switzerland). Sulfate concentrations of the vent-water samples were determined in the laboratory, as described previously (Pyne *et al.* 2018; Rameez *et al.* 2020), via standard gravimetric analysis of the barium sulfate precipitates already generated during sampling at the study sites. Sulfate concentration was also measured directly in the vent-water samples by using an ion chromatograph (Basic IC plus 883, Metrohm AG, Switzerland) that was equipped with a Metrosep A Supp 5 anion exchange column and a suppressed conductivity detector (both from Metrohm AG, Switzerland), as described elsewhere (Fernandes *et al.* 2018).

2.4 Assessment of microbial diversity

For each study site (Chumathang_01, Panamik_01 or Panamik_02), total community DNA (metagenome) was extracted, as described previously (Roy *et al.* 2016, 2020a), from the microbial biomass that was filtered from the corresponding vent-water sample *in-situ*. Previous studies of microbial ecology based on a number of Puga Valley hot springs, such as Lotus Pond, Shivlinga, PCPR_1 and PCPR_2 (Roy *et al.* 2016, 2020a, 2020b), had comprehensively revealed the *in-situ* bacterial diversities using oligonucleotide primers that exclusively amplify the V3 regions of the *Bacteria*-specific 16S rRNA genes present in the total community DNA. In contrast, a similar investigation of the Shivlinga hot spring-microbialite system of Puga Valley, which attempted to reveal the *in-situ* archaeal diversity using oligonucleotide primers targeting the V3 regions of *Archaea*-specific 16S rRNA genes, failed to obtain any PCR product (Roy *et al.* 2020b); presently, the same primer pair also failed to yield any PCR product from the vent-water community DNA of the Chumathang and Panamik hot springs. Explorations of various other habitats, however, have successfully detected taxonomically diverse archaea by using oligonucleotide primers that target the

V4-V5 regions of Archaea-specific 16S rRNA genes (Baker et al. 2003; Pal et al. 2020). Therefore, to reveal the bacterial or archaeal diversity present in the vent-water samples studied, V3 or V4-V5 regions of all the bacteria- or archaea-derived 16S rRNA genes present in the corresponding metagenomes were PCR-amplified and sequenced on an Ion S5 next-generation DNA sequencing machine (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA), using the fusion primer protocol (Ghosh et al. 2015; Fernandes et al. 2018). While the forward primer 5' - CCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG - 3' and the reverse primer 5' - ATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG - 3' were used to amplify the V3 regions of the bacterial 16S rRNA genes, the V4-V5 regions of the archaeal counterparts were amplified using the 5' - GCYTAAAGSRICCGTAGC forward and reverse primers 3' and 51 TTTCAGYCTTGCGRCCGTAC - 3' respectively (Baker et al. 2003). The sequence datasets obtained from Ion S5 sequencing were submitted for public accession to Sequence Read Archive, National Center for Biotechnology Information, USA, under BioProject PRJNA296849, with separate run accession numbers for each dataset (table S1). Filtration of the reads of a given dataset for quality value 20 and sequence length threshold 100 bp, followed by their clustering (using modules of UPARSE; Edgar 2013) into operational taxonomic units (OTUs, or putative species-level entities unified at the 97% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity level), were all carried out as described previously (Roy et al. 2020a, 2020b). Singletons were eliminated from the final OTU sets obtained, following which the online tool RDP Classifier, located at http://rdp.cme.msu.edu/classifier/classifier.jsp, was used to taxonomically identify the consensus sequence of each OTU present in a given set. Notably, searching against the taxonomic classifications curated semi-manually in the RDP and the SILVA databases classify 16S rRNA gene sequence data with equally high accuracy, so either of the two can be the database of choice for genus-level identification of sequences; in contrast, other databases available for this purpose have issues with size and/or presence of too many intermediate ranks/nodes in their taxonomic classifications (Balvočiūtė and Huson 2017). Furthermore, SILVA derives taxonomic rank information from Taxonomic Outline of the Archaea and Bacteria, published by John Wiley & Sons, Inc., in association with Bergey's Manual Trust (https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118960608.bm00024), and the List of Prokaryotic Names with Standing in Nomenclature (https://www.bacterio.net/), whereas RDP incorporates 16S rRNA gene sequences from International Nucleotide Sequence Database Collaboration (https://www.insdc.org/) and ascribes taxon names with reference to Prokaryotic Nomenclature Up-to-Date (https://www.gbif.org/dataset/52a423d2-0486-4e77-bcee-6350d708d6ff). In the present study, therefore, taxonomic identification of OTU sequences was carried out via RDP-based classification as it allowed the identification of the most contemporary taxa potentially represented in the datasets. Rarefaction curves, generated with the help of UPARSE modules, indicated that the read-contents of all the datasets generated were adequate to discover almost the entire bacterial or archaeal diversities that were there in the samples (figure S1).

2.5 Mathematical analyses

The *Clustergram* function of 'MATLAB 2017b' (Martinez *et al.* 2017) was used to perform hierarchical clustering, and generation of heat maps and two-way dendrograms, for the hot springs under consideration, based on their physicochemical or microbiological data. Within *Clustergram*, Euclidean distances matrices and average linkages were delineated to cluster the rows (study sites) and columns (physicochemical or microbiological parameters) of the individual datasets.

Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA, Ter Braak 1986) was carried out to reveal the influence of environmental (physicochemical) parameters on the overall bacterial diversity, as well as the diversity of major bacterial phyla, across the four Trans-Himalayan hydrothermal vents Chumathang_01, Panamik_01, Panamik_02 and Lotus Pond. The CCA was derived in terms of the linear regression of the two data matrices on the basis of the row and column scores that actually determined the orthogonal contrasts of the two data matrices (De Leeuw and Mair 2009; notably, the two data matrices used in CCA were same as the ones used for hierarchical clustering). In the first data matrix, only those 12 environmental (physicochemical) parameters were considered for which data are available from all the four vents considered (table 1); in the second matrix, only those 10 (major) bacterial phyla were included which have five or more OTUs detected from at least one of the four vents (besides the data for the 10 major phyla, parameters of overall bacterial diversity were also included in the second matrix; see table 2). A two-dimensional solution was fitted for the entire geomicrobiological data encompassed in the two matrices, using the R package "anacor" (De Leeuw and Mair 2009). Notably, archaeal OTUs were detected in the present exploration of the Chumathang and Panamik hot springs, but those data were not included in the hierarchical clustering or CCA because of the lack of corresponding information from the comparator hot spring of Puga Valley.

3. Results

3.1 Geochemical distinctions of the Trans-Himalayan hot springs studied

The hot springs of Chumathang and Panamik were found to be distinguished considerably by their physicochemical characters (table 1). While all the vents surveyed in Chumathang discharged warmer waters, their pH was also slightly more alkaline. In terms of chemcial constituents, Chumathang_01, the only spring representing this geothermal area in the current study, discharged approximately 30 times more boron, 10 times more chloride, 5 times more lithium, 2-3 times more

sulfate, calcium, magnesium, potassium and sodium, than Panamik_01 or Panamik_02. Correspondingly, Chumathang_01 had more than twice the concentration of TDS than the Panamik vents.

Although the Chumathang geothermal area is in close proximity of Puga Valley, its springs discharged water having slightly higher temperature and pH, and distinct chemical constitution as compared to those of Puga (table 1). Notably, springs of both Chumathang and Puga discharge boiling water, but since the valley of Puga is situated at a higher altitude (4436 m) boiling point of water is relatively lower in that area. In terms of chemical constitution, all the inorganic solutes tested, except calcium and sulfate, were found at have lower concentrations in the Chumathang vent-water. Correspondingly, Chumathang_01 had approximately only half the concentration of TDS than Lotus Pond (table 1).

The two springs explored in Panamik differed not only in terms of their vent-water temperature but also the concentrations of TDS, silicon and sodium (standard deviation equal to 7%, 5% and 3.5% of the mean respectively). However, their concentrations of boron, chloride, calcium, lithium, potassium, magnesium and sulfate deviated <1% from the respective means. Furthermore, the Panamik springs were not only distinct from Chumathang_01 but also Lotus Pond in terms of solute concentrations. All the chemical constituents tested, except calcium and sulfate, were found to have far lower concentrations in Panamik_01 and Panamik_02, as compared to Lotus Pond; TDS concentration of the Panamik vents was almost one third of the Lotus Pond TDS concentration (table 1).

Two-dimensional hierarchical clustering of Chumathang_01, Panamik_01, Panamik_02 and Lotus Pond in terms of the physicochemical properties of their vent-waters highlighted the geochemical distinctiveness of Lotus Pond, besides a close relationship between Chumathang_01 and Panamik_01, and the intermediate position of Panamik_02 (figure 2A). The heat map comparing the individual physicochemical parameters across the four vents (figure 2A) further illustrated the wide variations observed for the concentrations of boron, chloride, lithium, magnesium and potassium (standard deviation of the concentration data for each of these elements/ions was greater than the corresponding mean). Considerable variations were also highlighted for the concentrations of calcium, sodium, sulfate and TDS (for each of these parameters, standard deviation of the data was greater than 50% of the corresponding mean).

3.2 Archaea of the Chumathang and Panamik hot springs

Chumathang_01, as well as Panamik_01 and Panamik_02, were found to encompass small but definite levels of archaeal diversity (table 2), even as no archaea has thus far been identified from the comparator springs of Puga Valley. Almost all the archaeal OTUs detected in the vent-waters of the Chumathang and Panamik hot springs were ascribed to either *Crenarchaeota* or unclassified (hitherto unknown) *Archaea* (table 2; figure S2A). Apart from these, two *Euryarchaeota* and one *Korarchaeota* OTUs were detected in Chumathang_01, and only one *Thaumarchaeota*-affiliated OTU was there in Panamik_02 (table 2). Thus, Chumathang_01 encompassed no OTU from *Thaumarchaeota*, while Panamik_01 had none affiliated to *Euryarchaeota*, *Korarchaeota* or *Thaumarchaeota*, and Panamik_02 had no representative of *Euryarchaeota* or *Korarchaeota* (table 2).

Among the three vent-water samples investigated, Chumathang_01 had the highest archaeal diversity (55 OTUs detected altogether). Out of the 26 *Crenarchaeota*-affiliated OTUs identified in Chumathang_01 (table 2), only six could be classified under *Pyrodictium* (1), *Pyrobaculum* (4) and *Thermofilum* (1), while 20 were potential novel members of the pylum (table S3). Furthermore, in Chumathang_01, both the *Euryarchaeota* OTUs detected belonged to *Archaeoglobus* while the sole *Korarchaeota* OTU identified belonged to *Candidatus* Korarchaeum (table S3). Apart from these, Chumathang_01 harbored 26 more OTUs and all of them belonged to unclassified *Archaea* (table 2).

The vent-water of Panamik_01 encompassed a total of 30 archaeal OTUs. Out of the 13 *Crenarchaeota*-affiliated OTUs present in this sample (table 2), only one could be identified as belonging to *Caldisphaera* (table S3) while the rest were potential novel members of the phylum. Apart from the *Crenarchaeota* OTUs, Panamik_01 only had 17 more OTUs and all of them belonged to unclassified *Archaea* (table 2).

Of the three vent-water samples explored, Panamik_02 had the lowest archaeal diversity (10 OTUs detected in all). Here, all the three *Crenarchaeota*-affiliated OTUs detected (table 2) were unclassified (table S3), so potentially belonged to novel taxa under this phylum. On the other hand, the sole *Thaumarchaeota*-affiliated OTU present in Panamik_02 was classified under the genus *Nitrososphaera* (table S3). Panamik_02 additionally had six OTUs belonging to unclassified *Archaea* (table 2).

3.3 Shared and unique components of the vent-water microbiomes

16S rRNA gene sequence-based diversity analysis showed that the vent-waters of Chumathang and Panamik hot springs harbor rich microbial diversities. The three springs investigated across the two Trans-Himalayan territories encompassed 329-892 and 10-55 species-level entities or OTUs of bacteria and archaea respectively (table 2). They also contained 40-84 and 1-5 established genuslevel entities over which the detected bacterial and archaeal OTUs could be classified respectively (tables S2 and S3); number of established phyla identified for the individual vent-water samples in the same way ranged between 9-13 and 1-3 for bacteria and archaea respectively (table 2). Bacterial diversity in the Chumathang and Panamik vent-water samples was typically higher than that of Lotus Pond in terms of species-level diversity (OTU count) but not the number of established genera or phyla detected after classifying the OTUs (table 2).

Despite having the highest temperature among the four Trans-Himalayan springs considered, species-level bacterial diversity (OTU count) of Chumathang_01 was approximately double, more than double, and more than thrice that of Panamik_01, Panamik_02, and Lotus Pond, respectively (table 2). A large fraction of this high species-level diversity of Chumathang_01 (511 out of the total 892 OTUs detected) was attributed to hitherto unknown, and therefore unclassified, *Bacteria*, in accordance with which the number of established phyla or genera over which the detected bacterial OTUs were classified was also quite low for Chumathang_01 (table 2). Remarkably, only five phyla, *Actinobacteria, Chloroflexi, Deinococcus-Thermus, Firmicutes, Proteobacteria*, and the unclassified *Bacteria* accounted for 98% of all OTUs detected in Chumathang_01 (figure S2B). Furthermore, in this context it is noteworthy that the vent-waters of the Chumathang and Panamik hot springs harbor only a few such established bacterial genera (namely, *Advenella, Bacillus, Chloroflexus, Meiothermus, Rubrobacter, Thermoflexus, Thermomicrobium* and *Thermus*) for which \geq 5 OTUs were detected in at least one of the three sample sites (table S2). Out of these relatively predominant genera, *Advenella* and *Thermus* had the maximum number of OTUs across Chumathang_01, Panamik_01 and Panamik_02.

Collective consideration of Chumathang_01, Panamik_01, Panamik_02, and the comparator hot spring Lotus Pond of Puga, revealed the presence of a sum total of 169 established bacterial genera in the vent-waters of these four hot springs (table S2). Notwithstanding the unequal geographical distances separating the individual vents, out of the total 169 genera detected,

- 21 were found to be present in all four springs,
- 27, five, 23 and 46 were unique to Chumathang_01, Panamik_01, Panamik_02 and Lotus Pond respectively,
- four were present exclusively in Chumathang_01 and Lotus Pond, while three were there only in Panamik_01 and 02 and nowhere else,

- 10 were there in Chumathang_01, Lotus Pond and Panamik_02, but not Panamik_01,
- four were there in Chumathang_01, Panamik_01 and Panamik_02 but not Lotus Pond,
- four were there in Panamik_01, Panamik_02 and Lotus Pond but not Chumathang_01,
- two were there in Chumathang_01 and Panamik_01 but not Lotus Pond or Panamik_02,
- seven were there in Chumathang_01 and Panamik_02 but not Lotus Pond or Panamik_01,
- one was there in Panamik_01 and Lotus Pond but not Chumathang_01 or Panamik_02,
- 12 were there in Panamik_02 and Lotus Pond but not Chumathang_01 or Panamik_01.

Two-dimensional hierarchical clustering of the four Trans-Himalayan hot springs in terms of their phylum-level bacterial diversity highlighted the overall relatedness of the vent-water micobiomes of Lotus Pond and Panamik_02 on one hand and Panamik_01 and Chumathang_01 on the other (figure 2B). Furthermore, the heat map comparing the OTU counts of the individual phyla present across the four springs (figure 2B) reflected the wide variations existing in the species richness of *Acidobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Chloroflexi, Firmicutes, Thermotogae* and unclassified Bacteria (table 2 shows that the standard deviation of the OTU count data for each of these groups was $\geq 80\%$ of the corresponding mean). Among the other phyla for which ≥ 5 OTUs were detected in at least one of the four sample sites, standard deviations of the OTU count data for *Actinobacteria, Armatimonadetes, Cyanobacteria* and *Deinococcus-Thermus* were 50-80% of the corresponding means (see table 2) – these trends were also reflected in figure 2B.

3.4 Taxonomic relatives of mesophilic bacteria predominate the vent-water communities

A comparison between the bacterial diversities of the two Eastern Ladakh hot springs, Chumathang_01 and Lotus Pond, showed that a total of 138 genera are present in the two springs, out of which only 35 are common to both (table S2). Of the 35 genera found in both Chumathang_01 and Lotus Pond, only 11 (*Anoxybacillus, Bacillus, Brevibacillus, Chloroflexus, Exiguobacterium, Fervidobacterium, Hydrogenobacter, Rubrobacter, Thermodesulfovibrio, Thermus* and *Truepera*) have members reported for laboratory growth at >45°C (table S2). On the other hand, the vent-water of Chumathang_01 harbored 40 such genera that were not present in Lotus Pond. Out of these, only 13 (*Anaerobranca, Caldalkalibacillus, Caldilinea, Clostridium sensu strict, Kallotenue, Meiothermus, Ornithinimicrobium, Piscibacillus, Rubellimicrobium, Salinicoccus, Thermoflexus, Thermoleophilum* and *Thermomicrobium*) have members reported for laboratory growth at >45°C (table S2). The Lotus Pond vent-water, in turn, harbored 63 such genera that were absent in Chumathang_01, of which again only 14 (*Actinomyces, Caldicellulosiruptor, Dictyoglomus*,

Geobacillus, Halomonas, Marinobacter, Marinococcus, Photobacterium, Sporolituus, Sulfurihydrogenibium, Tepidimonas, Thermoactinomyces, Thermomonas and *Thiofaba*) have members reported for laboratory growth at >45°C (table S2). From the above data it is evident that despite their close spatial proximity, the hot springs of Chumathang and Puga Valley harbor distinct microbiomes, which, however, are unified by the preponderance of bacterial mesophiles.

A comparison between the bacterial diversities of the two Panamik springs showed that despite being situated within 5 m of each other, their vent-waters harbor considerably distinct microbiomes. For instance, out of the total 92 genera detected in the two vents, only 32 were common to both (out of the 32, only seven - namely *Bacillus*, *Elioraea*, *Hydrogenobacter*, *Meiothermus*, *Thermoflexus*, *Thermomicrobium* and *Thermus* - have members reported for laboratory growth at >45°C; see table S2); eight were unique to Panamik_01 (out of these, only one - *Ornithinimicrobium* – encompass members with laboratory growth at >45°C); and 52 were unique to Panamik_02 (out of these, 14 namely *Albidovulum*, *Anoxybacillus*, *Anaerobranca*, *Brevibacillus*, *Calditerricola*, *Chloroflexus*, *Fervidobacterium*, *Methylothermus*, *Rehaibacterium*, *Rhodothermus*, *Rubrobacter*, *Schleiferia*, *Thermoleophilum* and *Truepera* has members with laboratory growth at >45°C; see table S2).

3.5 Comparing the overall geomicrobiology of the Trans-Himalayan hot springs

Canonical correspondence analysis of the entire geomicrobiological data yielded two principal inertias (Eigenvalues), 0.118 and 0.026, along the dimensions 1 and 2, represented as the X and Y axes in the CCA plot (figure 3A), respectively, with a total chi-square value of 658.451. These Eigenvalues implicated a bipolar spread of the environmental parameters, weighted essentially along the dimension 1 (X axis). Based on this ordination trend, pH, temperature, and concentrations of calcium and sulfate on one hand, and concentrations of TDS, boron, chloride, lithium, magnesium, potassium, silicon and sodium on the other, appeared to have opposite effects on the diversity of individual groups or the overall bacterial diversity of the vents represented by the parameters species (OTU) count, genus count and phylum count. In other words, if the first four parameters are limiting to the species-level diversity of a particular group, or to the overall microbial diversity of a particular vent, then the latter set of eight parameters tend not to be restrictive to them, and vice versa.

In the CCA plot (figure 3), pH, temperature, and concentrations of calcium and sulfate clustered in the positive ordinate of dimension 1 alongside the vents Chumathang_01 and Panamik _01, and the phyla *Chloroflexi*, *Deinococcus-Thermus*, *Firmicutes*, and the large number of unclassified (novel) bacterial taxa present especially in Chumathang_01. On the contrary, TDS, and concentrations of boron, chloride, lithium, magnesium, potassium, silicon and sodium clustered in

the negative ordinate of dimension 1, alongside the vents Lotus Pond and Panamik_02, and the phyla Actinobacteria, Acidobacteria, Armatimonadetes, Bacteroidetes, Cyanobacteria, Proteobacteria and Thermotogae. This bifurcation pattern indicated that in the context of the four Trans-Himalayan hydrothermal vents compared, pH, temperature, and calcium and sulfate concentrations do not favor the diversity of Acidobacteria, Armatimonadetes, Bacteroidetes, Cyanobacteria, Proteobacteria and Thermotogae, or for that matter the overall microbial diversity of Lotus Pond and Panamik 02, but they support the overall diversity of Chumathang 01 and Panamik 01, plus the diversities of Chloroflexi, Deinococcus-Thermus, Firmicutes and the unclassified taxa. By contrast, TDS, boron, chloride, lithium, magnesium, potassium, silicon and sodium are indicated by CCA to be supportive of Acidobacteria, Armatimonadetes, Bacteroidetes, Cyanobacteria, Proteobacteria and Thermotogae (but not Chloroflexi, Deinococcus-Thermus, Firmicutes and the novel taxa) among the bacterial phyla, and Lotus Pond and Panamik_02 (but not Chumathang_01 and Panamik_01) among the vents. Furthermore, out of the four parameters which were on the positive ordinate of dimension 1, calcium was inferred to have the maximum influence on diversity while temperature has the least. Likewise, out of the eight parameters which were on the negative ordinate of dimension 1, silicon has the least influence on diversity, whereas TDS, boron, chloride, lithium, magnesium, potassium and sodium have largely equivalent bearings on diversity. So far as the different bacterial groups are concerned, in the ordination diagrams, Bacteroidetes, Thermotogae, and the novel taxa are maximally differentiated along the dimension 1; there is not much discrimination along the dimension 2, except for Chloroflexi and Thermotogae (figure 3A and B). As for the individual springs, Chumathang_01, Panamik_01 and Panamik_02 were located close to the origin, whereas only Lotus pond was separated widely along dimension 1; there was little discrimination along dimension 2 (figure 3A and C).

4. Discussion

Recent geomicrobiological investigations based on the sulfur-boron hot spring system of Puga Valley have shown that snow-melts infiltrating the shallow geothermal reservoir of this Trans-Himalayan region (seated ~450 m deep within the breccia) via local tectonic faults, introduce terrestrial microorganisms to the thermal waters which in turn are vented out of the copious hot springs scattered all over the valley (Roy *et al.* 2020a). This biogeodynamic process apparently gives rise to peculiar, mesophiles-dominated, high-diversity microbiomes across the vent-waters, outflow channels and apron areas of the hot springs of Puga (Roy *et al.* 2016, 2020a, 2020b). Furthermore, inorganic solutes such as ions of boron, lithium and sodium, present in the Puga hot spring waters (Roy *et al.* 2020a, 2020b), have been envisaged to potentially mitigate the biomacromoleculedisordering effects of high heat and facilitate the *in-situ* survival of the phylogenetic relatives of mesophilic bacteria (Roy *et al.* 2020b).

The present study revealed highly diversified vent-water microbiomes in hot springs located in the Chumathang and Panamik regions of eastern and northern Ladakh respectively. Mirroring the bacterial-mesophiles-dominated microbiome architecture of the Puga hot springs located in eastern Ladakh (Roy et al. 2016, 2020a, 2020b), microbial diversities of the Chumathang and Panamik hot springs were also found to be remarkably dominated by such bacterial taxa whose members are incapable of laboratory growth at >45°C. For instance, out of the 75, 40 and 84 genera detected in Chumathang_01, Panamik_01 and Panamik_02 (table 1), 48, 31 and 53 have no constituent strain reported for laboratory growth at >45°C, respectively (table S2). Notably, out of the 47 genera detected previously in the Lotus Pond vent-water 31 had no report of laboratory growth at >45°C (Roy et al. 2020a). A mesophiles-dominated vent-water microbiome now appears to be a common feature of the hot spring systems situated in the Ladakh Trans-Himalayas, irrespective of their geographical distance or underlying geology. It is also not unlikely that introduction of microbes from surface or sub-surface sources into the hydrothermal reservoir via infiltrating snow-melts (Roy et al. 2020a) is the main driver of the high diversity of mesophilic bacteria encountered in all these hydrothermal vents. Notably, such a biogeodynamic phenomenon has been reported for hydrothermal systems located in other parts of the world as well (Power et al. 2018; Colman et al. 2019).

Notwithstanding their bacterial-mesophiles-dominated microbiomes, the Chumathang and Panamik vent-waters were found to harbor quite a few archaeal OTUs. Almost all the genera or candidate genera over which the archaeal OTUs of the Chumathang and Panamik hot springs were classified include members having laboratory growth at $\geq 80^{\circ}$ C (table S3). Only *Nitrososphaera*, that was present exclusively in Panamik_02, and which encompasses strains of terrestrial ammonia oxidizers (Kerou and Schleper 2016), grow at $\leq 47^{\circ}$ C *in vitro* [notably, *Candidatus* Korarchaeum was detected in the vent-water of Chumathang_01; although the upper limit of growth temperature is unknown for *Korarchaeota*, their thermophilic ecology is well known (Elkins *et al.* 2008; Reigstad *et al.* 2010)]. In the context of archaeal diversity, it is noteworthy that a previous study based on the Shivlinga hot spring-microbialite system of Puga Valley had not been able to detect archaea by using primers that target the V3 regions of archaeal 16S rRNA genes (Roy *et al.* 2020b). However, the present detection of small but definite archaeal diversities in the vent-waters of the Chumathang and Panamik hot springs using primers that target the V4-V5 regions of archaeal 16S rRNA genes indicates that future explorations utilizing similar strategies may reveal some archaeal diversity in

the vent-waters of the Puga hot springs as well. This said, overall microbiome depiction for the Puga hydrothermal system is likely to remain overwhelmingly bacteria-dominated because previous whole metagenome sequence-based microbiome analysis along the hydrothermal gradients of the Shivlinga spring had shown that archaea constitute less than 1% of all the *in-situ* microbial communities explored, including the white streamers which float on Shivlinga's vent-water and anchor to the sintered rim of the vent (Roy *et al.* 2020b).

Physicochemically, the Chumathang and Panamik hot springs were found to be considerably diverged among themselves, as well as from the springs of Puga Valley. This is not only consistent with the location of the three spring systems in distinct geographical and geological territories but also indicative of the disconnected nature of their underlying geothermal reservoirs. In particular, the concentrations of boron, lithium and sodium, were considerably lower in Chumathang_01, Panamik_01 and Panamik_02 as compared to Lotus Pond. Sulfate, on the other hand, was more abundant in Chumathang_01 and comparable in concentration across the other three vents. In the context of vent-water chemistry, it is noteworthy that the biomacromolecule-stabilizing properties of boron, lithium, sodium and sulfate have been previously envisaged as the key mitigators of microbial cell-system disruption by the thermal water, and therefore as the key drivers of the high diversity of mesophilic bacteria, in the Puga hot spring ecosystem (Roy et al. 2020b). With the current revelation of the predominance of mesophilic bacteria in the Chumathang and Panamik hot springs amidst much lower concentrations of boron, lithium and sodium (as compared to the Puga hot springs), it seems plausible that even low concentrations of these inorganic solutes are sufficient to impart biomacromolecule-stabilizing effects on the expectedly low density of microbial cells present in the thermal waters. This said, chances remain that the Trans-Himalayan hot spring systems are endowed with some hitherto-unknown biogeochemical factors which are supportive of high microbial diversity amidst high heat. In relation to the high habitability apparent for the Trans-Himalayan hot spring systems in general, it is further noteworthy that the ordination trends exhibited by the physicochemical and microbiological parameters in CCA (figure 3A) were consistent not only with the reported temperature constraints on the diversity of most bacterial phyla, but also with the potential role of *in-situ* geochemicals in supporting high species-level diversity of most bacterial phyla (Roy et al. 2020a, 2020b). For instance, in CCA, most bacterial phyla (excepting Chloroflexi, Deinococcus-Thermus, Firmicutes and the unclassified taxa) ordinated opposite to temperature, but in association with TDS and most of the native inorganic solutes present in the vent-waters of the Trans-Himalayan hydrothermal systems compared.

Hierarchical clustering of the four Trans-Himalayan hot springs in terms of the physicochemical properties of their vent-waters revealed the geochemical uniqueness of Lotus Pond (figure 2A). In contrast, clustering based on bacterial diversity pointed out the relatively greater closeness between the vent-water microbiomes of Lotus Pond (81°C) and Panamik 02 (70°C) on one hand, and Chumathang_01 (86°C) and Panamik_01 (78°C) on the other. CCA, in turn, reflected the overall geomicrobiological uniqueness of Lotus Pond, besides clustering Panamik 02 with Lotus Pond in the negative ordinate (opposite to temperature), and Chumathang 01 and Panamik 01 in the positive ordinate (alongside temperature), of dimension 1. A holistic consideration of the dendrogram data (figure 2) and the CCA results (figure 3) suggests that the distinctive vent-water chemistry of Lotus Pond could be instrumental in sustaining such a microbiome in-situ which is similar in architecture to the microbiome of a cooler vent-water environment (the 70°C Panamik_01). This is not only consistent with the hypothesis of native-solutes-enabled survival of mesophiles in Lotus Pond (Roy et al. 2020a), but also the general perception that environmental factors other than temperature and pH potentially determine hot spring microbiome architecture in geographically and geologically distinct hydrothermal systems (Xie et al., 2011; Alsop et al., 2014; Cowan et al., 2015). On the other hand, microbial diversity of the 78°C vent-water of Panamik 01 closely resembled its counterpart in the geochemically similar, 86°C vent-water of Chumathang 01, and both the microbiomes are apparently shaped by their high in-situ temperatures. This inference is also consistent with the detection of higher diversity of thermophilic archaea in the vent-waters of Chumathang_01 and Panamik_01, as compared to Panamik_02 (tables 2 and S3). Furthermore, in this context, it is noteworthy that in CCA (figure 3) Chumathang_01 and Panamik _01 clustered in the positive ordinate of dimension 1 alongside not only temperature but also pH, with the locus for Chumathang_01 being closer to the loci of these two environmental parameters, as compared to the distance of Panamik_01 from the temperature and pH loci. In the light of previous global comparisons showing that neutral-pH to moderately-alkaline spring-waters harbor higher microbial diversities than their acidic counterparts irrespective of *in-situ* temperature (Roy et al. 2020a), it seems likely that the exceptionally high microbial diversity of Chumathang_01 amidst high heat (water boils at 86°C in Chumathang, located at an altitude of 3950 m) could be supported - among other geomicrobial factors - by the vent-water's pH 8.25.

The geomicrobiological specialties revealed here for distinct Trans-Himalayan hot springs highlight the significance of these less-explored hydrothermal ecosystems in understanding how the habitability of high temperature environments is governed by *in-situ* physicochemical parameters. The geochemical dependencies identified for the microbiome architecture of the distinct spring

systems of Ladakh hold critical implications for life's challenges and opportunities in the thermodynamic extremes, whether on Earth or in potential extra-terrestrial locations. More explorations of biogeochemistry, followed by environment-inspired studies of culture-based microbiology, are required across Trans-Himalayan hot spring systems to comprehensively decipher the *in-situ* biochemical and biophysical factors which sustain their rich microbial diversities amidst high heat.

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Author statement

WG conceived the program, carried out the fieldwork, designed the experiments, interpreted the results, and wrote the paper. NM and CR carried out the studies of microbiology. AP and AM carried out the studies of geochemistry. TM carried out the mathematical analyses. RC made critical intellectual contributions to the work and the manuscript. All authors read and vetted the paper.

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Supplementary material

The online version of this article contains supplementary materials.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Geographical location of the Trans-Himalayan hot springs explored or considered in this study. (A) Map of northern India showing the location of the Puga, Chumathang and Panamik geothermal areas; their distances (by road) from Leh, the capital of the union territory of Ladakh, are also marked in the map. (B) Satellite view of the Puga, Chumathang and Panamik hot spring areas.

Figure 2. Two-way clustering (dendrograms) of the four Trans-Himalayan hydrothermal vents and (A) their bacterial diversity data or (B) physicochemical properties represented as a heat map. In the heat maps, each cell represents either (A) OTU count for a phylum present a vent-water sample or species (OTU) count of a vent-water sample, or (B) a physicochemical parameter tested. Cells have been colored based on the log ratios of the values recorded for the parameters considered: individual values for any parameter tested across the four vents were normalized by first dividing them with the median value of the data series, following which Log_{10} of the ratios were determined. Log ratios of 0 are indicated in white, increasing positive log ratios are represented in increasing intensities of red, and numerically increasing negative log ratios are shown in increasing intensities of blue.

Figure 3. Canonical correspondence analysis of the bacterial diversity data and the physicochemical properties determined/available for the four Trans-Himalayan hydrothermal vents. (A) Ordination diagram depicting the alignment patterns of the different diversity parameters [OTU count of various phyla present or species(OTU)/genus/phylum count of the vent-water samples] with the underlying gradients of the physicochemical (environmental) parameters, across the vent-water samples. The ordinations (grey arrows) depicted for the individual physicochemical parameters signify their relative influences on the bacterial diversity parameters (red dots) across the different hydrothermal vents (green dots). Panels (B) and (C) represent the relative significance of the two canonical environmental variables (dimension 1 in black solid line and dimension 2 in red dashed line) on the bacterial diversity parameters and the hydrothermal vents respectively.

Figure 1





Figure 2





Table 1. Physicochemical characteristics¹ of the vent-water samples investigated for the hot springs of the Chumathang and Panamik geothermal areas of eastern and northern Ladakh respectively (NT = not tested; corresponding data for the vent-water of the Lotus Pond hot spring² located in the Puga geothermal area of eastern Ladakh have been included for comparative purposes).

Physicochemical parameter	Chumathang_01	Panamik_01	Panamik_02	Lotus Pond
Temperature (in °C)	86	78	70	81
рН	8.25	7.75	7.75	7.8
Total dissolved solids (mg L ⁻¹)	1150	530	540	1950
Boron concentration (ppm)	32.4	1.064	0.996	126.7
Silicon concentration (ppm)	59.373	55.329	48.279	66.7
Lithium concentration (ppm)	1.635	0.32	0.313	4.7
Sodium concentration (ppm)	300	140	145	553.5
Chloride concentration (ppm)	88.4	7.9	8.2	370.6
Calcium concentration (ppm)	18	11	10	2.1
Potassium concentration (ppm)	18.07	6.1	7.48	75
Magnesium concentration (ppm)	0.995	0.226	0.119	2.5
Rubidium concentration (ppm)	0.4	NT	NT	1.2
Cesium concentration (ppm)	2.5	NT	NT	7.5
Sulfate concentration (ppm)	241.7	99.85	100.9	92.5

1 Values presented for all the parameters are averages of the data obtained from three sampling replicates, with standard deviations <5% of their respective means.

2 Physicochemical properties of Lotus Pond vent-water have been studied by Roy *et al.* (2020a) at multiple hours of a day; all the data presented here, except total dissolved solid concentration, correspond to the values recorded by Roy *et al.* (2020a) at 14:30 h of 20 October 2014; the total dissolved solid concentration given here for Lotus Pond vent-water was determined at 11:00 h of 11 August 2017.

Table 2. Taxonomic classification of all the bacterial and archaeal OTUs that were detected in the vent-water samples of the Chumathang and Panamik hot springs explored (corresponding data for the vent-water of the Lotus Pond hot spring¹ located in Puga Valley have been included for comparative purposes).

	Chumathang_01	Panamik_01	Panamik_02	Lotus Pond
Total bacterial OTUs detected	892	329	496	279
No. of established genera over which the bacterial OTUs were classified	75	40	84	100
No. of established phyla over which the bacterial OTUs were classified	13	9	13	16
Acidobacteria	3	0	7	5
Actinobacteria	69	17	37	26
Aquificae	3	2	2	3
Armatimonadetes	3	1	5	2
Bacteroidetes	0	1	15	18
Candidatus Saccharibacteria	0	0	1	1
Chloroflexi	31	36	8	2
Cyanobacteria	4	1	12	12
Deinococcus-Thermus	77	52	35	15
Dictyoglomi	0	0	0	1
Firmicutes	101	14	29	27
Nitrospirae	1	0	1	1
Proteobacteria	86	94	204	120
Spirochaetes	0	0	0	1
Synergistetes	1	0	0	0
Thermodesulfobacteria	1	0	0	2
Thermotogae	1	0	1	6
Unclassified Bacteria	511	111	139	9
Total archaeal OTUs detected	55	30	10	NT^2
No. of established genera over which the archaeal OTUs were classified	5	1	1	NA^2
No. of established phyla over which the archaeal OTUs were classified	3	1	2	NA
Crenarchaeota	26	13	3	NA
Euryarchaeota	2	0	0	NA
Korarchaeota	1	0	0	NA
Thaumarchaeota	0	0	1	NA
Unclassified_Archaea	26	17	6	NA

¹ Bacterial diversity of the Lotus Pond vent-water has been studied by Roy *et al.* (2016, 2020a) at multiple sampling hours of a day; the data presented here shows the diversity recorded by Roy *et al.* (2020a) at 14:30 h of 20 October 2014.

² NT = not tested. NA = not applicable. Roy *et al.* (2016, 2020a) did not explore the archaeal diversity of Lotus Pond; however, another study exploring the microbiome of the hot spring-microbialite system called Shivlinga (Roy *et al.* 2020b), also located in the Puga valley and within 50 m of Lotus Pond, failed to detect any OTU in the vent-water by using the universal archaeal 16S rRNA gene sequence primers 344F (5' - AATTGGANTCAACGCCGG - 3') and 522R (5' - TCGRCGGCCATGCACCWC - 3').

Supplementary Materials

Indus and Nubra Valley hot springs affirm the geomicrobiological specialties of Trans-Himalayan hydrothermal systems

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Figure S1. Rarefaction curves showing the proportionality between OTU-level diversity revealed and the number of 16S rRNA gene sequence (V3 region) reads analyzed for (**A-C**) bacteria or (**D-F**) archaea in the different vent-water samples.

Figure S2. Microbial community architecture of the vent-waters of the Panamik_01, Panamik_02 and Chumathang_01 hot springs.

Supplemetary Tables

Table S1. Summary statistics of the OTU analyses carried out for the vent-water communities of Chumathang_01, Panamik_01 and Panamik_02.

Vent-water sample	Type of 16S rRNA gene analyzed	BioSample accession number	Run accession number	Total number of sequencing reads generated	Number of reads used for OTU clustering after quality filtering	Number of OTUs obtained (minus singletons)	Number of singletons obtained	Shannon index (base e)	Simpson index
Chumathang_01	Bacterial	SAMN16132276	SRR12665107	1506571	1428010	892	215393	1.10	0.556
Panamik_01	Bacterial	SAMN16132277	SRR12665106	1326973	1233603	329	187518	1.10	0.407
Panamik_02	Bacterial	SAMN16132384	SRR12665227	1620870	1520319	496	184796	0.284	0.890
Chumathang_01	Archaeal	SAMN16132383	SRR12665228	565096	515467	55	401081	0.869	0.476
Panamik_01	Archaeal	SAMN16132382	SRR12640680	913153	835732	30	571136	0.690	0.503
Panamik_02	Archaeal	SAMN16132278	SRR12640556	127103	115652	10	91789	0.692	0.501

Table S2. Established genera over which the bacterial OTUs of Chumathang_01, Panamik_01, Panamik_02 and Lotus Pond were classified¹ (the highest temperatures reported for laboratory growths of the members of the different genera have also been shown together with the relevant references).

	Genus	Chumathang	Donomik	Donomik	Lotuc	Upper limit of	
Phylum					Pond ²	temperature (°C) for	Reference
		01	01	02		laboratory growth	
	Geothrix	0	0	0	+	35	Coates et al. 1999
	Gp16	3	0	1	_	-	-
Acidobacteria	Gp2	0	0	2	+	-	-
	Gp3	0	0	1	+	-	-
	Gp6	0	0	1	-	-	-
	Actinomyces	0	0	0	+	55	An et al. 2006
	Bifidobacterium	2	0	0	-	37	Killer <i>et al</i> . 2013
	Brachybacterium	0	1	1	+	30	Collin et al. 1988
	Brevibacterium	1	1	1	+	42	Kim et al. 2013
	Collinsella	1	0	0	-	37	Kageyama et al. 1999
	Corynebacterium	2	3	3	+	42	Bernard et al. 2016
	Dietzia	0	0	1	+	30	Kim et al. 2011
	Euzebya	1	0	0	_	28	Kurahashi et al. 2010
	Friedmanniella	1	0	0	-	30	Kim et al. 2016
	Gaiella	2	0	1	-	37	Albuquerque et al. 2011
	Ilumatobacter	2	0	0	-	31	Matsumoto et al. 2009
	Marmoricola	0	0	0	+	40	Lee et al. 201
Actinobacteria	Microbacterium	0	0	1	+	30	Young <i>et al.</i> 2010
	Mycobacterium	1	1	1	+	43	Kusunoki and Ezaki 1992
	Nesterenkonia	1	0	0	—	42	Luo et al. 2009
	Nitriliruptor	1	0	2	—	32	Sorokin et al. 2009
	Nocardia	0	1	0	_	37	Jurado et al. 2008
	Nocardioides	1	0	0	+	37	Prauser 1976
	Ornithinimicrobium	1	1	0	_	50	Groth <i>et al</i> . 2001
	Patulibacter	0	0	0	+	39	Almeida et al. 2013
	Pedomicrobium	0	0	0	+	40	Gebers 1981
	Propionibacterium	1	2	1	+	45	Koussémon et al. 2001
	Pseudonocardia	2	0	0	_	38	Duangma et al. 2009
	Rothia	1	0	0	—	37	Fan <i>et al</i> . 2002
	Rubrobacter	7	0	1	+	60	Carreto et al. 1996

	Solirubrobacter	1	0	0	-	30	Singleton et al. 2003
	Thermoleophilum	1	0	1	_	60	Zarilla and Perry 1984
	Turicella	0	0	0	+	37	Funke et al. 1994
Aquificae	Hydrogenobacter	3	2	2	+	85	Takai <i>et al</i> . 2001
	Armatimonadetes_gp4	0	0	1	-	-	-
Armatimonadatas	Armatimonadetes_gp5	0	0	0	+	-	-
Armanmonuaeres	Armatimonadetes_gp6	1	0	1	-	-	-
	Armatimonadetes_gp7	2	1	3	+	-	-
	Algoriphagus	0	0	1	-	37	Li et al. 2001
	Chryseobacterium	0	0	0	+	37	Yang <i>et al.</i> 2015
	Cloacibacterium	0	0	0	+	40	Chun et al. 2017
	Cruoricaptor	0	0	0	+	37	Yassin et al. 2012
	Elizabethkingia	0	1	1	—	37	Kampfer et al. 2011
Bacteroidetes	Flavobacterium	0	0	2	-	25	Lee <i>et al</i> . 2012
	Pedobacter	0	0	0	+	35	Zhang <i>et al</i> . 2015
	Porphyromonas	0	0	1	-	37	Saha and Collins 1998
	Rhodothermus	0	0	1	-	80	Sako <i>et al</i> . 1996
	Schleiferia	0	0	1	-	50	Albuquerque et al. 2011
	Sulfurihydrogenibium	0	0	0	+	80	O'Neill et al. 2008
Candidatus	Saccharibacteria_genera_	0	0	1	-		
Saccharibacteria	incertae_sedis	0	0	1	Т	-	_
Chlorobi	Dehalogenimonas	0	0	0	+	42	Bowman et al. 2013
	Caldilinea	1	0	0	-	65	Sekiguchi et al. 2003
	Chloroflexus	6	0	1	+	59	Gaisin <i>et al</i> . 2017
Chloroflexi	Kallotenue	3	0	0	-	65	Cole <i>et al.</i> 2013
	Thermoflexus	2	32	4	-	75	Dodsworth et al. 2014
	Thermomicrobium	9	3	2	-	70	King et al. 2014
	GpI	0	0	0	+	-	-
Cyanobacteria	GpIV	0	0	1	+	-	-
	GPXIII	0	0	0	+	-	-
	Deinococcus	3	0	1	+	45	Hussain et al. 2016
Deinococcus-	Meiothermus	8	1	2	-	60	Zhang <i>et al</i> . 2010
Thermus	Thermus	48	47	29	+	79	Brock and Freeze 1969
	Truepera	4	0	1	+	50	Albuquerque et al. 2005
	Anaerobranca	1	0	1	-	66	Engle et al. 1995
Firmicutes	Anoxybacillus	2	0	1	+	70	Coleri et al. 2014
	Bacillus	5	5	6	+	70	Yang <i>et al.</i> 2013a

	Brevibacillus	2	0	1	+	65	Inan <i>et al</i> . 2012
	Caldalkalibacillus	1	0	0	-	65	Xue et al. 2006
	Caldicellulosiruptor	0	0	0	+	90	Yang <i>et al.</i> 2010
	Calditerricola	0	0	1	_	83	Moriya et al. 2011
	Clostridium sensu stricto	1	0	0	_	70	Shiratori et al. 2009
	Clostridium XIVa	0	0	0	+	-	-
	Dictyoglomus	0	0	0	+	80	Saiki <i>et al.</i> 1985
	Exiguobacterium	2	0	0	+	49	Crapart et al. 2007
	Finegoldia	0	0	0	+	37	Murdoch and Shah 1999
	Gemella	0	0	0	+	37	Kilpper-Bälz and Schleifer 1988
	Gemmiger	1	0	0	-	45	Gossling and Moore 1975
	Geobacillus	0	0	0	+	80	Coorevits et al. 2012
	Lysinibacillus	0	0	0	+	45	Ahmed et al. 2007
	Marinococcus	0	0	0	+	50	Balderrama-Subieta <i>et al.</i> 2013
	Oxalophagus	0	0	1	_	35	Dehning and Schink 1989
	Paenibacillus	0	0	0	+	37	Shida et al. 1997
	Peptoniphilus	0	0	0	+	43	Patel et al. 2016
	Piscibacillus	1	0	0	-	55	Amoozegar et al. 2009
	Planococcus	1	0	0	+	42	Suresh et al. 2007
	Planomicrobium	1	0	0	_	38	Luo et al. 2014
	Romboutsia	1	0	0	-	40	Wang <i>et al.</i> 2015
	Salinicoccus	1	0	0	_	49	Zhang <i>et al</i> . 2002
	Sporolactobacillaceae_in certae_sedis	0	0	1	+	-	-
	Sporolituus	0	0	0	+	60	Ogg and Patel 2009
	Staphylococcus	2	1	1	+	40	Fuente <i>et al.</i> 1985
	Streptococcus	1	1	1	+	45	Sherman and Stark 1931
	Thermoactinomyces	0	0	0	+	60	Yao et al. 2014
	Nitrospira	0	0	1	_	30	Watson et al. 1986
Nurospirae	Thermodesulfovibrio	1	0	0	+	70	Sekiguchi et al. 2008
	Achromobacter	1	0	1	+	42	Vandamme et al. 2016
	Acidovorax	0	0	0	+	37	Heylen et al. 2008
	Acinetobacter	3	1	3	+	37	Smet <i>et al.</i> 2014
Proteobacteria	Advenella	28	42	77	+	35	Wang et al. 2016
	Aeromonas	0	0	1	+	41	Huys et al. 2002
	Albidovulum	0	0	1	-	58	Yin et al. 2012

					-	
Alcanivorax	0	1	0	+	43	Kwon <i>et al</i> . 2015
Amaricoccus	0	1	0	-	37	Maszenan et al. 1997
Aquabacterium	0	0	1	-	40	Chen et al. 2012a
Aquicella	0	0	1	-	43	Santos et al. 2003
Azospira	1	0	1	-	40	Reinhold-Hurek et al. 2000
Azospirillum	1	1	1	_	37	Mehnaz et al. 2007
Beijerinckia	1	1	1	+	30	Oggerin et al. 2009
Bradyrhizobium	1	1	1	+	37	Araújo et al. 2017
Brevundimonas	1	0	1	+	42	Choi et al. 2010
Burkholderia	1	1	1	+	37	Aizawa et al. 2011
Caulobacter	0	1	1	-	32	Jin et al. 2013
Craurococcus	2	0	0	-	32	Saitoh <i>et al</i> . 1998
Comamonas	0	0	0	+	44	Chang <i>et al</i> . 2002
Delftia	0	0	1	+	40	Chen et al. 2012b
Desulfovibrio	0	0	0	+	37	Maarel et al. 1996
Elioraea	0	1	1	_	50	Albuquerque et al. 2008
Enhydrobacter	0	1	1	+	41	Staley et al. 1987
Ensifer	1	0	0	-	37	Casida Jr 1982
Escherichia_Shigella	1	2	1	+	37	Liu et al. 2015
Ferrovibrio	1	0	0	-	45	Sorokina et al. 2012
Filomicrobium	0	0	1	_	45	Wu et al. 2009
Geminicoccus	0	0	1	-	45	Foesel et al. 2007
Gemmobacter	0	1	0	-	37	Liu et al. 2014
Halomonas	0	0	0	+	50	Guan <i>et al.</i> 2010
Hydrogenophaga	0	0	1	-	37	Yoon <i>et al.</i> 2008
Hyphomicrobium	2	2	1	+	30	McDonald et al. 2001
Hyphomonas	0	0	1	-	42	Moore <i>et al.</i> 1984
Klebsiella	0	0	0	+	37	Bergey et al. 1923
Limnobacter	1	0	0	-	42	Lu et al. 2011
Litoreibacter	0	0	1	+	37	Romanenko et al. 2011
Marinobacter	0	0	0	+	50	Wang <i>et al.</i> 2009
Methylobacillus	1	0	0	-	30	Kaparullina et al. 2007
Methylobacterium	1	1	1	+	37	Doronina et al. 2002
Methylocystis	1	0	0	-	40	Bowman et al. 1993
Methylophaga	1	1	0	-	40	Janiver et al. 1985
Methylothermus	0	0	2	-	65	Hirayama et al. 2011
Methyloversatilis	0	0	1	+	37	Kalyuzhnaya <i>et al</i> . 2006

	Neisseria	0	0	1	-	37	Hansen et al. 2017
	Nevskia	0	0	0	+	25	Leandro et al. 2012
	Paracoccus	1	1	1	+	45	Sun et al. 2015
	Pelomonas	0	0	1	+	37	Gomila et al. 2007
	Photobacterium	0	0	0	+	50	Wang <i>et al.</i> 2017
	Proteus	0	0	1	-	30	Hyun et al. 2016
	Providencia	0	0	1	_	41	Somvanshi et al. 2006
	Pseudomonas	2	2	2	+	42	Yang et al. 2013b
	Ralstonia	0	0	0	+	41	Yabuuchi et al. 1995
	Rehaibacterium	0	0	1	-	55	Yu et al. 2013
	Reyranella	0	0	1	-	35	Pagnier et al. 2011
	Rheinheimera	0	0	0	+	35	Ryu et al. 2008
	Rhodobacter	0	1	0	-	40	Arunasri et al. 2008
	Rhodoplanes	0	0	0	+	43	Okamura et al. 2009
	Rubellimicrobium	1	0	0	-	52	Denner et al. 2006
	Serratia	0	0	0	+	35	Geiger et al. 2010
	Sneathiella	0	1	0	-	37	Jordan et al. 2007
	Sphingobium	0	0	0	+	37	Kumari et al. 2009
	Sphingomonas	0	1	1	+	45	Gao et al. 2016
	Stenotrophomonas	1	1	1	+	42	Lee <i>et al.</i> 2011
	Sulfitobacter	0	1	1	+	40	Kumari et al. 2016
	Sulfurimonas	0	0	0	+	40	Inagaki et al. 2003
	Tepidimonas	0	0	0	+	60	Chen <i>et al.</i> 2013
	Thermomonas	0	0	0	+	50	Busse et al. 2002
	Thiofaba	0	0	0	+	51	Mori and Suzuki 2008
	Thiothrix	0	0	0	+	37	Howarth et al. 1999
	Variovorax	1	0	1	+	37	Miwa <i>et al</i> . 2008
	Vibrio	1	0	0	-	37	Macian <i>et al</i> . 2001
Spirochaetes	Treponema	0	0	0	+	30	Evans et al. 2009
Synergistetes	Aminivibrio	1	0	0	-	42	Honda et al. 2013
Thermotogae	Fervidobacterium	1	0	1	+	90	Cai <i>et al</i> . 2007

¹ Numbers of OTUs classified under each genus across the vent-water samples have been shown for Chumathang_01, Panamik_01 and Panamik_02. OTU counts under the individual genera identified in Lotus Pond are not available in the corresponding literature (Roy *et al.* 2020a), so only the presence or absence of the genera has been indicated as '+' or '-'.

² Bacterial diversity of the Lotus Pond vent-water has been studied by Roy *et al.* (2016, 2020a) at multiple sampling hours of a day; the data presented here shows the diversity recorded by Roy *et al.* (2020a) at 14:30 h of 20 October 2014.

Table S3. Established genera over which the archaeal OTUs of Chumathang_01, Panamik_01 and Panamik_02 were classified¹ (the highest temperatures reported for laboratory growths of the members of the different genera have also been shown together with the relevant references).

Phylum	Genus	Chumathang_01	Panamik_01	Panamik_02	Upper limit of temperature (°C) for laboratory growth	References
Crenarchaeota	Pyrodictium	1	0	0	110	Pley et al. 1991
	Pyrobaculum	4	0	0	104	Huber <i>et al.</i> 1987; Völkl <i>et al.</i> 1993
	Thermofilum	1	0	0	100	Zillig et al. 1983
	Caldisphaera	0	1	0	80	Itoh <i>et al</i> . 2003
Euryarchaeota	Archaeoglobus	2	0	0	90	Burggraf et al. 1990
Korarchaeota	<i>Candidatus</i> Korarchaeum	1	0	0	Not known	-
Thaumarchaeota	Nitrososphaera	0	0	1	47	Stieglmeier et al. 2014

¹ Numbers of OTUs classified under each genus across the vent-water samples have been shown.

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Supplemetary Figures



Figure S1. Rarefaction curves showing the proportionality between OTU-level diversity revealed and the number of 16S rRNA gene sequence (V3 region) reads analyzed for (**A-C**) bacteria or (**D-F**) archaea in the different vent-water samples. For each sample, number of reads used in OTU-clustering is plotted along the X-axis, while number of OTUs (excluding singletons) created is plotted along the Y-axis.



Figure S2. Microbial community architecture of the vent-waters of the Panamik_01 (PK1), Panamik_02 (PK2) and Chumathang_01 (CHU) hot springs. Panels (**A**) and (**B**) show the phylum-level classification of the archaeal and bacterial OTUs identified respectively.