

1 **Aerobic methanotrophy within the pelagic redox-zone of the**  
2 **Gotland Deep (central Baltic Sea)**

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## 24 **Abstract**

25 Water column samples taken in summer 2008 from the stratified Gotland Deep (central Baltic  
26 Sea) showed a strong gradient in dissolved methane concentrations from high values in the saline  
27 deep water (max. 504 nM) to low concentrations in the less dense, brackish surface water (about  
28 4 nM). The steep methane-gradient (between 115 and 135 m water depth) within the redox-zone,  
29 that separates the anoxic deep part from the oxygenated surface water (oxygen concentration  
30 0 - 0.8 ml L<sup>-1</sup>), implies a methane consumption rate of 0.28 nM d<sup>-1</sup>. The process of microbial  
31 methane oxidation within this zone was evident by a shift of the stable carbon isotope ratio of  
32 methane between the bottom water ( $\delta^{13}\text{C CH}_4 = -82.4\text{‰}$ ) and the redox-zone ( $\delta^{13}\text{C CH}_4 = -$   
33 38.7‰). Water column samples between 80 and 119 m were studied to identify the  
34 microorganisms responsible for the methane turnover in that depth interval. Notably, methane  
35 monooxygenase gene expression analyses for water depths covering the whole redox-zone  
36 demonstrated that accordant methanotrophic activity was probably due to only one phylotype of  
37 the aerobic type I methanotrophic bacteria. An imprint of these organisms on the particular  
38 organic matter was revealed by distinctive lipid biomarkers showing bacteriohopanepolyols and  
39 lipid fatty acids characteristic for aerobic type I methanotrophs (e.g., 35-aminobacteriohopane-  
40 30,31,32,33,34-pentol), corroborating their role in aerobic methane oxidation in the redox-zone  
41 of the central Baltic Sea.

42

## 43 **1 Introduction**

44 Methane as an atmospheric trace gas is known to have a relevant impact on earth's climate.  
45 Aquatic systems represent the most significant source of atmospheric methane. However, the  
46 importance of the marine system seems to be marginal (Bange et al., 1994), although enormous  
47 amounts of methane are formed in marine sediments (Reeburgh, 2007). One effective mechanism

48 that is limiting the flux of methane from the sedimentary reservoir into the atmosphere is the  
49 microbial oxidation of methane in the sediment and the water column (Reeburgh, 2007).  
50 Comprehensive studies on aquatic sediments in different settings show that methane is  
51 microbially oxidized by the use of different electron acceptors, with oxygen being most important  
52 for the water column and sulfate for the sedimentary turnover (Barnes and Goldberg, 1976;  
53 Reeburgh, 1976; Hinrichs and Boetius, 2002; Reeburgh, 2007). Recently, anaerobic methane  
54 oxidation using iron, manganese and nitrite has also been reported (Beal et al., 2009; Ettwig et  
55 al., 2010). Although these processes are efficient and consume the main part of dissolved  
56 methane before it escapes from the sediment/water interface, some parts of the ocean are  
57 characterized by strongly elevated methane concentrations in the water column. This holds  
58 particularly true for stagnant, oxygen-deficient basins like the Black Sea, Cariaco Basin or central  
59 Baltic Sea (Scranton et al., 1993; Kessler et al., 2006; Schmale et al., 2010a). Compared to the  
60 number of studies on the microbial processes of methane oxidation in sediments, water column  
61 studies are scarce, and could to date just identify the oxidation of methane through oxygen and  
62 sulfate (Reeburgh, 2007 and references therein). Nevertheless, multidisciplinary studies in the  
63 water column of the Black Sea could impressively demonstrated that the flux of methane from  
64 the deep-water reservoir into the atmosphere is effectively buffered by the microbial oxidation of  
65 methane under anaerobic and aerobic conditions (Schouten et al., 2001; Schubert et al., 2006;  
66 Wakeham et al., 2007; Blumenberg et al., 2007; Schmale et al., 2011).

67 Our present investigations were carried out in the Gotland Deep in the central part of the Baltic  
68 Sea (Figure 1). The Baltic Sea is a European semi-enclosed marginal sea characterized by limnic  
69 to brackish surface water and more saline deep and bottom water. Especially for the central deep  
70 basins of the Baltic Sea, this results in limited vertical mixing, the development of a prominent  
71 redox-zone with oxic to anoxic conditions, and the formation of stable biogeochemical zones

72 (Nausch et al., 2008). In these basins, the stagnant deep water can only be renewed by strong  
73 temporal inflow events of saline oxygenated water from the North Sea (Reissmann et al., 2009)  
74 or by long term vertical transport mechanisms mainly induced by bottom boundary mixing along  
75 the sloping topography (Holtermann and Umlauf, 2012). More frequent are weak inflows of  
76 North Sea water that are periodically perturbing the intermediate water column stratification and  
77 biogeochemical zones in the central basins (Matthäus et al., 2008). The Baltic Sea, like other  
78 marginal seas, is characterized by high terrestrial inputs and production rates of organic matter  
79 that are to a considerable extent accumulated and decomposed in the sediment. Under anoxic  
80 conditions, the final step of decomposition of organic matter leads to the generation of methane  
81 within the sediment. In the Baltic Sea, pore-water as well as acoustic investigations demonstrated  
82 that methane is abundant in high concentrations within the sediment and that in some regions  
83 methane is also released as free or dissolved gas into the water column (Dando et al., 1994; Piker  
84 et al., 1998; Thießen et al., 2006). Extensive water column investigations in the Baltic Sea  
85 identified the strongest methane enrichment within the stagnant anoxic water bodies of the deep  
86 basins (Gotland Deep and Landsort Deep; max. 504 nM at 230 m water depth and 1058 nM at  
87 435 m water depth, respectively; Schmale et al., 2010b). In contrast, surface water methane  
88 concentrations in these areas are only slightly enriched compared to the atmospheric equilibrium,  
89 indicating an effective sink that prevents the escape of methane from the deep water into the  
90 atmosphere (Schmale et al., 2010b). However, little is as yet known about the processes that  
91 regulate the methane flux in this environment. In this paper, we use a multidisciplinary approach  
92 that combines gas chemistry, molecular biology and lipid biomarker geochemistry and present  
93 data on a microbial methane sink within the pelagic redox-zone of the Gotland Deep. Thus, this  
94 study aims to investigate whether aerobic methane oxidation also plays a role in the more  
95 dynamic and turbulent redox-zone of the central Baltic Sea.

## 97 **2 Methods**

98 Samples were retrieved during a scientific cruise in summer 2008 with the German research  
99 vessel Maria S. Merian (MSM 08/3, June 18<sup>th</sup> to July 18<sup>th</sup>). The Gotland Deep (57°18'N and  
100 20°04'E; Figure 1) represents the deepest location in the eastern Gotland Basin (water depth at  
101 our water station 231 m). The sampling strategy at this location was directed at (1) identifying the  
102 depth interval of aerobic methane oxidation within the redox-zone based on physical parameters  
103 and on board gas chemistry, and (2) recovering samples from the relevant depth interval for  
104 home-based molecular biological and lipid biomarker studies to identify the microorganisms  
105 involved in methane oxidation. These samples were taken within a time frame of 3 days and with  
106 different sampling equipments (as described below).

107

### 108 **2.1 Physical parameters and gas chemistry**

109 Water stations for analyses of the gas chemistry were carried out with a rosette water sampler  
110 equipped with twenty-four 10 l Hydrobios-Freeflow bottles. For continuous CTD and turbidity  
111 profiling a Seabird sbe911+ system, together with a turbidity sensor (ECO FLNTU, WET Labs)  
112 were attached to the underwater unit.

113 The oxygen distribution was measured according to Winkler's method, whereas hydrogen sulfide  
114 was analysed colorimetrically with the methylene blue method (Grasshoff et al., 1983).

115 Water samples (600 ml) for methane analyses were transferred directly from the sample bottle  
116 into pre-evacuated 1100 ml glass bottles. Dissolved methane was extracted using a vacuum  
117 degassing method and its mole fraction was determined with a gas chromatograph equipped with

118 a flame ionization detector (Trace GC, Thermo Electron). The average precision of this method is  
119  $\pm 3\%$  (Keir et al., 2009).

120 For the determination of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   $\text{CH}_4$  values, subsamples of the extracted gas were analyzed at the  
121 Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea Research Warnemünde using an isotope-ratio mass spectrometer  
122 (modified after Schmale et al., 2010a). These subsamples were collected in 10 ml pre-evacuated  
123 crimp-top glass vials containing 4 mL of supersaturated salt solution (degassed Millipore water,  
124 poisoned with  $\text{HgCl}_2$ ) and sealed with a butyl rubber septum. Stable carbon isotope analysis  
125 involved removal of water and carbon dioxide on a NaOH/Ascarite trap, double cryofocussing at  
126  $-110^\circ\text{C}$  (ethanol/nitrogen) on Hayesep D and Poraplot S columns, gas-release by heating the traps  
127 separately to  $40^\circ\text{C}$  and gas separation on a MolSieve 5A Plot capillary column (Supelco, 30 m,  
128 I.D. 0.32 mm) at  $30^\circ\text{C}$  (Trace GC Ultra, Thermo Electron), combustion to  $\text{CO}_2$  using a Ni  
129 catalyst at  $1050^\circ\text{C}$ , removal of combustion water using a Nafion trap, and injection into a  
130 MAT 253 mass spectrometer (Thermo Electron, Bremen) using a continuous flow technique. The  
131  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   $\text{CH}_4$  data is expressed vs. Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) standard. Calibration of the  
132 system was performed daily by the use of a  $\text{CH}_4$  standard with known isotopic composition. The  
133 average precision of that method is  $\pm 1\%$ .

134

## 135 **2.2 *pmoA* gene expression analyses**

136 Within the identified redox-zone filter samples were taken in 80, 100, 105 and 119 m water depth  
137 using a rosette water sampler. 1000 ml sample water were filtered on a Durapore filter (0.2  $\mu\text{m}$   
138 pore size), frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at  $-80^\circ\text{C}$ .

139 For each sample RNA was extracted from the frozen filter with acidic phenol (Weinbauer et al.,  
140 2002) and quantified using a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrometer (NanoDrop Technologies). To  
141 generate *pmoA*-specific cDNA 100 ng RNA was reverse transcribed using the iScript Select

142 cDNA Synthesis Kit (Biorad) and reverse primer mb661r (Costello and Lidstrom, 1999). To  
143 detect potential DNA contamination one sample was incubated without reverse transcriptase. 1  $\mu$ l  
144 of cDNA was amplified by Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR). For the generation of specific  
145 GC-clamped PCR products a discontinuous PCR was applied: reactions (50  $\mu$ l) containing 1 x  
146 PCR buffer, 200  $\mu$ M of each dNTP, 0.3  $\mu$ M reverse primer mb661r, 0.1  $\mu$ M forward primer  
147 A189f (Holmes et al., 1995), 0.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.5  $\mu$ l polymerase (Herculase II, Fusion) and  
148 template cDNA were incubated at initial 94°C for 5 min. After 20 cycles of 60 s at 94°C, 60 s at  
149 56°C and 30 s at 72°C the PCR was paused at 72°C and 0.12  $\mu$ M A189f\_GC primer were added  
150 to each reaction. Afterwards the PCR was resumed for another 15 cycles with conditions as  
151 described above, followed by a final elongation step of 5 min at 72°C. Specificity of the PCR  
152 products was documented by agarose gel electrophoresis and staining with ethidium bromide.  
153 The described discontinuous PCR yielded more specific and distinct PCR products than a  
154 conventional PCR with GC-primer (data not shown).

155 PCR products were separated by Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis (DGGE) using a  
156 gradient of 35% to 80% denaturant in a 6% polyacrylamide gel. Electrophoresis ran at 100 V and  
157 60°C for 16 h in 1 X TAE buffer. The gel was stained with a 1:5000 dilution of SYBRGold  
158 (Invitrogen) for 30 min. All bands from each depth were excised and reamplified in a PCR  
159 reaction containing 1 x PCR buffer, 0.3  $\mu$ M of A189f and mb661r each, 200  $\mu$ M of each dNTP  
160 and 0.5  $\mu$ l polymerase in 30 cycles with an annealing temperature of 56°C. PCR products were  
161 purified with NucleoSpin purification kit (Macherey-Nagel) and sequenced with primers A189f  
162 and mb661r by AGOWA (Berlin, Germany).

163 Forward and reverse sequences were checked for quality applying Seqman software  
164 (DNASTAR).

165 For phylogenetic analysis the ARB software package was used (Ludwig et al., 2004). Alignment  
166 was based on partial DNA sequences of *pmoA* and *amoA* genes obtained from GenBank Database  
167 with partial sequences of *amoA* (Accession numbers: AF037107, AF043710, AF037108) serving  
168 as an outgroup in the tree construction. Sequences for analysis were reduced to unambiguously  
169 alignable positions.

170 Three different trees were calculated using the algorithms maximum likelihood (PHYML),  
171 maximum parsimony and neighbor-joining with Jukes-Cantor correction.

172 Nucleotide sequence accession numbers is deposited in the GenBank database (accession number  
173 will be provided after acceptance of the manuscript).

174

### 175 **2.3 Lipid biomarkers**

176 For lipid biomarker studies a sample was selected from the centre of the redox-zone at 100 m  
177 water depth. That depth was chosen to obtain a POM sample that reflects the *in situ* microbial  
178 turnover of methane under low-oxygen conditions and is not “contaminated” by external water  
179 masses (i.e. increased oxygen concentrations or anoxic conditions) which may also include other  
180 methane consuming microorganisms (e.g. consortia performing the anaerobic oxidation of  
181 methane). 214 l of water were filtered on glass microfiber filters ( $\varnothing$  30 cm; 0.7  $\mu$ m pore size) over  
182 a time span of two hours using a PUMP-CTD system (Strady et al., 2008). Half of the filter was  
183 extracted in triplicate with dichloromethane and methanol (3:1, v:v) in a CEM Mars 5 microwave  
184 (Matthews, NC) at 80°C and 800 W. An aliquot of the sample was acetylated with acetic  
185 acid/pyridine as described elsewhere (Blumenberg et al., 2007) and analysed using high  
186 performance liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS). LC-MS was performed using a  
187 Varian Prostar Dynamax HPLC system coupled to a Varian 1200L triple quadrupole mass  
188 spectrometer (for analytical details see Blumenberg et al., 2010). Another aliquot of the extract



189 was separated by column chromatography into a hydrocarbon (F1), an alcohol and ketone (F2),  
190 and a polar fraction (F3) using a column ( $\varnothing \sim 1$  cm) filled with 7.5 g silica gel 60 (according to  
191 Blumenberg et al., 2010). F3 was transmethylated using trimethylchlorosilane in methanol (1:8;  
192 v:v; 1.5 h at 80°C). Double bond positions within unsaturated fatty acid methyl esters were  
193 determined by derivatisation with dimethyldisulfide (DMDS; method modified after Carlson et  
194 al., 1989 and Gatellier et al., 1993). The polar fraction (F3), and the DMDS derivatized sample  
195 were analyzed with coupled gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) using a Varian  
196 CP-3800 gas chromatograph equipped with a fused silica column (Phenomenex Zebron ZB-5MS,  
197 30 m, I.D. 0.32 mm) coupled to a Varian 1200L mass spectrometer. He was used as carrier gas.  
198 The temperature program was 80°C (3 min) to 310°C (held 25 min) at 4°C min<sup>-1</sup>. Compounds  
199 were identified by comparing mass spectra and retention times to published data.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of  
200 fatty acid methyl esters from the polar fraction (F3) were measured in replicate as described  
201 previously (Blumenberg et al., 2010). The precision was generally better than 0.5 %.

202

### 203 **3 Results and discussion**

#### 204 **3.1 Physical parameters and gas chemistry**

205 The estuarine circulation in the Baltic Sea causes a strong vertical salinity gradient between the  
206 surface and deep water (Lass and Matthäus, 2008). This gradient is very pronounced in the deep  
207 basins of the central Baltic Sea (e.g. Gotland and Landsort Deep; Figure 2) and reflects a water  
208 column stratification that limits the vertical mixing and water renewal in the deep strata  
209 (Reissmann et al., 2009). Oceanographic investigations, carried out at the redox-zone of the  
210 Gotland Deep, show that this depth is periodically perturbed by intrusions, internal waves or

211 eddies which can shift the amplitudes of isoclines up to 10 m within time-spans less than an hour  
212 (shown for temperature and salinity in Lass et al., 2003; Dellwig et al., 2012).

213 During sampling, the specific water column structure led to oxygen deficiency below a water  
214 depth of about 80 m. Further downward, the oxygen concentrations decreased below  $0.8 \text{ mL L}^{-1}$ ,  
215 characterizing the redox-zone between the oxic surface and anoxic deep waters. The lower  
216 boundary of the redox-zone was located at about 138 m water depth where the concentration of  
217 hydrogen sulphide ( $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ) started to increase. A distinct turbidity anomaly was observed at about  
218 120 m water depth (Figure 2). This specific feature is known from other anoxic basins like the  
219 Black Sea and is most likely caused by the precipitation of iron and manganese oxides (Kempe et  
220 al., 1991) and an enrichment of particulate organic matter (POM) due to enhanced microbial  
221 activity (Prokhorenko et al., 1994). The concentrations of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and other reduced chemical  
222 species like ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) are constantly increasing with depth, indicating an upward flux  
223 from the sediment or deep water towards the redox-zone (Nausch et al., 2008). The same  
224 concentration pattern was observed for methane (Fig. 2). Highest methane concentrations were  
225 detected close to the seafloor (504 nM at 230 m water depth) supporting an origin from  
226 methanogenesis in the sediment (Piker et al., 1998). Indeed, low  $\delta^{13}\text{C CH}_4$  values ( $-82.4 \text{ ‰}$  to -  
227  $75.2 \text{ ‰}$ , Figure 2) observed in the anoxic water body clearly point at a microbial methane source  
228 (Whiticar, 1999). The methane concentration profile shows a pronounced decrease within the  
229 redox-zone from 124 nM at 135 m water depth to 4.8 nM at 115 m water depth. At the same time,  
230  $\delta^{13}\text{C CH}_4$  values substantially increase (up to  $-38.7 \text{ ‰}$  at 80 m water depth). As microbial  
231 reactions favour the incorporation of  $^{12}\text{C}$  and thus, enrichment in  $^{13}\text{CH}_4$  in the residual methane  
232 pool, this isotopic shift clearly indicates microbial methane oxidation within that water level  
233 (Whiticar, 1999). In a first approximation the methane oxidation rate can be derived from the  
234 methane gradient and the vertical transport velocity. Using the vertical diffusivity ( $k_z$ ) of  $0.95 \text{ m}^2$

235  $\text{d}^{-1}$  (Axell, 1998) in combination with the methane distribution between 115 m (4.8 nM) and at  
236 135 m water depth (124 nM) this calculation leads to a flux of methane of  $5.7 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ . If we  
237 assume that this flux is oxidized within the 20 m depth interval, we receive a methane  
238 consumption rate of  $0.28 \text{ nM d}^{-1}$ . An inverse trend in methane carbon isotope ratios is observed  
239 above the suboxic layer (Figure 2;  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ratios between  $-59.9\text{‰}$  and  $-48.5\text{‰}$ ). This trend is  
240 probably caused by (1) the downward ventilation of atmospheric methane ( $-47.4\text{‰}$ ;  
241 <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/iadv/>), and/or (2) microbial methane production in shallow  
242 waters. The process of methane formation in an oxygenated water column has been observed in  
243 many regions (Holmes et al., 2000; Schmale et al., 2010a) and seems to be related to the decay of  
244 methylphosphonates, in particular under phosphate-limiting conditions, and/or methanogenesis in  
245 the anoxic interior of particles (Karl et al., 2008). Such methane forming processes are also  
246 indicated in our dataset by a pronounced  $^{13}\text{CH}_4$  depletion at 20 m water depth ( $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -59.9\text{‰}$ )  
247 together with slightly elevated methane concentrations of 7 nM (surrounding water depths around  
248 4 nM). However, within the surface water, methane is only slightly enriched compared with the  
249 atmospheric equilibrium (144% saturation ratio; Schmale et al., 2010b), indicating that the local  
250 emission of methane into the atmosphere is rather low.

251

### 252 **3.2 Methanotrophic microorganisms within the redox-zone**

253 Chemical gradients feature versatile environments and are known to harbour enhanced microbial  
254 abundance and activity. Within the redox-zone of the central Baltic Sea, various biogeochemical  
255 processes have been identified, such as denitrification, ammonia oxidation, or dark  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation  
256 (Labrenz et al., 2005; Jost et al., 2008; Glaubitz et al., 2009; Labrenz et al., 2010) and also

257 microbial consumption of methane was proposed as mechanism explaining the strong methane  
258 decrease in this water layer (Schmale et al., 2010a).

259 To gain information on the contribution of methanotrophic microorganisms to the POM within  
260 the redox-zone, we performed expression analyses of the methane monooxygenase gene (*pmoA*),  
261 and studied concentrations and distributions of bacteriohopanepolyols (BHPs).

262 The presence of methanotrophic bacteria was proved by molecular biological studies carried out  
263 on samples obtained from 80, 100, 105 and 119 m water depth (Figure 2). Although the two  
264 groups of methanotrophs, type I and type II, use different physiological pathways for the  
265 assimilation of carbon from methane, namely the ribulose monophosphate pathway and the serine  
266 pathway, the key enzyme methane monooxygenase responsible for the initial oxidation of  
267 methane to methanol is present in both groups. The gene coding for the alpha subunit of the  
268 particulate form of the enzyme (*pmoA*) has been used as a marker for the detection and  
269 characterization of methanotrophic communities in different habitats (Costello and Lidstrom,  
270 1999; Bourne et al., 2001; Chen et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2008). In order to identify active  
271 methanotrophs we investigated *pmoA* gene expression *in situ*. Based on DGGE analysis only one  
272 type of *pmoA* transcript, named Uncultured GotDeep\_pmoA1, was present throughout the redox-  
273 zone. Phylogenetically it is affiliated with the type I methanotrophs and practically identical to an  
274 uncultured bacterium found in the meromictic crater lake Lac Pavin (Figure 3). With a  
275 permanently anoxic monimolimnion, also due to a halocline, elevated concentrations of CH<sub>4</sub> and  
276 nearly identical temperatures around 5-6°C (Aeschbach-Hertig et al., 2002) environmental  
277 conditions in Lac Pavin are in some aspects comparable to the central Baltic Sea (Fig. 2). Thus,  
278 activity of these identified methanotrophs could be indicative for this kind of habitat.

279 To support these finding, an additional POM sample obtained in the centre of the redox-zone was  
280 investigated for lipid biomarkers. Of special biomarker value are BHPs with an A-ring

281 methylation at C-3 (Neunlist and Rohmer, 1985) and/or an amino group at C-35 of the hopanoid  
282 structure, both of which are widespread in methanotrophic bacteria (Neunlist and Rohmer, 1985;  
283 Talbot et al., 2001). The vast majority of BHPs was composed of bacteriohopane-32,33,34,35-  
284 tetrol (BHT) and 35-aminobacteriohopane-32,33,34-triol (aminotriol), the most common and thus  
285 unspecific BHPs (Figure 4). C-3 methylated BHPs were not observed. However, low abundances  
286 of 35-aminobacteriohopane-31,32,33,34-tetrol (aminotetrol) and of 35-aminobacteriohopane-  
287 30,31,32,33,34-pentol (aminopentol) were found (Figure 4). Whereas these both amino-BHPs are  
288 considered indicative of methanotrophic bacteria (Neunlist and Rohmer, 1985; Talbot and  
289 Farrimond, 2007), particularly the latter is even regarded as a biomarker for the type I subgroup  
290 (gamma proteobacteria; (Talbot and Farrimond, 2007)). Further evidence for a prominent  
291 contribution of type I methanotrophs comes from the fatty acids C16:1 $\omega$ 8c and C16:1 $\omega$ 5c which  
292 are considered as specific to this group (Makula, 1978; Nichols et al., 1985; Table 1). At the same  
293 time the lack of C18:1 $\omega$ 8c, a fatty acid specific of type II methanotrophs (alpha proteobacteria,  
294 Bowmann et al., 1991), indicates that these microorganisms do not play a significant role for the  
295 methane turnover at the redox-zone of the Gotland Deep. Biomarkers from methanotrophic  
296 bacteria commonly show the isotopic traits of the substrate (Summons et al., 1994). Indeed the  
297  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of the fatty acids C16:1 $\omega$ 8c and C16:1 $\omega$ 5c (-38.8‰ and -35.5‰, respectively; Table  
298 1) are well within the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  CH<sub>4</sub> at 80 and 105 m (= -38.7‰ and -50.6‰, respectively; Figure 2).  
299 Whereas biomarker indications for the presence of methanotrophic bacteria exist, their relative  
300 abundance among the bacterial community appears to be low. This is indicated (i) by the low  
301 proportion of methanotroph-specific amino-BHPs within the total BHPs (< 1.6% of total BHPs;  
302 note that amino-BHPs are often predominant in methanotrophs (Talbot et al., 2001)), and (ii) by  
303 the low amounts of type I specific fatty acids acids (C16:1 $\omega$ 8c and C16:1 $\omega$ 5c represent 1.4% of  
304 total fatty acids).

305 Thus, in contrast to studies in the redox-zone of the Black Sea, where indications for type I, II  
306 and X were found (Gal'chenko et al., 1988; Durisch-Kaiser et al., 2005; Blumenberg et al., 2007),  
307 the diversity of active aerobic methanotrophs in the redox-zone of the Gotland Deep seemed to be  
308 restricted. These findings are only based on one dataset, but it would be in line with previous  
309 studies investigating the microbial catalysts of denitrification, nitrification, or dark CO<sub>2</sub> fixation  
310 in central Baltic Sea redox-zones which also revealed that these pathways were actively driven by  
311 only a few bacterial or archaeal key species (Grote et al., 2008; Glaubitz et al., 2009; Labrenz et  
312 al., 2010). An explanation for the reduced diversity of active microorganisms along the central  
313 Baltic Sea redox-zone could be the periodic perturbation of the stratification which does not  
314 occur in the same strength and frequency in the Black Sea. An overlap of sulfide- and oxygen-  
315 containing waters can occur in the Gotland Basin (Axell, 1998), and it is known that sulfide is  
316 toxic for many organisms or at least can inhibit the activity of specific microorganisms (Erguder  
317 et al., 2009). Thus, potential sulfide stress could inhibit other than type I methanotrophic bacteria  
318 within the redox-zone of the Gotland Deep, but this interesting aspect needs further investigation.  
319

#### 320 **4 Conclusion**

321 Using a multidisciplinary approach of gas chemistry, molecular biology, and lipid geochemistry,  
322 we identified the process of aerobic methane oxidation within the pelagic redox-zone of the  
323 Gotland Deep (central Baltic Sea). This was evidenced by a strong decrease in methane  
324 concentrations together with a <sup>13</sup>C CH<sub>4</sub> enrichment, the detection of the key enzyme methane  
325 monooxygenase (*pmoA*), and the occurrence of lipids specific for methanotrophic bacteria (e.g.,  
326 aminopentol; 16:1ω8c fatty acid). Phylogenetic and biomarker data indicate that the diversity of  
327 active aerobic methanotrophs in the redox-zone of the Gotland Deep was restricted to members  
328 of the type I subgroup. In contrast to other marine settings with a permanent stratification, e.g. the

329 Black Sea, the physical and biogeochemical structure of the Gotland Deep is periodically  
330 disturbed by intrusions, eddies, internal waves or long term vertical transport mechanisms. How  
331 this variable environment is affecting the methane turnover in the water column and the microbial  
332 community responsible for this process is an interesting question that needs to be investigated in  
333 future studies.

334

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353 **References**

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541 **Table 1:** Concentrations, relative abundances and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of individual fatty acids (analyzed  
 542 as methyl ester derivatives) at 100 m water depth of the Gotland Deep. Fatty acids specific for  
 543 methanotrophic bacteria are given in bold letters.

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| <b>Fatty acid</b>                 | <b>Concentration</b><br>[ $\mu\text{g/g C}_{\text{org}}$ ] | <b>% of total fatty</b><br><b>acids</b> | <b><math>\delta^{13}\text{C}</math></b><br>[‰] |
|-----------------------------------|--|---|--|
| C14:0                             | 3.78   | 0.7                                     | -26.9  |
| iC15:0                            | 8.61   | 1.6                                     | -21.5  |
| aiC15:0                           | 10.14  | 1.9                                     | -26.2  |
| C15:0                             | 8.6  | 1.6                                     | -25.8  |
| iC16:0                            | 2.9  | 0.5                                     | -29.7  |
| C16:1 $\omega$ 9t                 | 3.1  | 0.6                                     | -22.2  |
| <b>C16:1<math>\omega</math>8c</b> | 1.0  | 0.2                                     | <b>-38.8</b>                                   |
| C16:1 $\omega$ 8t                 | 3.3  | 0.6                                     | -30.4  |
| C16:1 $\omega$ 7c                 | 23.1   | 4.2                                     | -27.6  |
| C16:1 $\omega$ 7t                 | 5.7  | 1.0                                     | -  |
| <b>C16:1<math>\omega</math>5c</b> | 6.6  | 1.2                                     | <b>-35.7</b>                                   |
| C16:1 $\omega$ 5t                 | 2.2  | 0.4                                     | -33.8  |
| C16:0                             | 130.0  | 23.7                                    | -26.9  |
| iC17:0                            | 1.0  | 0.2                                     | -29.6  |
| aiC17:0                           | 1.6  | 0.3                                     | -28.6  |
| C17:0                             | 6.3  | 1.2                                     | -30.9  |
| C18:2                             | 4.1  | 0.8                                     | -25.4  |
| C18:3                             | 3.3  | 0.6                                     | -  |
| C18:1 $\omega$ 9c                 | 24.6   | 4.5                                     | -26.5  |
| C18:1 $\omega$ 7c                 | 23.3   | 4.2                                     | -24.9  |
| C18:1 $\omega$ 6c                 | 1.5  | 0.3                                     | -30.9  |
| C18:1 $\omega$ 5c                 | 0.9  | 0.2                                     | -20.2  |
| C18:0                             | 227.9  | 41.6                                    | -27.1  |
| iC19:0                            | 45.0   | 0.9                                     | -26.5  |
| C19:0                             | 3.8  | 0.7                                     | -  |
| C20:0                             | 15.4   | 2.8                                     | -29.6  |
| C21:0                             | 2.0  | 0.4                                     | -  |
| C22:0                             | 10.3   | 1.9                                     | -29.7  |
| C24:0                             | 7.7  | 1.4                                     | -  |

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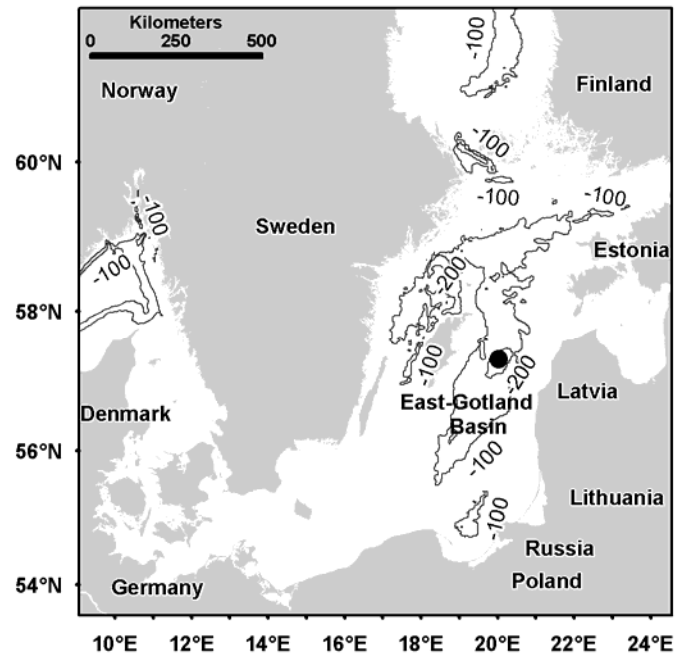
546 **Figures**

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**Figure 1.** The Baltic Sea and the location of the Gotland Deep. The study area is indicated with a black dot.

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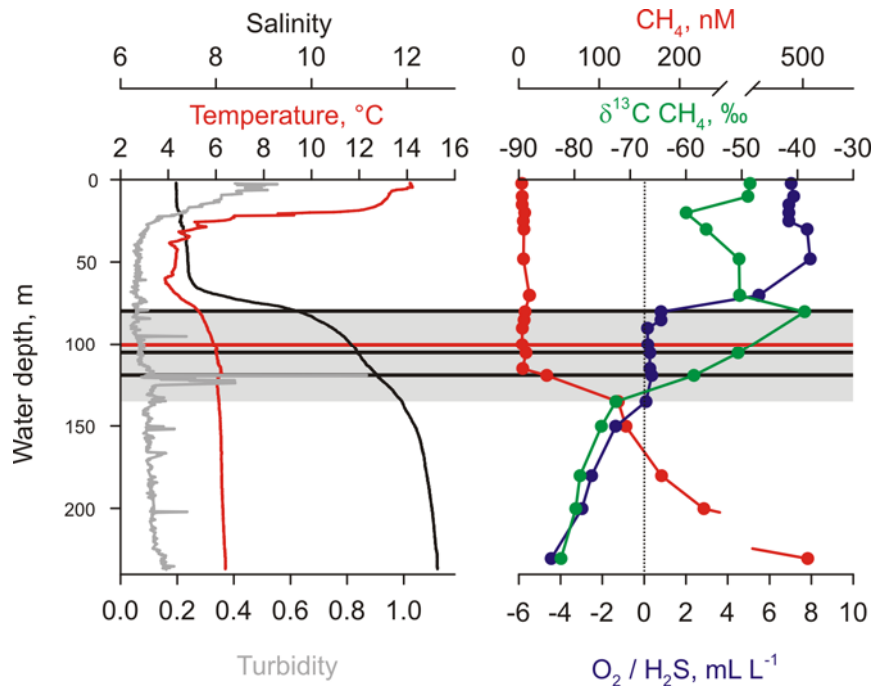
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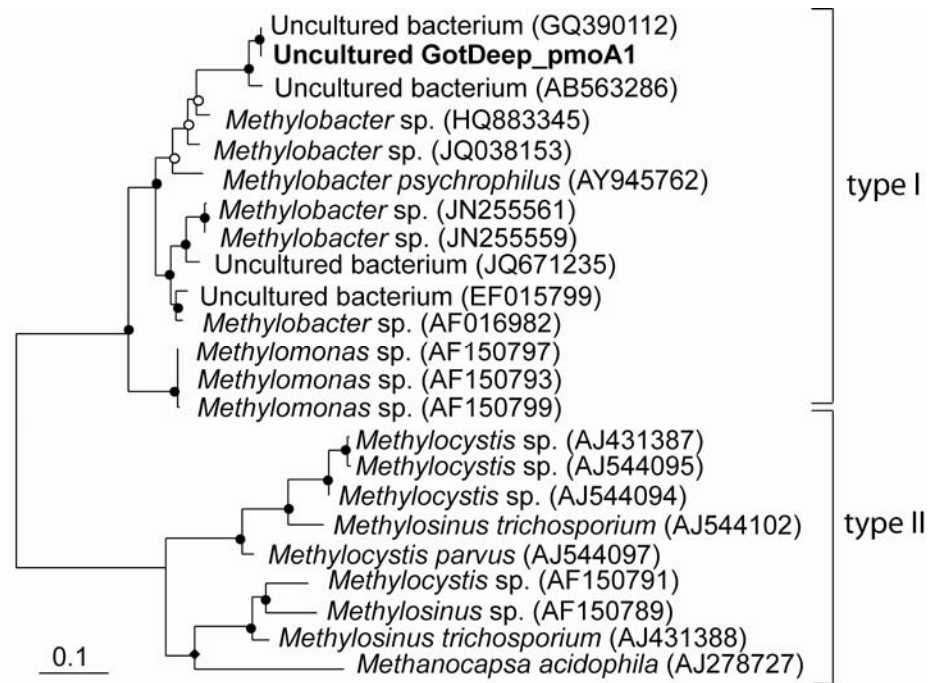
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**Figure 2.** Left: vertical distribution of salinity (black), temperature (red), and turbidity (gray). Right: vertical distribution of oxygen and hydrogen sulfide (expressed as negative oxygen equivalents, blue), methane (red), and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value of methane (green). The depth interval of the redox-zone is displayed in gray (oxygen concentration 0 - 0.8 ml L<sup>-1</sup>). The water depths for molecular biological and lipid biomarker studies are indicated with colored horizontal lines (black = molecular biology, red = molecular biology together with lipid biomarkers).

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**Figure 3.** Unrooted maximum likelihood tree showing the phylogenetic affiliation of the partial *pmoA* DNA sequence generated from the filter samples taken in 80, 100, 105 and 119 m water depth (marked bold). Black circles = validation of subtree by neighbor-joining and parsimony; white circles = validation of subtree by parsimony; black diamond = validation of subtree by neighbor-joining. Scale bar represents 10 substitutions per 100 nucleotides. For tree construction partial *amoA* sequences were used as an outgroup (not shown).

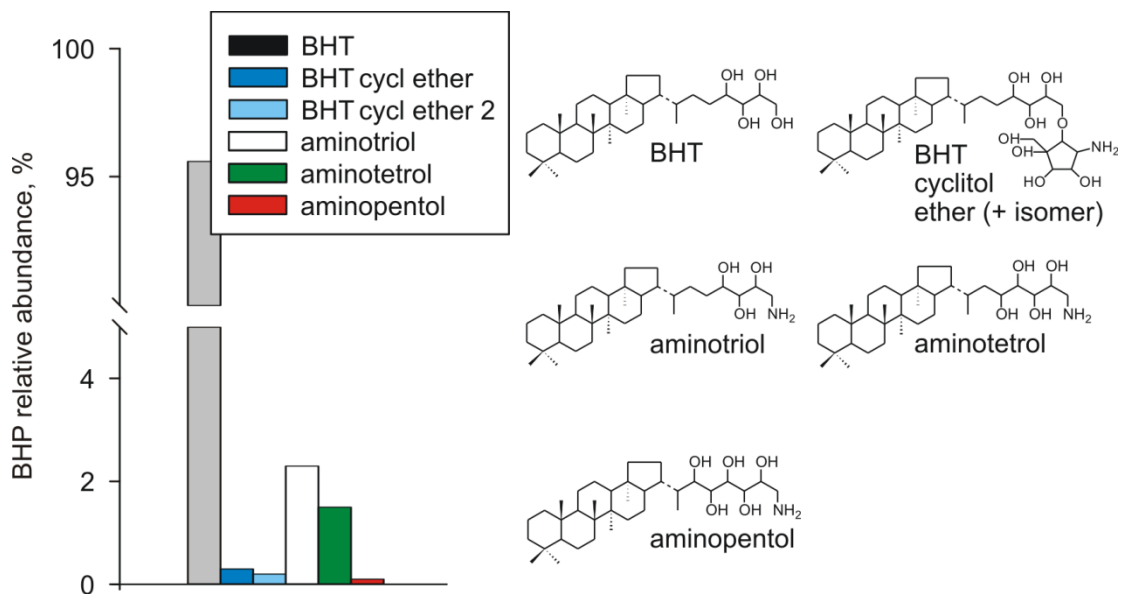
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**Figure 4.** The relative abundances of specific bacteriohopanepolyols (BHPs) sampled in 100 m water depth, together with the chemical structure of each compound. BHT = bacteriohopanetetrol; cycl = cyclitol.