

# 1 Autotrophic fixation of geogenic CO<sub>2</sub> by microorganisms 2 contributes to soil organic matter formation and alters 3 isotope signatures in a wetland mofette

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## 12 13 **Abstract**

14 To quantify the contribution of autotrophic microorganisms to organic matter formation (OM)  
15 in soils, we investigated natural CO<sub>2</sub> vents (mofettes) situated in a wetland in NW Bohemia  
16 (Czech Republic). Mofette soils had higher SOM concentrations than reference soils due to  
17 restricted decomposition under high CO<sub>2</sub> levels. We used radiocarbon ( $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ ) and stable  
18 carbon isotope ratios ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) to characterize SOM and its sources in two mofettes and  
19 compared it with respective reference soils, which were not influenced by geogenic CO<sub>2</sub>.

20 The geogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emitted at these sites is free of radiocarbon and enriched in <sup>13</sup>C  
21 compared to atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. Together, these isotopic signals allow us to distinguish C fixed  
22 by plants from C fixed by autotrophic microorganisms using their differences in <sup>13</sup>C  
23 discrimination. We can then estimate that up to 27 % of soil organic matter in the 0-10 cm  
24 layer of these soils was derived from microbially assimilated CO<sub>2</sub>.

25 Isotope values of bulk SOM were shifted towards more positive  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and more  
26 negative  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values in mofettes compared to reference soils, suggesting that geogenic CO<sub>2</sub>  
27 emitted from the soil atmosphere is incorporated into SOM. To distinguish whether geogenic  
28 CO<sub>2</sub> was fixed by plants or by CO<sub>2</sub> assimilating microorganisms, we first used the

1 proportional differences in radiocarbon and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values to indicate the magnitude of  
2 discrimination of the stable isotopes in living plants. Deviation from this relationship was  
3 taken to indicate the presence of microbial  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation, as microbial discrimination should  
4 differ from that of plants.  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labelling experiments confirmed high activity of  $\text{CO}_2$   
5 assimilating microbes in the top 10 cm, where  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of SOM were shifted up to 2 ‰  
6 towards more negative values. Uptake rates of microbial  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation ranged up to  $1.59 \pm$   
7  $0.16 \mu\text{g gdw}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ . We inferred that the negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  shift was caused by the activity  
8 autotrophic microorganisms using the Calvin Benson Basham Cycle, as indicated from  
9 quantification of *cbbL/cbbM* marker genes encoding for RubisCO by quantitative polymerase  
10 chain reaction (qPCR) and by acetogenic and methanogenic microorganisms, shown present  
11 in the moffettes by previous studies. Combined  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  isotope mass balances  
12 indicated that microbially derived carbon accounted for 8 to 27 % of bulk SOM in this soil  
13 layer.

14 The findings imply that autotrophic microorganisms can recycle significant amounts  
15 of carbon in wetland soils and might contribute to observed radiocarbon reservoir effects  
16 influencing  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  signatures in peat deposits.

17

## 18 **1 Introduction**

19 Microbial assimilation of  $\text{CO}_2$  is a ubiquitous process in soils, and can be accomplished by a  
20 wide variety of microorganisms using different metabolic pathways (Berg, 2011; Wood et al.,  
21 1941). RubisCO, the most important carboxylating enzyme for obligate and facultative  
22 chemo- or photoautotrophic microorganisms that fix  $\text{CO}_2$  using the Calvin Benson Bassham  
23 Cycle (CBB) has been shown to be highly abundant in agricultural, forest and volcanic soils  
24 (Nanba et al., 2004; Tolli and King, 2005; Selesi et al., 2007). Direct uptake of  $\text{CO}_2$  into  
25 microbial biomass (MB) and soil organic matter (SOM) by photoautotrophic and  
26 chemoautotrophic organisms has been measured in paddy rice and agricultural upland soils  
27 (Liu and Conrad, 2011; Wu et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2014), as well as under manipulating  
28 experimental conditions, like  $\text{H}_2$  amendment (Stein et al., 2005) or addition of reduced  
29 sulphur compounds (Hart et al., 2013). Autotrophic acetogenic organisms, using the Wood-  
30 Ljungdahl Pathway for  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation, are important groups in wetland and forest soils (Küsel  
31 and Drake, 1995; Ye et al., 2014). In addition, many heterotrophic soil microorganisms fix  
32  $\text{CO}_2$  in order to maintain their metabolic cycle by anaplerotic reactions, either to form new

1 sugars for cell wall synthesis or to excrete organic acids for nutrient mobilization (Feisthauer  
2 et al., 2008; Miltner et al., 2005; Santruckova et al., 2005). Global estimates of microbial CO<sub>2</sub>  
3 fixation in soils range between 0.9 and 5.4 PgC per year (Yuan et al., 2012). However, it still  
4 remains unclear how much of assimilated CO<sub>2</sub> is stored and contributes to the formation of  
5 soil organic matter (SOM). In this study we aim at evaluating the impact of autotrophic  
6 microorganisms on carbon isotope signatures of SOM. We further aim at quantifying the  
7 contribution of autotrophs to SOM by means of natural abundance <sup>14</sup>C and <sup>13</sup>C isotope  
8 signatures in a unique environment.

9         Microbial utilization of CO<sub>2</sub> and its incorporation into SOM is also potentially an  
10 important mechanism influencing the isotope signatures of SOM (Ehleringer et al., 2000;  
11 Kramer and Gleixner, 2006). Stable carbon ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) and radiocarbon (<sup>14</sup>C) isotope signatures  
12 are important tools for determining turnover of soil organic matter and dating ancient  
13 sediments (Balesdent et al., 1987; Hughen et al., 2004; Trumbore, 2000).

14         Stable isotope variations in soil reflect mass-dependent fractionation processes (Werth  
15 and Kuzyakov, 2010). In many well-drained soils, there is a well-documented increase in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
16 with depth that has been variously attributed to selective preservation/decomposition of  
17 different components of organic matter, recent declines in atmospheric  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  due to the Sues  
18 effect, or microbial fractionation (summarized in Ehleringer et al. 2000). Enzymatic  
19 fractionation during assimilation of CO<sub>2</sub> can also lead to changes in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of  
20 synthesized organic matter (Hayes, 2001; Robinson and Cavanaugh, 1995; Whiticar, 1999).  
21 Carboxylation processes by heterotrophic microorganisms have been hypothesized to be  
22 responsible for the increase in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values with depth in aerated upland soils (Ehleringer et  
23 al., 2000).

24         Radiocarbon signatures reflect the time elapsed since the C being measured was fixed  
25 from the atmosphere, and are corrected (using measured  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values) to remove mass  
26 dependent fractionation effects. The radiocarbon signature of CO<sub>2</sub> in soil pore space can be  
27 depleted or enriched in <sup>14</sup>C compared to organic matter found at the same depth, depending on  
28 the age of C being mineralized (Trumbore, 2006). Because soil pore space CO<sub>2</sub> can have quite  
29 different isotopic signatures compared to SOM at the same depth, microbial assimilation of  
30 CO<sub>2</sub> may influence SOM <sup>14</sup>C signatures and therefore bias estimates of carbon turnover and  
31 radiocarbon age by generating reservoir effects (Pancost et al., 2000).

1 In turn, comparing both, radiocarbon and stable isotope values of SOM, MB and their  
2 sources might allow quantifying the potential contribution of autotrophic microorganisms to  
3 SOM, because a mismatch of both isotopes in quantifying SOM sources indicates either  
4 fractionation of  $^{13}\text{C}$  by carboxylation processes of different enzymes or depletion or  
5 enrichment of  $^{14}\text{C}$  by the use of soil  $\text{CO}_2$  (Kramer and Gleixner, 2006).

6 In order to test the hypothesis that microbial  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation contributes to SOM  
7 formation and alters isotope signatures in soil depth profiles, we investigated wetland  
8 mofettes in NW Bohemia. Mofettes are cold exhalations of geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  from wetland soils  
9 with high  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations. The exhaling volcanic-derived  $\text{CO}_2$  has a distinct isotopic  
10 signature, is enriched in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  by about 5 ‰ and free of radiocarbon compared to atmospheric  
11  $\text{CO}_2$ . This unique feature allows us to use geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  as a natural isotopic tracer, because  
12  $\text{CO}_2$  assimilating microorganisms take up an isotopically different  $\text{CO}_2$  source compared to  
13 plants growing in the area, which use a mixture of geogenic and atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ . We used  
14 three approaches to evaluate the importance of  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation for SOM generation in mofettes  
15 and its impact on carbon isotope values:

- 16 1) We measured natural abundance  $^{13}\text{C}$  and radiocarbon signatures of SOM,  $\text{CO}_2$  and  
17 plant material in mofette and reference soils, in order to identify areas where C  
18 derived from microbial  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation altered isotope signatures of bulk SOM from  
19 expected plant signals and quantified C derived from microbial  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation by  
20 isotope mass balances.
- 21 2) We conducted isotope-labelling experiments with  $^{13}\text{CO}_2$  in order to quantify the rate of  
22  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation by microorganisms in soil profiles of two  $\text{CO}_2$  vents and compared these  
23 to reference soils away from the vents.
- 24 3) We complemented existing data about microbial community and activity in wetland  
25 mofettes (Beulig et al., 2014), by assessing the importance of microorganisms using  
26 the Calvin Benson Basham Cycle for  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation. This was especially important to  
27 infer whether differences in kinetic isotope effects compared to plants were feasible  
28 given the pathways of microbial C fixation. Therefore, we quantified *cbbL* and *cbbM*  
29 marker genes encoding for Form I and II RubisCO, respectively. Form I RubisCO  
30 consists of eight small and eight large subunits. It can be subdivided into two groups,  
31 the “red” and “green” like groups, which can be further subdivided into Form 1A, 1B  
32 and 1C and 1D, respectively (Yuan et al., 2012; Tolli and King, 2005). Form II

1 RubisCO consists only of large subunits. Because of its low CO<sub>2</sub> affinity and high O<sub>2</sub>  
2 sensitivity, it represents an early form, evolved under anaerobic conditions and high  
3 CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Alfreider et al., 2003). Form II RubisCO might be favourable  
4 under conditions prevailing in mofettes. cbbL 1A was identified mainly in obligate  
5 autotrophic bacteria and cbbL 1C in facultative autotrophic bacteria (Tolli and King,  
6 2005). cbbM encodes for autotrophic organisms living under anaerobic conditions  
7 (Selesi et al., 2005).

8 Using this information, we aimed to quantify the amount of C derived from microbial  
9 assimilation of CO<sub>2</sub> into soil organic matter within soil profiles, and assess its potential to  
10 alter isotope signatures of SOM.

## 11 **2 Materials and methods**

### 12 **2.1 Site description**

13 The study site (50°08'48'' N, 12°27'03'' E) is located in the northwestern part of the  
14 Czech Republic (Bohemia). The area is part of a continental rift system, where deep tectonic  
15 faults provide pathways for ascending gases and fluids from the upper earth's mantle (Kämpf  
16 et al., 2013). Mofettes are surficial, low temperature exhalations of mantle derived CO<sub>2</sub>.  
17 Macroscopically, they form a complex of landscape features. At centre is a spot of typically  
18 0.5 to 1 meter bare soil. From this central spot, almost pure CO<sub>2</sub> emanates to the atmosphere.  
19 The mofette centre is surrounded by a raised hummock that extends 1 to 20 m away from the  
20 spot. The investigated mofettes are situated on the floodplain of the river Plesna and are part  
21 of a wetland. Geogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emanates with an average discharge of up to 0.62 tons CO<sub>2</sub> d<sup>-1</sup>  
22 per spot (Kämpf et al., 2013). The surrounding hummock is built up by different vascular  
23 plant communities. *Eriophorum vaginatum* and *Deschampsia cespitosa* are dominating plant  
24 species in the immediate proximity of the central vent and hummock structure, respectively.  
25 *Filipendula ulmaria* represents typical floodplain vegetation.

26 We investigated two mofettes that differed in size. Mofette 1 had a spot-diameter of  
27 0.6 m, whereas the diameter of Mofette 2 was 1.5 m. We also sampled soils away from the  
28 influence of the mofette-exhaled CO<sub>2</sub> (deemed reference soils). These soils are vegetated and  
29 experience periodic anoxic conditions due to waterlogging, as evidenced by gleyed soil  
30 features and porewater geochemistry (Mehlhorn et al., 2014). In Mofettes 1 and 2, the local  
31 water table is elevated by ascending CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> is mainly displaced by the CO<sub>2</sub> stream,

1 leading to anoxic (but not necessarily water-logged) conditions (Bräuer et al., 2011).  
2 According to the World Reference Base for soil resources (WRB, 2007), mofette soils are  
3 characterized as Histosols with pronounced reductomorphic features (reduced Y horizons)  
4 due to the influence of up-streaming CO<sub>2</sub>. Reference soils are classified as ‘gleyic’ Fluvisols  
5 (Beulig et al., 2014).

## 6 **2.2 Sampling of soils, plants and gases for bulk geochemical and isotope** 7 **measurements**

8 For bulk δ<sup>13</sup>C and radiocarbon analyses soil cores were taken from the central, un-  
9 vegetated part of the mofette structure and reference soils. Reference soils lacking CO<sub>2</sub>  
10 emissions were identified with a portable landfill gas analyser (Visalla GM70 portable CO<sub>2</sub>  
11 sensor) in close proximity to each vent structure. Reference soils 1 and 2 were defined 5 and  
12 18 meters distant from the central vent structures, respectively. Samples for bulk stable  
13 isotope and radiocarbon analyses were taken in November 2013. In order to account for soil  
14 heterogeneity, three soil cores (I.D. 5 cm) were taken from a plot of 50 x 50 cm from mofette  
15 and reference soils. Because mofette and reference soils were characterised by very different  
16 soil features, soil cores were not divided according to horizons, but depth intervals. Based on  
17 visual inspection, soil cores were divided into depth intervals from 0-10 cm, 10-25 cm and  
18 25-40 cm. Replicates of the respective depth intervals were mixed and sieved to 2 mm. Roots  
19 and plant debris were removed by handpicking. The sieved soil was subsequently dried at 40°  
20 and prepared for stable isotope, radiocarbon and C/N analysis.

21 In April 2014, vegetation samples were taken from the same plot as soil cores, in order  
22 to characterize the isotopic composition of the plant material contributing to mofette SOM.  
23 Vegetation samples in the direct proximity of both mofettes were represented by *Eriophorum*  
24 *vaginatum*. Vegetation samples were also taken by clipping plants at 2cm height at 2 meter  
25 intervals along a transect that crossed moffett 2, allowing us to test how the isotope signatures  
26 (δ<sup>13</sup>C and Δ<sup>14</sup>C) of plants changed with different mixtures of ambient and geogenic CO<sub>2</sub>.  
27 Mofette 2 is an exposed hummock, dominated by an un-vegetated central region of CO<sub>2</sub>  
28 exhalation. One to two meters distant from the central exhalation, the dominant plant species  
29 was *Deschampsia cespitosa*, and at greater distances the dominant plant was *Filipendula*  
30 *ulmaria*. The collected samples were dried at 40° C, ground and prepared for stable isotope,  
31 radiocarbon and C/N analysis.

1 CO<sub>2</sub> was sampled from the centre of each mofette by filling 250 ml evacuated stainless  
2 steel cylinders through a perforated lance from four different soil depths (5, 15, 25, 40 cm), in  
3 order to determine its radiocarbon and stable isotope signature.

### 4 **2.3 Soil sampling for <sup>13</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> labelling experiments**

5 Mofette soils were sampled for two labelling experiments in November 2013 and  
6 September 2014, respectively. For the first experiment, 10 x 10 cm soil monoliths, extending  
7 to 10 cm depth were sampled from each soil in November 2013. After removing the top of the  
8 Oh horizon (about 1 cm thickness), the remaining material was divided into three subsamples.  
9 Each replicate was homogenized within a sterilized plastic bag, put under an anoxic N<sub>2</sub>  
10 atmosphere and cooled at 4° until further processing in the lab within the same day.

11 For a second experiment, three soil cores (I.D. = 5 cm) were taken from 0 to 40 cm of  
12 each mofette and reference soil and subsampled from 0-5, 5-10 10-20, 20-30 and 30-40cm. 5g  
13 subsamples from each core were transferred immediately after core recovery to a sterilized 12  
14 ml Labco® Exetainer, flushed with N<sub>2</sub> to preserve anoxia, sealed and brought to the laboratory  
15 at 4°C for further processing. To obtain background (i.e. with no influence of added label)  
16 values for isotopic composition, one set of subsamples was dried and prepared for TOC, C/N,  
17 pH and δ<sup>13</sup>C analyses as described above.

### 18 **2.4 Sampling for DNA extraction**

19 Samples for DNA extraction were taken in May 2014 from Mofette 1 and Reference 1.  
20 Samples were taken from 0-5, 5-10, 10-20, 20-30 and 30-40 cm. Three replicates of 30 g were  
21 sampled from each depth, and homogenized under anoxic conditions. Subsequently,  
22 subsamples of 5 g were transferred to 50 ml tubes, cooled with dry ice and transported under  
23 an Ar atmosphere to the laboratory for molecular analyses.

### 24 **2.5 Analyses of geochemical parameters and natural abundance isotope** 25 **signatures of vegetation and soil samples**

26 Soil pH was determined in a 0.01 M CaCl<sub>2</sub> solution with a soil:solution ratio of 1:2.5  
27 using a WTW pH meter. The precision of pH measurements was better than 0.1 (n=3). Total  
28 C and N concentration of soil and plant samples were determined on a “Vario EL” (Elementar

1 Analysesysteme GmbH, Germany). Gravimetric water content was determined after drying  
2 soils for 48h at 105° and C and N content are reported per g dry soil weight.

3 Stable C isotope signatures of bulk soil and plant samples were determined on an  
4 isotope ratio mass spectrometer (DELTA+XL, Finnigan MAT, Bremen, Germany) coupled to  
5 an elemental analyser (NA 1110, CE Instruments, Milan, Italy) via a modified ConFloII™  
6 interface (EA-IRMS). Stable carbon isotope ratios are reported in the delta notation that  
7 expresses <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C ratios as δ<sup>13</sup>C-values in per mil (‰) relative to the international reference  
8 material Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (V-PDB, Coplen et al., 2006):

$$9 \quad \delta^{13}\text{C} = \left[ \frac{\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}}_{\text{sample}}}{\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}}_{\text{reference}}} - 1 \right] \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

10 Analytical precision of all samples was better than 0.1 ‰.

11 For discussing microbially mediated isotope effects the isotope discrimination value Δ  
12 is used, which expresses the isotopic difference between two compounds in ‰:

$$13 \quad \Delta_{x-y} = \delta_x - \delta_y \quad (2)$$

14 Where δ<sub>x</sub> and δ<sub>y</sub> refer to δ<sup>13</sup>C values of the product and reactant, respectively.

15 The radiocarbon content of soil and plant samples was determined by accelerator mass  
16 spectrometry at the Jena <sup>14</sup>C facilities (Steinhof et al., 2004). Subsamples of soil containing 1  
17 mg of carbon were combusted quantitatively and the developed CO<sub>2</sub> was catalytically reduced  
18 to graphite at 625°C by H<sub>2</sub> reduction. To simplify comparison with stable isotope ratios,  
19 radiocarbon activities are reported in Δ<sup>14</sup>C, which is the ‰ deviation of the <sup>12</sup>C/<sup>14</sup>C ratio from  
20 the international oxalic acid universal standard. The Δ<sup>14</sup>C value of the sample is corrected for  
21 mass dependent isotope fractionation to a common value of -25 ‰ (Mook and van der Plicht,  
22 1999). The standard is corrected for radioactive decay between 1950 and the year (y) of the  
23 measurement (2014).

$$24 \quad \Delta^{14}\text{C} = \left[ \frac{\frac{^{14}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}}_{\text{sample},-25}}{0.95 \frac{^{14}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}}_{\text{Ox1,-19}} \times \exp\left(\frac{y-1950}{8267}\right)} \right] \times 1000 \quad (3)$$



1 Errors reported for radiocarbon measurements represent the analytical error of  
2 homogenized mixed samples in ‰. Analytical precision of all radiocarbon measurements was  
3 better than 3 ‰.

## 4 **2.6 Labelling experiments**

5 The first labelling experiment traced the flow of fixed CO<sub>2</sub> directly into microbial  
6 biomass (MB), evaluated rates of CO<sub>2</sub> uptake associated with biological activity and  
7 compared the proportion of labelled MB in mofettes with reference soils. From each field  
8 replicate sample, 20 g aliquots were taken and put into sterilized 120 mL boro-silicate bottles  
9 with butyl rubber stoppers inside a glove box containing an N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. From these  
10 subsamples, three replicates were prepared for incubation with <sup>13</sup>CO<sub>2</sub>. In order to obtain  
11 control samples without biological activity, an additional aliquot of each sample was prepared  
12 and autoclaved for 2 hours at 160° and 60 bar.

13 Soil samples were incubated under anoxic conditions with <sup>13</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> at N<sub>2</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> ratios  
14 equivalent to those experienced by the soils in the field: mofette soils were incubated with a  
15 100 vol. % <sup>13</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere using sterile techniques and reference soils were incubated with  
16 a 10 vol. % <sup>13</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> and 90 vol. % N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. In order to account for soil respiration and to  
17 maintain a constant label, the headspace of every sample was removed and renewed every 3  
18 days. The samples were incubated for 14 days in the dark at 12°C. Living and autoclaved  
19 control samples were treated identically.

20 After 14 days, the jars were flushed with N<sub>2</sub> and the soil samples were homogenized  
21 and split. One part was air dried for bulk <sup>13</sup>C analysis and the other part was prepared for  
22 extraction of the microbial biomass C by chloroform fumigation extraction (CFE) (Vance et  
23 al., 1987). CFE extracts microbial biomass C by lysing the cells with chloroform and  
24 releasing the products of cell lysis into a salt solution as dissolved organic carbon (DOC). In  
25 order to enhance extraction efficiency and to minimize the losses for extracted C by microbial  
26 degradation, the protocol from Vance et al. (1987) was slightly modified (Malik et al., 2013).  
27 The concentration of dissolved microbial biomass C (MB-DOC) and its stable carbon isotope  
28 ratio were determined by a high performance liquid chromatography system coupled to an  
29 IRMS (HPLC/IRMS) system (Scheibe et al., 2012). This method allows direct determination  
30 of concentration and carbon isotopic value of DOC in the liquid phase by coupling a LC-  
31 IsoLink system (Thermo Electron, Bremen, Germany) to a Delta+ XP IRMS (Thermo Fisher

1 Scientific, Germany). A detailed description of the apparatus and measurement procedure is  
 2 given in Scheibe et al. (2012).

3 The amount of microbial biomass was determined by subtracting the amount of MB-  
 4 DOC of un-fumigated samples from MB-DOC of fumigated samples and dividing with a  
 5 proportionality factor  $K_c$  that accounts for the extraction efficiency:

$$6 \quad C_{mic} = \frac{DOC_{fum} - DOC_{unfum}}{K_c} \quad (4)$$

7 A value of 0.45 was used for  $K_c$  according to Amha et al. (2012). The isotope ratio of  
 8 microbial biomass C can be derived by applying an isotope mass balance:

$$9 \quad \delta^{13}C_{MB} = \frac{\delta^{13}C_{fum} \times C_{fum} - \delta^{13}C_{unfum} \times C_{unfum}}{C_{fum} - C_{unfum}} \quad (5)$$

10 The net CO<sub>2</sub> fixation rate was calculated by determining the increase in <sup>13</sup>C from the  
 11 label compared to the unlabelled control, and is normalized for C content (either total soil or  
 12 microbial-C). The excess <sup>13</sup>C can be derived from the <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C ratio of the sample before and  
 13 after the labelling:

$$14 \quad ExcessC[mg] = \frac{^{13}C_{labeled}}{^{12}C_{labeled}} \times C_{sample} [mg] - \frac{^{13}C_{unlabeled}}{^{12}C_{unlabeled}} \times C_{sample} [mg] \quad (6)$$

15 The <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C ratio can be obtained from the measured  $\delta^{13}C$  as follows:

$$16 \quad \frac{^{13}C}{^{12}C_{sample}} = \left( \frac{\delta^{13}C_{measured}}{1000} + 1 \right) \times 0.011237 \quad (7)$$

17 where 0.01123 is the <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C ratio of the international V-PDB standard (Craig, 1957).

18 A second labelling experiment was performed in order to obtain uptake rates as a  
 19 function of depth for mofette and reference soils. After sampling 5 g of soil into 12 ml  
 20 Labco® Exetainers as described above, mofette samples were flushed with 100 vol. % <sup>13</sup>CO<sub>2</sub>,  
 21 and reference soils with 10 vol. % <sup>13</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> and 90 vol. % N<sub>2</sub>. Soils were incubated for 7 days in  
 22 the dark at 12°C. The headspace of all samples was exchanged after 3 days of incubation.  
 23 After 7 days, vials were opened and flushed with N<sub>2</sub> for 2 min and evacuated to remove any

1 sorbed or dissolved  $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ . Soil samples were subsequently air dried at  $60^\circ\text{C}$  and prepared for  
2 bulk  $^{13}\text{C}$  analysis as described above. The measured enrichment in  $^{13}\text{C}$  was used to measure  
3 uptake rates according Eq. (6).

## 4 **2.7 DNA extraction and quantitative PCR**

5 Total nucleic acid extractions of 0.7 g homogenised soil from mofette 1 and reference  
6 1 were performed in triplicates according to the protocol of Lueders et al. (2004). Co-  
7 extracted organic soil compounds were removed by sequential purification with gel columns  
8 (S-400 HR; Zymo Research, Irvine USA) and silica columns (Powersoil Total RNA Kit in  
9 combination with the DNA Elution Accessory kit; MO BIO Laboratories, Carlsbad CA).  
10 Nucleic acid extraction efficiency was checked by agarose gel electrophoresis.

11 Copy numbers of 16S rRNA, cbbL 1A, cbbL 1C and cbbM genes in extracted DNA  
12 were determined using quantitative PCR (qPCR). qPCR was performed on a Mx3000P  
13 instrument (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA) using Maxima SYBR Green Mastermix (Thermo  
14 Scientific) and the primer combinations Uni-338 F-RC and Uni-907 R (16S rRNA, (Weisburg  
15 et al., 1991), F-cbbM and R-cbbM (cbbM, (Alfreider et al., 2003)), F-cbbL and R-cbbL (cbbL  
16 IA, (Alfreider et al., 2003)) as well as F-cbbL IC and R-cbbL IC (cbbL 1C, (Alfreider et al.,  
17 2003)) as described by Herrmann et al. (2012). Cycling conditions for 16S rRNA genes as  
18 well as cbbL and cbbM genes consisted of denaturation for 10 min at  $95^\circ\text{C}$ , followed by 50  
19 cycles with 4 temperature steps (1.  $95^\circ\text{C}$  at 30 s; 2. 55 and  $57^\circ\text{C}$  at 30 s for cbbL and  
20 cbbM/16S rRNA genes, respectively; 3.  $72^\circ\text{C}$  at 45 s; 4. data acquisition at  $78^\circ\text{C}$  and 15 s).  
21 Standard curves were constructed using plasmid CB54 for 16S rRNA and standard curves for  
22 cbbL and cbbM marker genes were constructed from ten times dilution series of mixtures of  
23 plasmids containing cbbL and cbbM inserts as described in Herrmann et al. (2015). PCR  
24 inhibitors were tested by ten times dilution series of representative samples. For the  
25 investigated samples 5  $\mu\text{l}$  of DNA was taken as template for gene copy quantification of 16S  
26 rRNA, cbbL and cbbM.

## 27 **2.8 Mass balance calculations**

28 The unique isotopic composition of geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  and combined measurements of  
29 radiocarbon and stable isotopes allows identification of plant and microbial end-members for  
30 quantifying the importance of these two sources of SOM. Geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $\Delta^{14}\text{C} = -1000\text{‰}$ ,

1  $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -2 \text{ ‰}$ ) is quite different from atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $\Delta^{14}\text{C} \sim +20\text{‰}$ ,  $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -7 \text{ ‰}$ ) in both  
 2 isotopes. Therefore,  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values can be used to determine the overall fraction of geogenic  
 3  $\text{CO}_2$  that is assimilated by plants or microorganisms in the mofette by using the end-members  
 4  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{geogenic CO}_2}$  and  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{air}}$ . A conventional mixing model for determining the fraction of  
 5 geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  in SOM can be calculated according to:

$$6 \quad \text{SOM}_{\text{geogenic}} [\%] = \frac{\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}} - \Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{air}}}{\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{geogenic CO}_2} - \Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{air}}} \times 100 \quad (8)$$

7 This mass balance assumes that changes in  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  caused by radioactive decay of  $^{14}\text{C}$  are  
 8 small compared to contributions from geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$ .

9 The same mass balance can be applied for calculating the fraction of geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  with  
 10 stable isotope values. The end-members for this calculation are  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of plants, which  
 11 grew solely on geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  or solely on ambient air  $\text{CO}_2$ . Plant  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values are expected to  
 12 be around 20 ‰ depleted in  $^{13}\text{C}$  compared to the respective  $\text{CO}_2$  source due to enzymatic  
 13 fractionation, which has to be considered in determining the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  end-member value.

14 We used the correlations between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  of plant material to prove that  
 15 enzymatic discrimination of plants is constant in the vicinity of the mofette, despite  
 16 potentially fluctuating  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations. If  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of plants show a linear  
 17 correlation,  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values of SOM can be used to derive  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values that should be expected, if  
 18 the organic matter is solely derived from plants according the mixing model:

$$19 \quad \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{model}} = \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{plant\_geo}} \times (\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{SOM\_mofette}} \times m + t) + \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{plant\_air}} \times \left(1 - (\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{SOM\_mofette}} \times m + t)\right) \quad (9)$$

20 where  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{plant\_geo}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{plant\_air}}$  are the measured plant input end-members exhibiting the  
 21 most depleted (i.e. highest exposure to geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$ ) and most enriched (exposure to  
 22 atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ )  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values, respectively.  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{SOM\_mofette}}$  are measured radiocarbon values  
 23 at a certain depth within the mofette soil.  $m$  and  $t$  are the slope and intercept of the regression  
 24 between measured  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  plant values. The model calculates the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  that  
 25 corresponds to measured  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  values, if all SOM would be derived from plant material.  
 26 Deviation from the model indicates input of C sources other than plants with distinct isotopic  
 27 compositions.

## 1 **2.9 Statistical analyses**

2 Reported results (e.g.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values, microbial biomass), represent the mean of three  
3 independent replicates. Uncertainties reported for radiocarbon data represent analytical  
4 precision of a homogenised sample comprised of three independent soil cores. Differences of  
5  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in mofette and reference soils as well as between soil depth intervals were analysed  
6 using Student's t-test. Significant differences are reported at  $p < 0.05$ .

7

## 8 **3 Results**

### 9 **3.1 pH, bulk TOC and C/N**

10 Soil pH ranges from 3.0 to 3.5 in mofette soils and is higher in reference soils  
11 (averaging 4.4), without significant trends with depth (Table 1). Total organic carbon (TOC)  
12 contents are high (~12 - 20% C) in the surface 5 cm of both mofette and reference soils. In the  
13 reference soil, TOC decreases with depth to concentrations of 3 % C below 20 cm. In contrast,  
14 TOC concentrations in both mofettes decrease below 5 cm (~6 to 16 %) and increase  
15 subsequently to more than 30 % below 20 cm.

16 Organic matter quality as indicated by C/N ratio also highlights differences between  
17 mofette and reference soils. High C/N ratios ranging from 25 to 30 are found below 20 cm  
18 depth in both mofettes, whereas C/N ratios decrease rapidly as low as 16.5 to 9 (for mofette 1  
19 and 2, respectively) in the upper 10 cm (Table 1). In both reference soils, C/N ratios remain  
20 constant throughout the profile at 10 to 14 (Table 1).

### 21 **3.2 Radiocarbon and stable isotope ratios of bulk SOM, plants and CO<sub>2</sub>**

22 Consistent with our expectation, we found that geogenic CO<sub>2</sub> is free of radiocarbon (-  
23 1000 ‰) and has an average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value of  $-2.36 \pm 0.6$  ‰.

24 Radiocarbon concentrations of SOM in both mofettes are generally more depleted by  
25 several hundred ‰ compared to reference soils (table 1). In reference soils,  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values  
26 decrease uniformly with depth from -60 ‰ and -34 ‰ in the top 10 cm to values of -280 ‰  
27 and -163 ‰ at 40 cm depth in reference soil 1 and 2, respectively, reflecting radioactive decay  
28 (table 1).

1  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  in mofettes has average values of  $-26.99 \pm 0.33 \text{ ‰}$  and  $-26.38 \pm 0.54 \text{ ‰}$  in  
2 mofette 1 and 2, respectively. In both mofettes  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  decreases slightly (but not  
3 significantly) below 20 cm depth ( $p = 0.39$  and  $0.49$  in mofette 1 and 2, respectively) (table  
4 1). Both reference soils have  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  of  $-28.08 \pm 0.4 \text{ ‰}$  with no distinct depth trend in  
5 reference 1 ( $p = 0.96$ ) and a slight but not significant decrease in reference 2 ( $p = 0.35$ ) below  
6 20 cm. At every depth, reference soils are 1 to 2 ‰ depleted in  $^{13}\text{C}$  compared to mofette  
7  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  throughout the soil profile ( $p < 0.05$ ) (table 1).

8 Carbon isotope signatures in vegetation samples surrounding the mofette range from -  
9  $29.95 \pm 0.16 \text{ ‰}$  to  $-23.81 \pm 0.30 \text{ ‰}$  in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and from  $-10.3 \text{ ‰}$  to  $-807.7 \text{ ‰}$  in  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ .  
10 Variations in the two isotopes are highly correlated, and plants with most positive  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  
11 most negative  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  were found closest to the mofette and vice versa (figure 1). The linear fit  
12 to the strong ( $R^2 = 0.86$ ) relationship between  $^{13}\text{C}$  and  $^{14}\text{C}$  found in vegetation material (figure  
13 1) is used to determine parameters for the mixing model (Eq. 9). The intercept of the line with  
14 the y-axis yields a value of  $-22.79 \text{ ‰}$  and represents the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  end-member value of plant  
15 material, which is fully labelled with geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{plant\_geo}}$ , or  $t$  in Eq. (9)). For the other  
16 endmember,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{plant\_air}}$ , we used the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value of plants from the reference site that  
17 exhibited the most positive  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  value, which yields  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{plant\_air}}$  of  $-29.15 \text{ ‰}$ . The  
18 corresponding  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  value, i.e. the value closest to atmospheric radiocarbon concentrations,  
19 was  $-10.3 \text{ ‰}$  ( $= \Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{plant\_air}}$ ). This is less than  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  measured in  $\text{CO}_2$  in clean background air  
20 in the year of sampling ( $\sim +20\text{‰}$ ) and indicates either that the reference site experiences some  
21 influence of geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  or the influence of local fossil fuel release in the region.

22 The slope of the relationship fit to plant samples ( $m$  in Eq. (9)) is what would be  
23 expected for a linear mixture of plant material of the two end-member atmospheres (pure  
24 geogenic and pure air). Plant derived SOM would be expected to fall with this mixing line.  
25 The majority (71 %) of reference soil values are within the 95 % confidence interval of this  
26 expected slope (figure 1). In reference soils,  $^{14}\text{C}$  declines with soil depth, while  $^{13}\text{C}$  remains  
27 nearly constant. Mofette SOM generally has lower  $^{13}\text{C}$  values than would be expected if they  
28 had the same linear relationship as plant material, and  $^{14}\text{C}$  signatures are all much lower than  
29 those of the reference soil (figure 1). Only 5 % of mofette SOM values fall within the 95 %  
30 confidence interval of the regression line.

### 1 **3.3 Mass balance calculations**

2 Radiocarbon signatures of SOM indicate that, on average, 55 to 65 % of carbon  
3 accumulated in the mofette is derived from geogenic CO<sub>2</sub> (assuming end-members of -10 ‰  
4 for  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  air and -1000‰ for  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  geogenic CO<sub>2</sub>). The calculated proportion increases with  
5 depth. By doing the same mass-balance calculation with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values, (with - 22.47 ‰ as  
6 geogenic CO<sub>2</sub> end-member and - 29.15 ‰ as reference end-member), one obtains lower  
7 proportions of 34 - 44 % geogenic C compared to the radiocarbon mass balance. This  
8 mismatch in quantifying the proportion of geogenic C suggests that  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  values differ  
9 from what we would expect if they were completely derived from plant inputs.

10 Equation (9) can be used to predict  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  SOM values corresponding to measured  
11 radiocarbon values, assuming that all carbon would be derived from unaltered plant material.  
12 Calculated  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  values are 1-2 ‰ more positive at all depths ( $p < 0.05$ ) compared to  
13 observations (figure 2 B), i.e. measured  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  values are depleted in <sup>13</sup>C compared to a  
14 signal that would be expected, if SOM would have preserved its original plant  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature.

### 15 **3.4 Quantification of microbial CO<sub>2</sub> fixation activity**

16 The analysis of bulk SOM and plant material revealed that mofette and reference soils  
17 are distinct in their radiocarbon as well as stable isotope values, indicating incorporation of  
18 geogenic CO<sub>2</sub> into mofette SOM either by plants or by microorganisms. Both isotopes show a  
19 bias in quantifying the amount of SOM derived from geogenic CO<sub>2</sub> by the same isotope mass  
20 balance, which suggests the presence of another source of carbon than plants, presumably  
21 microorganisms, that depletes  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values. CO<sub>2</sub> fixing microorganisms might be a potential  
22 source with a distinct  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value. In order to assess the activity of CO<sub>2</sub> fixing microorganisms  
23 as well as their spatial distribution along the soil profile, we conducted two isotope-labelling  
24 experiments.

25 In the first experiment we traced <sup>13</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> directly into microbial biomass (MB) within  
26 the first 10 cm of the soil profile. After incubating the soils with <sup>13</sup>CO<sub>2</sub>, MB within all soils  
27 showed high enrichment in <sup>13</sup>C, except in autoclaved control soils. Microbial biomass extracts  
28 of autoclaved controls had  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values ranging between  $-24.10 \pm 0.38$  to  $-27.55 \pm 0.14$  ‰, in  
29 both, fumigated and unfumigated samples, which is close  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values obtained from bulk soil  
30 measurements (table 2). This confirms that mainly biological processes mediated CO<sub>2</sub>  
31 incorporation. In un-sterilized samples, unfumigated extracts showed enrichment in <sup>13</sup>C in all

1 mofette and reference soils. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of unfumigated samples ranged from  $-14.29 \pm 0.8 \text{ ‰}$  to  
2  $+80.47 \pm 9.46 \text{ ‰}$  and are therefore enriched in  $^{13}\text{C}$  compared to controls ( $p < 0.05$ ). However,  
3 in all cases  $^{13}\text{C}$  enrichment was higher after fumigation ( $p < 0.05$ ).  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of fumigated  
4 samples ranged between  $143.76 \pm 3.93 \text{ ‰}$  and  $227.04 \pm 2.63 \text{ ‰}$ .

5 The calculated rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake expressed per gram microbial biomass in the top 10  
6 cm of soil (table 2) was higher in mofettes compared to reference soils ( $p < 0.05$ ) ranging  
7 between  $287 \pm 85$  and  $271 \pm 58 \text{ ug}^{-1} \text{ gMB}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in mofettes compared to  $139 \pm 32$  and  $99 \pm 36$   
8  $\text{ug}^{-1} \text{ gMB}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in reference soils (table 2).

9 The second labelling experiment measured  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation activity along the whole soil  
10 profile with samples taken from depth intervals between 1 to 40 cm. Tracer uptake was  
11 measured only in bulk SOM. In both soils, uptake rates decrease with depth (figure 3). In the  
12 top 5 cm, uptake rates were higher in mofette soils compared to reference soils. Below 20 cm,  
13 rates decrease to values of  $0.14 \pm 0.03 \text{ ug gdw}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in both mofettes and  $0.09 \pm 0.02 \text{ ug gdw}^{-1}$   
14  $\text{d}^{-1}$  in reference soils. Normalizing the uptake rates to soil carbon content ( $\text{ug gC}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) instead  
15 of soil mass, removes the depth-dependence of uptake rates in reference soils ( $p < 0.05$ ), but  
16 not in mofette soils (figure 3).

### 17 **3.5 Quantification of 16s rRNA and marker genes for RubisCO**

18 Results of 16S rRNA and RubisCO encoding marker genes are listed in table 3. The  
19 abundance of 16S rRNA genes per gram soil is a measure of the total abundance of  
20 microorganisms in the soil (Fierer et al., 2005). Gene copy numbers per gram soil of 16S  
21 rRNA genes were more abundant in the top 5 cm of the mofette soil. They decrease with  
22 depth, in both, mofette and reference soil ( $p < 0.05$ ), but the decrease is more rapid in the  
23 mofette. The same holds true for marker genes encoding for RubisCO. CbbL IC is the most  
24 abundant marker gene in both soils, whereas it is more abundant in the reference soil  
25 compared to the mofette. CbbL 1C is one order of magnitude more abundant than cbbL 1A  
26 and cbbM in both, reference and mofette soils. cbbL:16S rRNA ratios range between  $0.07 \pm$   
27  $0.03$  and  $0.19 \pm 0.04$  in the mofette soil and stays fairly constant with depth ( $p = 0.61$ ). In the  
28 reference soil the ratio decreases slightly with depth from  $0.37 \pm 0.16$  to  $0.17 \pm 0.04$ , but  
29 values are consistently greater than in the mofette soil.

30



## 1    **4    Discussion**

### 2    **4.1    Carbon sources in mofette soils**

3            Low C/N ratios, as found in the top 10 cm of both mofettes, reflect microbially  
4 degraded OM (Rumpel and Kogel-Knabner, 2011) and C/N ratios as low as 9 (top 10 cm of  
5 mofette 2) suggest a high contribution of microbial biomass to bulk SOM (Wallander, 2003).  
6 A significant contribution of microbial biomass carbon at these depths is also supported by  
7 very high 16S rRNA copy numbers, extracted from mofette 1, which are one order of  
8 magnitude higher than known from other soils (Fierer et al., 2005). Also numbers of RubisCO  
9 encoding genes are two orders of magnitude more abundant than in agricultural soils (Selesi  
10 et al., 2007) and twice as high as in organic rich paddy rice fields (Wu et al., 2015),  
11 suggesting microbial carbon derived from CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation as an important carbon source.  
12 Further evidence is given by the isotope data, as mofette SOM at 0 to 10 cm differs from a  
13 pure plant signal. The deviation of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  towards more negative values compared to plant  
14 signatures suggests that microbially derived carbon in shallower depths is fractionated against  
15 <sup>13</sup>C, which provides further evidence that autotrophic microorganisms contribute significantly  
16 to mofette SOM.

17            Below 20 cm, increasing C contents in both mofettes are accompanied with a steep  
18 increase in C/N, which is attributed to lower proportions of microbial carbon and  
19 accumulation of undecomposed plant organic matter, as suggested from studies at other  
20 mofette sites (Rennert et al., 2011).

### 21    **4.2    Quantification of SOM isotope shifts by combined $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ mass-** 22    **balances**

23            TOC, C/N ratios and the abundance of 16S rRNA genes in mofette soils all suggest  
24 that microbial carbon might constitute a significant part of bulk SOM. The isotope mass  
25 balance model can be used to assess the contribution of plant vs. microbial derived carbon.  
26 The approach assumes that microbially derived carbon is distinct either in its <sup>14</sup>C or its <sup>13</sup>C  
27 isotope ratio compared to plant carbon. The isotope mass balance model derived from  
28 equation 9 shows that microbial carbon that is added to SOM has to be depleted in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
29 compared to plant inputs, leading to an overall negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  shift in bulk SOM of 1-2 ‰  
30 compared to a pure plant signal at all depths (figure 2 B).

1           However, the model assumes that the radiocarbon content of mofette SOM solely  
2 depends on the amount of fixed geogenic CO<sub>2</sub> and does not consider radioactive decay. <sup>14</sup>C  
3 depletion by radioactive decay, especially with soil depth, can lead to an overestimation of  
4 fixed geogenic CO<sub>2</sub> and consequently to an overestimation of the shift in δ<sup>13</sup>C values. In order  
5 to account for <sup>14</sup>C depletion by radioactive decay, Δ<sup>14</sup>C values of reference soil SOM can be  
6 subtracted from Δ<sup>14</sup>C<sub>SOM\_mofette</sub> in Eq (9).

7           After correcting the model for radioactive decay, the calculated δ<sup>13</sup>C<sub>SOM</sub> depletion still  
8 matches the data for the first 10 cm of both mofettes, where measured δ<sup>13</sup>C values are more  
9 negative than calculated ones (figure 2 C). Below 10 cm, the calculated δ<sup>13</sup>C<sub>SOM</sub> coincides  
10 with measured values in both mofettes, suggesting that SOM δ<sup>13</sup>C preserved the signal of the  
11 plant source and only radioactive decay lead to the initial δ<sup>13</sup>C shift in the model (figure 2 C).  
12 This supports findings from previous studies, where carbon accumulation accompanied with  
13 high C/N ratios was attributed to accumulation of poorly decomposed plant material (Rennert  
14 et al., 2011). The only exception from this pattern is at 30 - 40 cm in mofette 2, where  
15 measured δ<sup>13</sup>C values are still more negative than calculated ones, even after correction for  
16 radioactive decay (figure 2 C). This might be caused by extremely low carbon dynamics, e.g.  
17 due to permanently waterlogged conditions, which would lead to an overestimation of the  
18 δ<sup>13</sup>C isotope shift in the model. Although water levels fluctuate in the floodplain, permanently  
19 waterlogged conditions are likely to occur deeper in moffete 2, where high CO<sub>2</sub> discharge  
20 rates might lead to an elevation of the water table. Waterlogged conditions lead to low carbon  
21 turnover, and correction of radioactive decay with reference soil values might not be  
22 sufficient, because reference soils at these depths are only temporally waterlogged. This might  
23 explain the mismatch of measured and calculated δ<sup>13</sup>C values at the deepest sampling point in  
24 mofette 2 and would indicate a potential bias of modelled C-isotope signatures towards too  
25 positive δ<sup>13</sup>C values.

26           Another source of error in the model is accumulation of recalcitrant compounds within  
27 the SOM pool, like lignin or lipids, which might also lead to a shift in δ<sup>13</sup>C values compared  
28 to the original bulk plant material (Benner et al., 1987; Werth and Kuzyakov, 2010). The  
29 accumulation of phenolic compounds is usually accompanied with an increase in C/N ratios  
30 (Hornibrook et al., 2000; Werth and Kuzyakov, 2010), which is not the case in the top 10 cm  
31 of the mofette soil. Therefore, lignin accumuation is not likely to have caused the depletion in

1 the top 10 cm of both mofettes. Nevertheless, increased lignin accumulation might also be the  
2 reason for the observed depletion in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  below 20 cm depth in mofette 2.

3 Therefore, the model shows that  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in the top 10 cm of both mofettes are  
4 significantly lower than expected for SOM derived from plants alone, indicating significant  
5 addition of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  depleted carbon. Below 10 cm depth, the calculated and measured  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
6 values agree after correcting for possible sources of error, like radioactive decay and  
7 alteration of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  due to decomposition processes.

8 Microbial carbon that is added to mofette SOM by several  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation pathways is  
9 likely to be depleted in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  because of enzymatic fractionation processes (Fuchs, 2011). The  
10 deviation in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in the top 10 cm of both mofettes also is in accord with high  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation  
11 rates and the abundance of functional marker genes for  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation at this depth (figure 4).  
12 This implies that microbial carbon derived from  $\text{CO}_2$  assimilating organisms is a major driver  
13 of the observed  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  depletion.

#### 14 **4.3 Quantification of microbial carbon C derived from $\text{CO}_2$ fixation**

15 In order to quantify the proportion of  $\text{CO}_2$ -derived microbial carbon from the observed  
16 isotope shift, it is important to know the metabolic pathway that was used for  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation  
17 and its corresponding isotope fractionation factor. Beulig et al. (in press, 2016) investigated  
18 by metatranscriptomic and metagenomic approaches microbial key processes in mofette soil  
19 1. Consistent with our quantification of *cbbL/cbbM* marker genes, Beulig et al., (in press,  
20 2016) detected high frequencies of transcripts encoding key enzymes for the Calvin Benson  
21 Cycle as well as the Reductive Acetyl CoA Cycle. The Acetyl CoA Cycle is used by  
22 acetogens, methanogens and sulphate reducers for catabolism and anabolism (Drake et al.  
23 2006). According to Beulig et al. (in press, 2016), transcripts of key enzymes for the Acetyl  
24 CoA pathway in the mofette soil are also related to these groups. Most transcripts encoding  
25 for the Calvin Benson Cycle were related to chemoautotrophic bacteria and algae, living  
26 under anaerobic restrictions. The activity of autotrophic bacteria using the Calvin Benson  
27 Cycle is also supported by our data, as shown by the good correlation of *cbbL/cbbM* marker  
28 genes and uptake rates (figure 4).

29 Carbon that is fixed by autotrophs or algae using Form I RubisCO, the dominant form  
30 in the mofette, is depleted by -27 to -30 ‰ compared to the source  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $\Delta \approx -27$  to -30 ‰)  
31 (Hayes, 2001; Pancost and Damste, 2003). A similar value can be expected for acetate formed

1 from geogenic CO<sub>2</sub> during acetogenesis. In systems where acetate is not limiting, depletion is  
2 less pronounced ( $\Delta \approx -32 \text{ ‰}$ ) than in acetate-limited systems ( $\Delta \approx -58.6 \text{ ‰}$ ) (Conrad, 2005;  
3 Gelwicks et al., 1989). A value of  $-32 \text{ ‰}$  is in accordance with acetate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values measured  
4 by Beulig et al. (2014) in a mofette study from the same area. Therefore, given a  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value of  
5 geogenic CO<sub>2</sub> of around  $-2 \text{ ‰}$ , the C end-member derived from microbial CO<sub>2</sub> fixation adds  
6 carbon with an average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value of  $-30$  to  $-34 \text{ ‰}$  to bacterial biomass and SOM in mofettes.  
7 Taking the differences between measured and calculated  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (with and without correction for  
8 radioactive decay, respectively) for mass balance calculation according to equation 8,  
9 microbially fixed geogenic CO<sub>2</sub> carbon in the top 10 cm of the mofette soil can make up  
10 between  $8 \pm 2 \text{ ‰}$  and  $15 \pm 4 \text{ ‰}$  in mofette 1 and between  $23 \pm 4 \text{ ‰}$  and  $27 \pm 5 \text{ ‰}$  in mofette 2.

#### 11 **4.4 Importance of microbial CO<sub>2</sub> fixation for isotope ratios in peat soils**

12 Our data provide evidence that assimilation of CO<sub>2</sub> by several groups of autotrophic  
13 microorganisms contributes to SOM formation derived from CO<sub>2</sub>. Recycling of CO<sub>2</sub> in peat  
14 deposits has been proposed to cause ‘reservoir’ effects in radiocarbon, biasing dating of peat  
15 (Kilian et al., 1995). As an explanation, Pancost et al. (2000) proposed recycling of  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$   
16 depleted methane that diffuses from the catotelm layer up the peat profile, where it is oxidized  
17 by methanotrophic organisms and subsequently assimilated by mycorrhizal fungi living in  
18 association with *Ericaceae* rootlets. However, the authors could not find evidence from  
19 biomarker analyses of methanotrophic or fungal organisms and attributed recycling of  $^{14}\text{C}$   
20 depleted CO<sub>2</sub> to plants. Our findings suggest that other groups besides fungi are involved in  
21 CO<sub>2</sub> recycling, namely CO<sub>2</sub> utilizing autotrophic microorganisms. Pancost et al. (2000)  
22 estimated that 20 % of C in the investigated peat is derived from this recycling process. This  
23 proportion is very similar to our estimates for autotrophic fixation of CO<sub>2</sub> in the 0-10 cm of  
24 mofette soil. Hence we would propose that direct fixation of CO<sub>2</sub> could be a major process  
25 influencing peat radiocarbon signatures.

#### 26 **4.5 Importance of CO<sub>2</sub> fixation for soil carbon in reference soils**

27 When normalized for the mass of carbon (as opposed to mass of soil), rates of CO<sub>2</sub>  
28 fixation in the reference soil at depth remain similar to values at the surface (figure 3). We  
29 cannot use the isotope-mixing model to estimate the amount of C derived from CO<sub>2</sub> fixation  
30 in the reference soil, because the soil atmosphere as well as plants at the reference soil are not  
31 directly influenced by geogenic CO<sub>2</sub>. However the rate measurements suggest increasing

1 importance of CO<sub>2</sub> assimilating microorganisms for carbon stocks with depth. In addition, the  
2 high relative abundance of RubisCO marker genes relative to 16S rRNA genes suggest that  
3 autotrophic organisms constitute a substantial part of the microbial community throughout the  
4 soil profile. Their activity is also indicated by the strong correlation between RubisCO marker  
5 genes and uptake rates ( $R^2 = 0.94$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) (figure 4). Higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, which are  
6 usually observed with depth, might also lead to an increase of CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation, because of  
7 higher substrate availability for RubisCO or other carboxylases with depth.

8 In contrast to the mofette soil, which is characterized as an organic rich histosol,  
9 reference soils are classified as gleysols, with high organic carbon contents only in the A  
10 horizon. They are characterized by frequently changing redox conditions due to groundwater  
11 fluctuations, which might provide sufficient electron donors and acceptors for  
12 chemolithoautotrophic microorganisms (Akob and Küsel, 2011).

13 Beulig et al. (2014) characterized the microbial community of a reference soil at the  
14 same study site. The authors found that Proteobacteria constituted a substantial part of the  
15 microbial community. Many Proteobacteria are facultative autotrophs using the CBB cycle  
16 and have a facultative anaerobe metabolism (Badger and Bek, 2008). They would be therefore  
17 able to assimilate CO<sub>2</sub> also under the experimental conditions.

18 A contribution of phototrophic and chemoautotrophic microorganisms to SOM has  
19 been demonstrated already by other studies (Hart et al., 2013; Yuan et al., 2012), but solely  
20 for top soils. Wu et al. (2014) and Wu et al. (2015) investigated soil depth profiles up to 15  
21 cm depth, but found no significant incorporation below 5 cm depth in upland and paddy soils  
22 under not manipulating experimental conditions, like illumination.

23 Our data suggest that autotrophic microorganisms are active even in the reference-  
24 subsoil. Microorganisms using the CBB cycle would add <sup>13</sup>C-depleted carbon to SOM.  
25 Indeed,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  profiles of both reference soils do not show shifts towards more positive values  
26 with depth, as is usually observed from other Gleysols, although radiocarbon data indicates  
27 that SOM becomes older with depth (Alewell et al., 2011; Bol et al., 1999). Further, both  
28 reference soils have C/N ratios close to 10 throughout the soil profile, which normally  
29 indicates a higher contribution of microbial C to SOM (Rumpel and Kogel-Knabner, 2011).  
30 This strongly suggests a contribution of autotrophic microorganisms to carbon stocks in the  
31 subsoil, though ultimately its influence on the C isotopic signature of SOM at depth must be  
32 further evaluated.

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## Conclusions

$\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values of SOM in wetland mofettes are influenced by incorporation of geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  fixed not only by plants, but also by microbes, as indicated by deviation of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values from those expected if plant C inputs were the sole source of SOM-C. The unique isotopic composition of geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  and the different enzymatic fractionation of plants and microorganisms allows us to quantify microbially derived C using combined  $^{14}\text{C}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  mass balances, because microbial carbon is more depleted than plant C. Other parameters, like C/N ratio, 16S rRNA and cbbL gene abundance also indicate addition of C fixed from geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  by microbes. According to the isotope mass balances, microbial carbon derived from  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation accounts for 8 - 27 % of bulk SOM in mofette soils. The significant contribution of autotrophic microorganisms to SOM also implies that they might be able to cause reservoir effects in radiocarbon by recycling of old  $\text{CO}_2$ , as has been already suggested for peat soils.

Further, high  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation rates, especially in mineral horizons of the reference soil, as well as the high of RubisCO marker genes indicate a significant contribution of autotrophic microorganisms to subsoil carbon.

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1 Table 1. Geochemical soil properties of mofette and reference soils.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and geochemical  
 2 data represent background (i.e. without addition of label) data obtained from sampling in  
 3 September 2014. Radiocarbon data was obtained in November 2013. Uncertainties in  
 4 geochemical and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  data represent  $\pm 1\sigma$  standard deviation (n=3). Uncertainties in  
 5 radiocarbon values represent analytical precision of a homogenized mixed sample.

	pH	TOC [w-%]	C/N	Water content [%]	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	$\Delta^{14}\text{C}$
Mofette 1						
0-5	3.68	19.64 $\pm$ 1.20	15.95	53	-26.90 $\pm$ 0.15	- 554.3 $\pm$ 2.0
5-10	3.59	26.54 $\pm$ 0.08	16.52	52	-27.55 $\pm$ 0.21	
10-20	3.68	11.53 $\pm$ 0.18	15.12	57	-26.71 $\pm$ 0.18	- 559.7 $\pm$ 2.1
20-30	3.43	16.33 $\pm$ 0.59	21.65	51	-26.79 $\pm$ 0.12	
30-40	3.40	34.00 $\pm$ 1.25	31.40	56	-27.01 $\pm$ 0.23	- 640.2 $\pm$ 1.9
Reference 1						
0-5	4.13	25.85 $\pm$ 1.72	14.37	69	-27.98 $\pm$ 0.32	- 117.5 $\pm$ 2.8
5-10	4.07	12.40 $\pm$ 0.60	14.18	49	-28.10 $\pm$ 0.24	
10-20	4.00	3.16 $\pm$ 0.26	14.52	42	-27.80 $\pm$ 0.13	- 236.3 $\pm$ 2.7
20-30	3.91	3.14 $\pm$ 0.13	12.93	31	-27.79 $\pm$ 0.16	
30-40	3.69	2.81 $\pm$ 0.50	15.88	30	-28.23 $\pm$ 0.09	- 280.2 $\pm$ 2.5
Mofette 2						
0-5	3.80	8.66 $\pm$ 0.69	8.95	52	-26.01 $\pm$ 0.14	- 648.1 $\pm$ 1.2
5-10	3.76	5.87 $\pm$ 1.11	8.97	53	-26.26 $\pm$ 0.24	
10-20	3.79	11.41 $\pm$ 0.95	9.72	50	-26.76 $\pm$ 0.19	- 618.7 $\pm$ 1.3
20-30	3.52	28.72 $\pm$ 1.42	19.74	56	-27.10 $\pm$ 0.59	
30-40	-	-	-	-	-	-
Reference 2						
0-5	4.50	12.48 $\pm$ 0.31	12.16	45	-27.91 $\pm$ 0.12	-34.1 $\pm$ 2.2
5-10	4.51	7.59 $\pm$ 0.21	11.52	42	-28.85 $\pm$ 0.21	
10-20	4.48	2.94 $\pm$ 0.15	10.30	46	-28.11 $\pm$ 0.05	-114.7 $\pm$ 1.9
20-30	4.46	1.91 $\pm$ 0.10	11.85	40	-27.82 $\pm$ 0.30	
30-40	4.43	1.80 $\pm$ 0.04	10.19	35	-28.23 $\pm$ 0.06	-162.9 $\pm$ 1.9

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1 Table 2: Microbial biomass C and comparison of uptake rates determined during experiment  
 2 1 with CFE and bulk measurements. Uncertainties represent  $\pm 1\sigma$  standard deviation (n=3).

	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ extract (after fumigation) [‰]	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ control [‰]	Uptake rate/g soil [ $\mu\text{g gdw}^{-1}\text{d}^{-1}$ ]	Uptake rate/g MB [ $\mu\text{g gMB}^{-1}\text{d}^{-1}$ ]	% labelled MB
Mofette 1					
CFE 0 - 10 cm	$233.24 \pm 11.19$	$-25.94 \pm 0.36$	$0.17 \pm 0.03$	$287 \pm 85$	$0.88 \pm 0.33$
Bulk 0 -10 cm	$-21.19 \pm 0.62$	$-26.28 \pm 0.10$	$0.77 \pm 0.23$	-	-
Reference 1					
CFE 0 - 10 cm	$182 \pm 5.44$	$-23.65 \pm 0.54$	$0.59 \pm 0.05$	$139 \pm 32$	$0.40 \pm 0.13$
Bulk 0 -10 cm	$-12.82 \pm 0.95$	$-27.55 \pm 0.14$	$2.65 \pm 0.36$	-	-
Mofette 2					
CFE 0 - 10 cm	$124.51 \pm 10.66$	$-24.10 \pm 0.38$	$0.06 \pm 0.02$	$271 \pm 58$	$0.8 \pm 0.16$
Bulk 0 -10 cm	$-21.37 \pm 0.99$	$-26.49 \pm 0.08$	$0.66 \pm 0.15$	-	-
Reference 2					
CFE 0 - 10 cm	$158.05 \pm 4.01$	$-26.46 \pm 0.21$	$0.25 \pm 0.09$	$99 \pm 36$	$0.20 \pm 0.10$
Bulk 0 -10 cm	$-17.44 \pm 0.81$	$-27.21 \pm 0.22$	$0.71 \pm 0.16$	-	-

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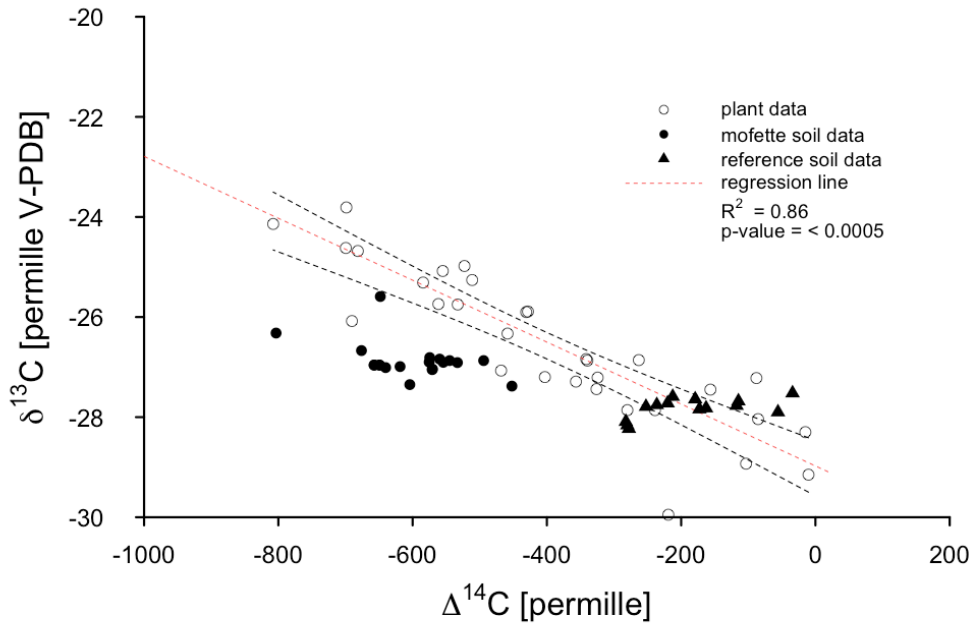
4

1 Table 3: Quantification of 16S RNA, cbbL and cbbM marker genes. Uncertainties represent  
 2  $\pm 1\sigma$  standard deviation (n=3).

	Depth [cm]	16S rRNA	cbbM	cbbL 1A	cbbL 1C	cbbL 1C/ 16sRNA
Mofette 1	0 - 5	7.50E+10 $\pm$ 1.42E+07	5.70E+08 $\pm$ 3.21E+08	9.45E+08 $\pm$ 4.86E+08	9.23E+09 $\pm$ 4.55E+09	0.12 $\pm$ 0.06
	5 - 10	1.65E+10 $\pm$ 5.35E+06	2.21E+08 $\pm$ 1.28E+08	1.40E+08 $\pm$ 1.69E+08	1.46E+09 $\pm$ 1.20E+09	0.11 $\pm$ 0.04
	10 - 20	3.35E+09 $\pm$ 0.51E+06	1.49E+07 $\pm$ 8.45E+06	1.83E+07 $\pm$ 1.22E+07	6.02E+08 $\pm$ 1.25E+08	0.17 $\pm$ 0.03
	20 - 30	5.94E+09 $\pm$ 9.02E+05	1.62E+07 $\pm$ 1.23E+07	1.12E+07 $\pm$ 4.07E+06	3.98E+08 $\pm$ 1.53E+08	0.07 $\pm$ 0.03
	30 - 40	7.62E+08 $\pm$ 9.39E+04	8.53E+05 $\pm$ 3.02E+05	1.71E+06 $\pm$ 5.23E+05	7.91E+07 $\pm$ 2.18E+07	0.10 $\pm$ 0.03
Reference 1	0 - 5	4.63E+10 $\pm$ 3.01E+07	3.43E+08 $\pm$ 3.18E+08	1.14E+09 $\pm$ 4.74E+08	1.58E+10 $\pm$ 7.20E+09	0.37 $\pm$ 0.23
	5 - 10	2.98E+10 $\pm$ 2.02E+07	2.01E+08 $\pm$ 5.98E+07	2.69E+08 $\pm$ 1.52E+08	7.78E+09 $\pm$ 8.12E+08	0.28 $\pm$ 0.08
	10 - 20	2.81E+10 $\pm$ 4.83E+07	1.31E+08 $\pm$ 4.73E+07	3.06E+08 $\pm$ 1.59E+08	5.95E+09 $\pm$ 1.50E+09	0.21 $\pm$ 0.06
	20 - 30	1.24E+10 $\pm$ 4.37E+07	9.75E+07 $\pm$ 3.99E+07	9.11E+07 $\pm$ 3.90E+07	2.25E+09 $\pm$ 6.84E+08	0.18 $\pm$ 0.03
	30 - 40	4.65E+09 $\pm$ 9.61E+07	1.57E+08 $\pm$ 9.26E+07	3.47E+07 $\pm$ 2.20E+07	5.95E+08 $\pm$ 1.78E+08	0.10 $\pm$ 0.06

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## $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of plants and soils



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3 Figure 1. Correlation between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  of plants growing around the mofette structure.

4 Dependent on the exposure to geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$ , plants incorporate different amounts of geogenic

5  $\text{CO}_2$ , which complicates isotope mass balance calculations for mofette SOM. However, both

6 isotopes are highly correlated in sampled plant material, which allows prediction of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$

7 SOM isotope values from plant  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ . Most data points measured from mofette SOM fall

8 outside 95% confidence levels of the regression, which suggests a deviation of mofette SOM

9  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values from a pure vegetation signal. Reference SOM  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values fall mainly within the

10 observed plant  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values, and do not increase with depth, as is often observed in soil depth

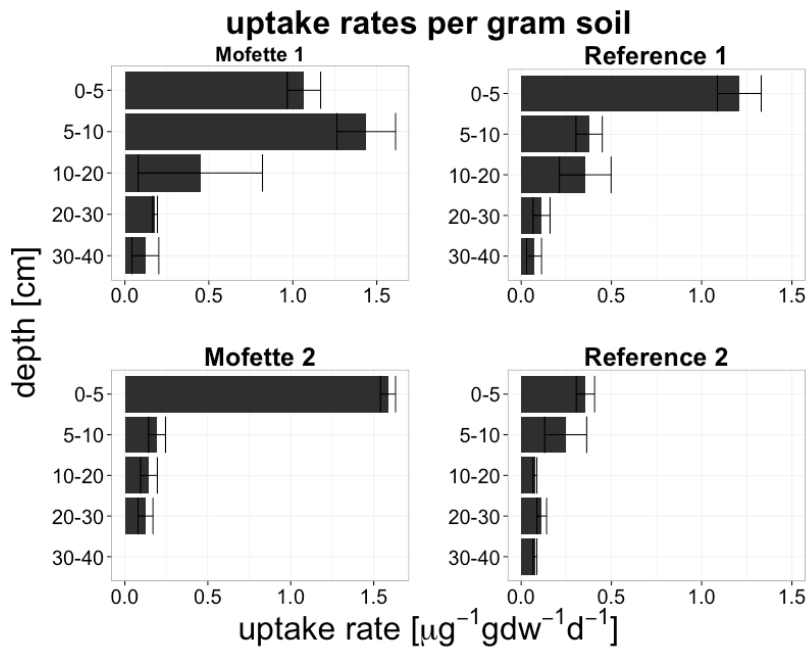
11 profiles. Parameters of the regression are used to predict the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  values expected in

12 mofette soils that correspond to measured radiocarbon values, assuming that all carbon would

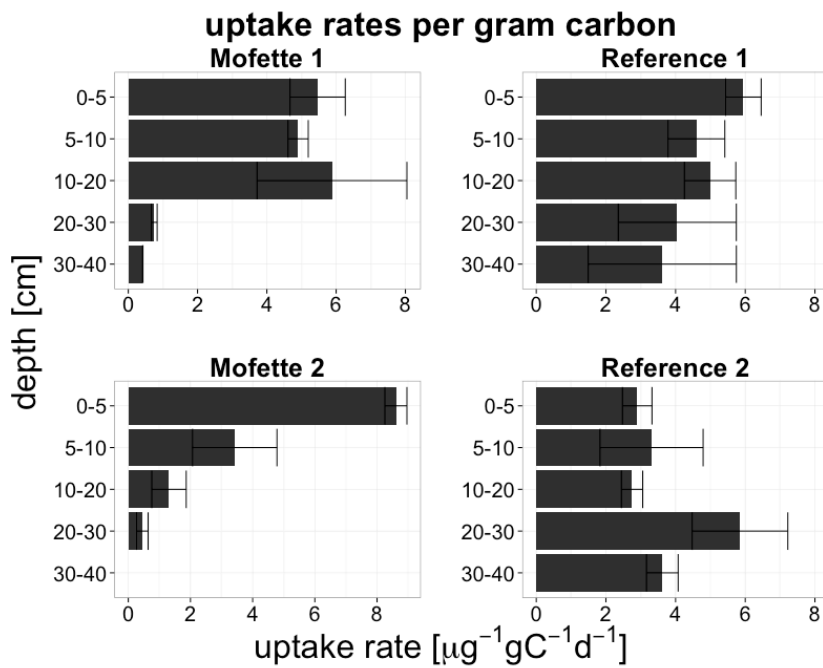
13 be plant derived (Eq. 9).

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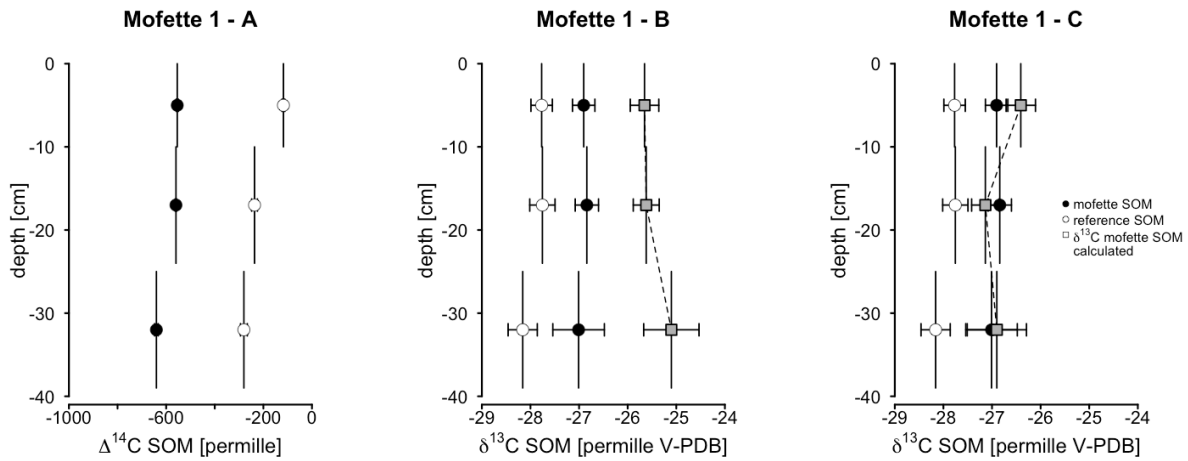


2

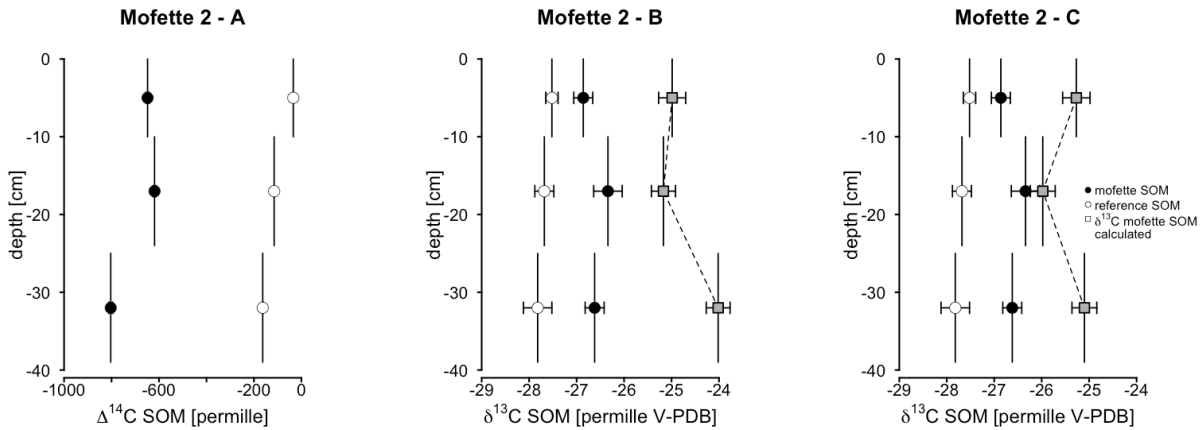
3 Figure 3: CO<sub>2</sub> uptake rates along depth profiles of mofette and reference soils as determined  
 4 by bulk measurements from experiment 2. In both mofettes, uptake rates are highest in the top  
 5 10 cm and show a trend towards decreasing values at lower depths, especially below 20 cm.  
 6 Uptake rates in reference soils also decrease with depth, but are nearly constant if normalized  
 7 to organic carbon content. In contrast, uptake rates per organic carbon decline with depth in  
 8 the mofette soils. This suggests increasing importance of autotrophic organisms with soil  
 9 depth in the reference soil.

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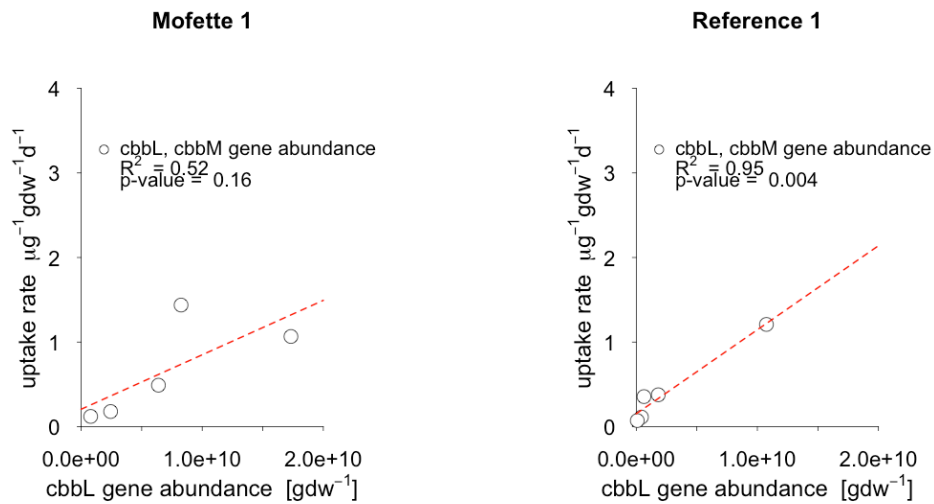
5 Figure 2: Depth profile of  $^{14}\text{C}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  signatures of SOM in mofette and reference soils.

6 A) Radiocarbon values in mofette soils are more depleted than reference soils, reflecting  
7 incorporation of geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  either by plants or by microorganisms. Error bars reflect  
8 analytical precision because only one homogenized sample was analyzed.

9 B)  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in both mofettes are also shifted towards geogenic  $\text{CO}_2$ , but to a smaller extent  
10 than radiocarbon values. Gray squares in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  depth profiles show values of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in mofette  
11 SOM estimated using Eq (9). Measured  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values are more depleted than estimated values  
12 at all depths.

13 C) Estimated  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values, assuming eq (9) but with  $^{14}\text{C}$  values that have been corrected for  
14 radioactive decay assuming that SOM ages with depth in the same way as the reference soil

1 These estimated  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values agree with measured values below 20 cm depth but remain  
2 depleted compared to what is expected from a pure plant SOM source in the top 10 cm. This  
3 suggests that the observed depletion in the top 10 cm of both mofette soils is caused by  
4 addition of  $^{13}\text{C}$  depleted microbial carbon, derived from fixed  $\text{CO}_2$ . In contrast, the mismatch  
5 between estimated and measured values below 20 cm depth in (B) can be explained by  
6 radioactive decay.  
7



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2 Figure 4: Correlation of marker genes encoding for RubisCO and measured uptake rates in  
3 mofette soil 1 and reference soil 1 in the soil depth profile from 0 to 40 cm depth. The good  
4 correlation in the reference soil indicates high contribution of chemolithoautotrophic  
5 microorganisms to measured uptake rates. In the mofette soil  $R^2$  is considerable lower, most  
6 probably, because also other  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation cycles that the CBB cycle, like the Acetyl-CoA  
7 cycle, are important pathways in these soils.

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