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Microtopography matters for CH₄ formation in a peat soil: a combined inhibitor and ¹³C study

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Abstract. Peatlands' microtopography units – hummocks and hollows – are mainly differing by hydrological characteristics

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(water table level, *i.e.* oxic-anoxic conditions) and vegetation communities. These factors affect the fluxes of key greenhouse gases (GHG) - methane (CH₄) and carbon dioxide (CO₂). However, the effects of microrelief forms on belowground CO₂ and CH₄ production and pathways of methanogenesis need deeper understanding. We hypothesized increasing CH₄ and CO₂ production potentials from naturally drier hummocks to more wet hollows during anaerobic incubation. GHG production in peat was expected to decrease with depth (decreasing inputs of recent plant-derived deposits) but the contribution of

hydrogenotrophic vs. acetoclastic pathway to the total methanogenesis should be higher in deeper peat layers as compared to

upper layers. To test the hypotheses, we measured CH₄ and CO₂ productions together with the respective δ^{13} C values under

controlled anaerobic conditions with- and without addition of specific inhibitor of methanogenesis (2-bromo-ethane sulfonate,

BES) in a peat soil of hummocks and hollows of five depths (15, 50, 100, 150 and 200 cm). The concentration of BES (1 mM)

aimed to block acetoclastic but not the hydrogenotrophic pathway of methanogenesis.

As expected, CH₄ production was ca. 2 times higher in hollows than in hummocks, though no differences in CO₂ were measured between the microforms. With depth, CO₂ production rates decreased by 77% (15 cm vs. 200 cm) in both microforms, whereby the highest CH₄ production was measured at 15 cm in hollows (91% of total produced CH₄) and at 50 cm in hummocks (82%). Noteworthy, at 15 cm of hummocks less than 1% of total CH₄ production was observed. Decreasing GHG production rates with depth positively correlated to an increase in the extractable total N and NH₄⁺ concentrations. The

hydrogenotrophic pathway of methanogenesis in deep vs. surface layers was depicted by lower (more negative) δ^{13} C-CH₄ and

higher δ¹³C-CO₂ values, respectively. Between the microforms, overall higher contribution of hydrogenotrophic vs.

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acetoclastic methanogenesis corresponded to hollows as compared to hummocks. Contrary to the expectation, the addition of

1mM BES was not selective and inhibited both pathways of methanogenesis. Concluding, peatlands' microrelief is an

important factor regulating the GHG fluxes. However, the effects of microforms on the production of CH4 and pathways of

methanogenesis were pronounced for the upper 50 cm layer. Finally, inhibition with BES appeared to be less effective tool for

the partitioning between pathways of methanogenesis as compared with the isotope method.

Key words: Greenhouse gases, boreal peatland, microtopography, stable carbon isotope method, methanogenesis inhibitor, 2-

bromo-ethane sulfonate

1 Introduction

Northern peatlands historically have been a sink of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO2) but also revealed their potential of

releasing large CO₂ and methane (CH₄) fluxes to the atmosphere as a result of environmental or anthropogenic forcing

(Limpens et al., 2008). Both are important greenhouse gases (GHG, IPCC, 2014) which balance in peatland ecosystems is

regulated by multiple environmental factors. Among them the water table level, which controls the aeration status of the peat

(Moore and Knowles, 1989; Moore and Roulet, 1993; Kettunen 2003), the peat quality, which reflects the decomposability of

constituent substances (Svensson and Sundh 1992; Yavitt et al., 2000), the vegetation, which regulates the peat quality, transfer

of gases belowground and to the atmosphere (Whiting and Chanton, 1993; Bubier et al., 1995) and the temperature, which

controls the metabolic rate of microorganisms (Crill et al., 1993; Granberg et al., 2001). Another important factor is the

peatlands' microtopography, which highlights the role of location with specific physical and biochemical conditions, and

stipulates the interaction between the atmosphere, vegetation and the subjacent peat (Dorodnikov et al., 2011). Thus, depending

on a surface elevation three microrelief forms (microforms) are distinguished: elevated hummocks, depressed lawns and

intermediate lawns (Bubier et al., 1993). Two contrasting microforms – hummocks and hollows – distinctly differ by the water

table level, i.e. subsurface of water logged hollows is typically anaerobic as compared to drier hummocks thereby stressing the

difference in redox processes between two microforms (Kettunen, 2003). Furthermore, the plant species composition is closely

connected with the water table and moisture conditions (Waddington and Roulet, 1997). This controls the input of plant-

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derived deposits in the microforms, hence affects the carbon turnover and the formation and emission of GHG (Ström et al.,

2005). Most studies so far focused on aboveground GHG flux measurements to the atmosphere as related to the types of

microforms (Bubier et al., 1993; Dalva and Moore, 2001; Baird et al., 2009). But there is still not enough understanding of the

mechanisms controlling belowground CH₄ and CO₂ dynamics in profile layers below subsurface of microforms.

Generally, the CH₄ cycling in peatlands consists of CH₄ production (methanogenesis) in the anoxic parts of the soil by

microorganisms of the archaea type (methanogens) and CH₄ oxidation (methanotrophy) in presumably oxic layers (Lai, 2009).

The process of methanogenesis involves two main pathways: (1) acetate cleavage (acetoclastic pathway), which mostly occurs

in the presence of fresh SOM and (2) CO₂ reduction with hydrogen (H₂) (hydrogenotrophic pathway) when other substrates

for methanogenesis are scarce (Hornibrook et al., 1997; Popp et al., 1999). CO₂ production occurs during both anaerobic SOM

fermentation and methanogenesis, as well as in the oxic part of the soil by plant- and microbial respiration, together with

methanotrophy. As described above, peatland's microforms are distinct by the thickness of aeration zone of peat and plant

communities which supply microorganisms with organic substrates. This in turn may affect the proportion of two

methanogenesis types between, e.g. hummocks and hollows and especially with depth (Dorodnikov et al., 2013).

Among other factors controlling CO₂ and CH₄ production in peatlands, deposition of some anions, such as ammonium (NH₄⁺),

nitrate (NO₃-), sulfate (SO₄²-), metals (Fe) could alter GHG fluxes (Eriksson et al., 2010; Sutton-Grier et. al., 2011). Supply of

peatlands with N and S compounds occurs mainly through the anthropogenic eutrophication of inland waters and/or acidic

deposition from the atmosphere (Sutton-Grier et. al., 2011). Along with the nutrition effect of N, S, Fe compounds for the

plant- and microbial communities, they participate in redox reactions as alternative electron acceptors (AEAs) when oxygen

availability is low. The presence of AEAs can reduce CH₄ production due to a combination of inhibition and competitive

effects between methanotrophs and methanogens for electron donors (Bodegom and Stams, 1999; Eriksson et al., 2010).

Under laboratory conditions, the mechanisms involved in CH₄ and related CO₂ dynamics can be studied using an approach

involving a specific inhibitor of methanogenesis, 2-bromo-ethane sulfonate (BES). BES is known to inhibit the reductive

demethylation of methyl-Coenzyme M (Müller et al., 1993), a coenzyme responsible for methanogenesis. BES added at a

certain concentration reportedly inhibits the acetoclastic – but not the hydrogenotrophic pathway – of CH₄ production (Zinder

et al., 1984). Therefore, amendment of peat soil with BES may help to reveal the distribution of methanogenesis pathways

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between microforms and with the depth. Another method is based on stable C isotope signatures (represented as δ^{13} C values)

of CH₄ and CO₂ which reflect the CH₄ pathway formation (Whiticar, 1999; Conrad, 2005). Thus, CH₄ produced by the

acetoclactic pathway is less 13 C depleted (e.g. shows higher δ^{13} C values) than CH₄ produced by the hydrogenotrophic pathway

(lower δ^{13} C values) because of stronger discrimination against heavier 13 C during the latter process (Whiticar et al., 1986;

Avery et al., 1999). The combination of both methods is assumed to provide strong evidence for the respective methanogenic

pathway. If the inhibitor BES is blocking CH₄ production by the acetoclastic pathway, then the respective δ^{13} C-CH₄ signature

should decrease due to a higher contribution of ¹³C-depleted CH₄ produced by the hydrogenotrophic pathway as compared to

the control (without inhibitor). Nonetheless, other important factors influencing δ^{13} C in CO₂ and CH₄ (e.g. the δ^{13} C value of

the organic substrate) have to be considered. Avery et al. (1999) and Steinmann et al. (2008) gained valuable information about

vertical and seasonal changes in isotopic composition of CH₄ in peat profiles. We still, however, have very little information

about the effect of peatland microtopography on the patterns of CH₄ and CO₂ isotopic signatures (Dorodnikov et al., 2013).

This study was designed to cover two aspects. Firstly, to estimate the production potential of CH₄ and CO₂ in depth profiles

down to 200 cm below two contrasting microforms – wet hollows and dry hummocks. Secondly, to identify the contribution

of the two pathways of methanogenesis in peat depth layers below both microforms by adding BES and measuring δ^{13} C in

CH₄, CO₂ and peat soil. The following hypotheses were tested:

I. Naturally more wet hollows will show a higher CH₄ and CO₂ production potential (microbial communities will be better

adapted to in vitro anaerobic conditions) as compared with drier hummocks.

II. Upper peat layers, which contain less decomposed organic matter, will show higher CH₄ and CO₂ production potentials in

contrast to deeper, more decomposed layers.

III. Peat layers of hollows and hummocks will be dominated by different pathways of methanogenesis due to differences in

substrate quality.

Finally, our research question was, whether the CO2 and CH4 production potentials of the tested peat soils could be linked to

their intrinsic chemical composition.

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2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Experimental site and peat soil collection

The experimental site is a central part of a natural minerogenic, oligotrophic low-sedge pine fen Salmisuo, located in the North

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Karelian Biosphere Reserve (62°47'N, 30°56'E) in eastern Finland. A detailed description of the site is provided by several

authors (Saarnio et al., 1997; Alm et al., 1999; Becker et al., 2008; Jager et al., 2009). The surface of the sampling sites was

subdivided into three main microforms: 1) elevated dry hummocks, 2) depressed wet hollows and 3) intermediate lawns

(Becker et al., 2008), whereby the two contrasting microform types – hummocks and hollows – were tested in this study. Peat

samples were taken with a peat auger (Eijkelkamp Agrisearch Equipment, Giesbeek, Netherlands) – a stainless steel half-

cylindrical sampler (50 cm long, 6 cm wide) with a massive cone and a cutting edge, sealed off by a hooked blade. Soil was

sampled from both microform types and five depths: 15, 50, 100, 150 and 200 cm. Each true replicate consisted of a minimum

of three randomly picked cores, of which a middle 10 cm section was collected and aggregated. Each microform type and

depth horizon was sampled in triplicate.

2.2 CH₄, CO₂ production measurements and inhibition of methanogenesis

Aggregated peat soil samples from each depth and microform type (true replicates, n=3) were split for 5-6 pseudo replicates

of 15 g fresh weight and placed together with anaerobic indicator stripes (Microbiology Anaerotest, Merck, Darmstadt,

Germany) in 150 ml Mason jars, which were closed by butyl rubber septa and screw caps.

To create anaerobic conditions, the jars were connected to an evacuation line via needles with 3-way-stopcocks and flushed

with pure N₂ for 20-30 min. After flushing, the jars were equilibrated to atmospheric pressure through a water lock and

immediately filled with 15 ml pure N₂ to prevent air diffusion into the headspace and to enable subsequent sampling. The same

procedure was repeated every time before gas production measurements.

To collect gas samples, a 60-ml gas-tight syringe was used to sample ca. 20 ml headspace gas, which was immediately

transferred to a 12-ml pre-evacuated glass vial with overpressure. For a gas production measurement, four gas samples were

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taken with time intervals of 30-60 min after "zeroing" (headspace flush with N₂). The overall sampling period lasted 49 days

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for hollow and 79 days for hummock, with eight measurements for each microform type.

After the first four gas production measurements (at day 37 for microform type hollow and at day 54 for hummock), 2 ml of

the inhibitor BES (predissolved in O₂-free milli-Q water) were added to respective BES-treated jars, whereas the rest of jars

served as controls. The effective BES concentration was determined prior in a testing experiment of CH₄ production from the

same soil amended with 1, 10 and 100, mM of BES after Zinder et al. (1984) and Smemo and Yavitt (2007). The suppression

of CH₄ formation with 1 mM concentration of BES was comparatively effective as by 10 and 100 mM (data not shown). Thus,

the lowest BES concentration was chosen in the main experiment. 1 mM BES was added through the 3-way-stopcocks (without

opening the jars) to three replicates of each depth. The same volume (2 ml) of O₂-free milli-Q water was added to the remaining

control. The subsequent gas production measurements were performed in the same manner as before addition of inhibitor and

milli-Q water. Within the first days after BES amendment of hollows, no detectable difference in CH₄ production was

observed; therefore, for hummocks, the GHG measurements started 9 days after adding BES.

During the experiment, all jars were stored at room temperature (about 22°C) in the dark to avoid any possible production of

oxygen by algae. CH₄ and CO₂ concentrations were measured on a gas chromatograph GC 6000 VEGASERIES 2 (Carlo Erba

Instruments) equipped with a flame ionization detector, an electron capture detector and a pressure-controlled autosampler for

64 samples. Detailed information on the equipment can be found in Loftfield et al. (1997).

2.3 δ^{13} C analyses

To measure the stable C isotope composition in CO₂ (shown as δ^{13} C-CO₂), 1 ml headspace gas sample was taken as described

above and diluted with pure N₂ to obtain suitable concentrations for the analysis. The number of measurements was three for

hollow (all after addition of BES) and four for hummock (two before adding and two after adding BES). The diluted gas

samples were measured for δ¹³C-CO₂ with a Cavity ring-down spectroscope (CRDS), Picarro G2131-i (Picarro, Inc., Santa

145 Clara, CA, USA).

Due to the requirements of the Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS) for certain minimal CH₄ concentrations, δ^{13} C-CH₄

could be measured only in three soil layers (15, 50 and 100 cm) of both microform types. A headspace gas sample of 15 ml

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was taken as described above and transferred to a 12-ml pre-evacuated glass vial for δ^{13} C-CH₄ measurement on a IRMS Delta

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C with a Conflo III interface (both from Thermo Fischer Scientific, Bremen, Germany) at the Centre for Stable Isotope

Research and Analysis (KOSI), Büsgen-Institute, Georg August University Göttingen, Germany.

To measure δ^{13} C in solid samples, the peat soil was dried at 40°C during several days, ball milled and weighed in tin caps.

Samples were combusted in a Flash 2000 elemental analyzer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cambridge, UK) and the ¹³C/¹²C ratio

was measured on a Delta V Advantage IRMS with the Conflo III interface (Thermo Electron, Bremen, Germany) at KOSI.

2.4 Measurement of dissolved total N, NO₃ and NH₄+

Peat samples from both microforms and all depths were amended with DI-H₂O in a proportion of 2:1 and shaken for 1.5 h.

The obtained peat extracts were thoroughly filtrated several times: first, through a coarse paper filter (595 ½, Whatman) into

50 ml centrifuge tubings. Then, to increase the output of solution from solid remnants, the latter were centrifuged at 2000 rpm

for 5 min in containers with porous bottom and glass fiber filters. The extra solution was filtrated again through a paper filter

and mixed with previously filtrated solution. The second filtration was done through fine syringe filters (Sartorius 0.20 um

pore size with Luer lock, Göttingen, Germany) into 15-ml plastic centrifuge tubings. All filtrates were kept in a cold storage

room at a temperature of 4-6 °C prior to analysis. The concentrations of extractable N, NO₃- and NH₄+ were measured

photometrically via Continuous-Flow-Analysis using multichannel peristaltic pumps (Cenco Instrumenten, Mij. N.V.Breda,

Netherlands).

2.5 Calculation of gas production, effects of BES and statistical analysis

To calculate a gas production rate, four CH₄ and CO₂ concentrations (as ppm and ppb values) measured in each soil sample

within 240-250 min were linearly approximated and the Ideal Gas Law was used to convert the concentration from ppm/ppb

to mass units per gram soil on a dry weight basis (ng g soil-1). The BES effect was determined for each microform and depth

by calculating the difference (in %) of the mean CH₄ production rate before and after adding BES. The difference was then

corrected with respective control treatments and "weighted" against each other according to their contribution to the overall

170 CH₄ production.

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(c) (1)

The differences in CH₄ productions between microforms and depths, as well as before and after adding BES, were evaluated

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with two-way ANOVA and Fischer's LSD test using STATISTICA 10.0 (StatSoft, USA). The required normality and

homogeneity of the data were checked with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Levene's test, respectively. The variables were

treated as independent for all depths below a microform type and for a certain depth between microforms. The significance of

differences was determined at P<0.05 level.

3 Results

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3.1 CH₄ and CO₂ production depending on microforms and depth

Based on the sum of CH₄ production from all depths, hollows showed a significantly higher CH₄ production than hummocks.

The top soil layer of hollow and the 50 cm depth of hummocks were the main locations for CH₄ production (Fig. 1a). The CH₄

production was 10.6 fold lower at 50 cm depth (3.9 ng CH₄ g d.w.⁻¹ h⁻¹) as compared to the top 15 cm (41.7) in hollow, whereas

in hummocks, it was 64 fold lower at 15 cm (0.3) than at 50 cm (19.2) (Fig. 1a). Below 50 cm, CH₄ production substantially

decreased to a minimum of <0.1 ng CH₄ g d.w.⁻¹ h⁻¹ and there were no differences either between microforms or between

depths.

CO₂ production did not differ between the two microforms at each depth, and the surfacesoil of both microforms contributed

40-51% to the overall CO₂ production (Fig. 1b). The rate of CO₂ production substantially decreased under both microforms

by ca. 77% from the top (15 cm: 4153-4997 ng CO₂ g d.w.⁻¹ h⁻¹) to the bottom soil layer (200 cm: 923-1216 ng CO₂ g d.w.⁻¹

h⁻¹). A significant decrease was observed from the top soil layer to a depth of 50 cm. The contribution of deeper soil layers

(50-200 cm) to the overall CO₂ production varied between 9 and 20% (Fig. 1b).

3.2 Effects of BES on CH₄ and CO₂ production

Soil layers which had the highest CH₄ production prior adding the inhibitor BES, e.g. hollows 15, 50 cm and hummocks 50,

100 cm, generally showed an increasing trend of CH₄ production over time (Fig. 2). The addition of BES substantially

suppressed CH₄ production (Fig. 2; arrow: addition date).

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Among all depths and microforms, the suppressing effect of BES varied from 0 up to 68% (Fig. 3). Remarkably, adding milli-

Q water in control treatments yielded a decrease of CH₄ production similar to BES (Fig. 2). This is probably due to trace

amounts of dissolved oxygen left after N2-bubbling. Therefore, the decrease of CH4 production after (versus before) BES

treatment was statistically significant solely at 50 cm depth in hummocks and at 15 cm depth in hollows (Fig. 3). In contrast

to the control treatments, however, BES effectively suppressed methanogenesis until the end of the incubation period (Fig. 2).

Contrary to CH₄, the CO₂ production did not change after adding BES (data not shown).

3.3 δ^{13} C of CH₄, CO₂ and SOM

Generally, δ^{13} C of CO₂ substantially varied between depths, but the difference was less pronounced between microforms (Fig.

4a). CO_2 from the top soil layer was the most depleted in 13 C (δ^{13} C- CO_2 = -24% for hummocks and -29% for hollows), whereas

at 50 cm depth the δ^{13} C-CO₂ values were the highest (ca. -17%). From 50 to 200 cm, a gradual depletion down to -21 to -24%

occurred (Fig. 4a). Among microforms, δ^{13} C-CO₂ values were lower in hummocks than in hollows, although the pattern of

 δ^{13} C-CO₂ change with depth was similar in both microforms. Differences between microforms were significant at depths of

15 and 150 cm (Fig. 4a).

In both microforms, δ¹³C-CH₄ values strongly decreased with depth, ranging from -59‰ at 15 cm to -91‰ at 100 cm (Fig.

4b). The available data (for 50 and 100 cm) indicated significantly more depleted ¹³C-CH₄ in hollows than in hummocks.

The stable C composition of peat SOM (δ^{13} C-peat values) was measured at the 15, 50 and 200 cm layers of the two microforms

(Fig. 4c). The δ^{13} C-peat values in the surface soil were higher in hollows (-24.5%) than in hummocks (-26.9%). At 50 cm,

there was either a decrease (in hollows) or increase (in hummocks) to ca. -26%. In the deepest (200 cm) layer, δ^{13} C-peat values

further decreased (to -26.1% in hummocks and -28.0% in hollows) (Fig. 4c).

3.4 Total extractable nitrogen, ammonium and nitrate in soil

In general, both microforms showed an increasing trend of total extractable nitrogen (Nextr) and ammonium (NH₄⁺)

concentrations in peat-water extracts with depth (Fig. 5). N_{extr} in hollows ranged from 0.21±0.01 to 3.08±0.03 mg L⁻¹ and in

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hummocks from "0" (measurement below the detection limit) to 2.55±0.02 mg L⁻¹ from the top to the bottom soil layer,

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respectively. The measured NH_4^+ concentration was approximately half of N_{extr} within each depth and microform (Fig. 5). The

nitrate (NO_3) concentration was below the detection limit in all microforms and depths. Therefore, the difference between N_{tot}

and NH₄⁺ presumably corresponds to disolved organic N (DON).

4 Discussion

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4.1 CH₄ and CO₂ dynamics in microforms and with peat depth

4.1.1 CO₂ production potential

The CO₂ production potential under anaerobic conditions was similar between hummocks and hollows at each of the depth

layer (Fig. 1b). This finding contradicts the hypothesized lower CO₂ production from hummocks vs. hollows under anaerobic

conditions due to the overall in situ lower watertable level in the former (hence better aeration and adaptation of microbial

communities to the O2-rich environment). Nonetheless, similar non-significant differences in CO2 production between

hummocks and hollows, albeit under aerobic conditions, were reported for the same soil (Lozanovska, personal

communication). This and Lozanovska's incubation studies contradict in situ measurements reporting more than 3-times-

higher CO₂ production from hummocks as compared to hollows (Becker et al., 2008). Such inconsistency may reflect either

lower in situ soil respiration of hollows due to the higher watertable level (decreased aeration) than in hummocks and/or an

onsite higher contribution of root or rhizosphere respiration to the total soil CO2 flux (Kuzyakov, 2006) in hummocks. In

contrast, under controlled conditions, the lack of the regulatory effect of microform-specific plant communities on native soil

CO₂ flux compensated the differences in SOM properties between the two microforms, resulting in similar CO₂ production

235 rates.

Another mechanism is related to the properties of soil microbial communities developing below microforms. The naturally

greater seasonal variations due to watertable fluctuations in hummocks vs. permanently water-logged hollows promote the

presence of aerobe and facultative anaerobe microbial species which can switch between fermentation and aerobic SOM

decomposition (Cord-Ruwisch et al., 1988). Therefore, incubation of hummock surface soil under anaerobic conditions showed

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similar CO₂ production rates as from the respective hollow samples. This interpretation must be tested by applying molecular

biology methods to the community structure in soils of the two microforms.

Peat soil from both microtopographic positions showed decreasing rates of CO₂ production with increasing depth. CO₂

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production from the top soil strongly decreased to a depth of 50 cm, followed by a further slow decrease to 200 cm (Fig. 1b).

The decreasing CO₂ production rates with depth were similar to those reported in other peat soils studies under in vitro

anaerobic and aerobic conditions (Moore and Dalva, 1997; Glatzel et al., 2004). These authors explained depth-dependent CO₂

patterns by a decreasing availability of fresh SOM and by the degree of decomposition (according to the Von Post Humification

Index). Although the SOM decomposition of the deep peat is retarded, it is sustained year round in northern peatlands, in

contrast to the surface soil, which freezes during the cold season (Maljanen et al., 2010). Considering the low hydraulic

conductivity, porosity and higher soil density (Quinton et al., 2008; Morris and Waddington, 2011; Branham and Strack, 2014)

of deep peat, there is a continuous accumulation of CO₂ belowground in peatlands (Beer et al., 2008). Therefore, this C stock

should be considered in studies on GHG turnover in peatland ecosystems and when modelling regional to global C balances.

4.1.2 Methanogenic potential

The overall higher CH₄ production from hollows vs. hummocks (Fig. 1a) depends on SOM quality, which in turn is affected

by aboveground plant communities. Greater rates of CH₄ production in peat soil from hollows as compared to hummocks were

also found in a labeling study of plant-soil cores from the same peatland (Dorodnikov et al., 2011). Thus, the hollows-

dominating Scheuchzeria palustris contributed 2-4 times more to methanogenesis than the hummocks-dominating

Eriophoprum vaginatum. This mainly reflected differences in rhizodeposition. CH₄ emission rates from closed chamber

experiments at the surface of the same peatland revealed a similar pattern of higher emissions from hollows (Becker et al.,

2008; Dorodnikov et al., 2013). The trend of a decreasing CH₄ production rate from the top soil layer to a depth of 100 cm

(Fig. 1a) agrees with the hypothesized higher CH₄ production rates in upper vs. deeper layers. Similar to CO₂ production, this

highlights the importance of specific depth-dependent biochemical and physical parameters, such as peat quality and nutrient

availability, which influence microbial composition and activity, driving methanogenesis (Lai, 2009).

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The surface soil of hollows was responsible for the overall highest CH₄ production (ca. 91%) between all depths, whereas the

surface soil of hummocks surprisingly contributed almost "0" to the total CH₄ production (Fig. 1a). The in situ high O₂

availability in the hummocks surface soil, among other factors, controls the abundance of methanogens. Oxygen acts as an

inhibitor or toxic agent for strictly anaerobic microorganisms such as methanogens (Shen and Guiot, 1996). Hence, hummocks

surface soil may not contain a sufficient amount of obligatory anaerobic methanogens, resulting in low CH4 production even

under controlled anaerobic conditions. This assumption, in turn, is supported by high net CH₄ production in the surface soil of

hollows, which naturally provides mostly anoxic and therefore more suitable conditions. Also a greater frequency and duration

of anaerobic conditions are responsible for a larger active biomass of methanogens in hollows than in hummocks (Yavitt and

Seidman-Zager, 2006).

According to another mechanism, methanogens could be outcompeted by microorganisms, which primarily perform more

energetically favorable reactions with higher Free Gibbs Energy (ΔG) (Schink, 1997; Beer et al., 2008). Thus, reactions such

as denitrification (NO₃-) (Rubol et al., 2012; Schlesinger and Bernhart, 2013), sulfate (SO₄²-) reduction (Lovley and Klug,

1983; Pester et al., 2012) or iron (Fe) transformation (Lovley et al., 1996; Cervantes et al., 2002) provide higher ΔG than

methanogenesis, when oxygen is not available. We therefore correlated the content of macro- and microelements from the

same soil samples to the CH₄ production rates (Fig. 6). In hollows, the depletion of sulfur (S), Fe and NH₄⁺ was strongly

accompanied by an increasing CH₄ production rate, whereas in hummocks a surprisingly weak correlation was observed. As

no other anaerobic processes except of methanogenesis were followed in the study, the mentioned mechanism should be tested

in additional experiments by measuring the anion and cation concentrations as well as gaseos products (e.g. N2O for

nitrification/denitrification) in the dynamics.

4.2 Estimation of methanogenic pathways based on δ^{13} C and by inhibition with BES

The use of specific inhibitors in combination with stable isotopes is a reliable method for the determination of CH₄ sources

(Conrad, 2005). Among inhibitors for methanogenesis, 2-bromo-ethane sulfonate (BES) at a concentration of 1 mM was

proposed to distinguish between two pathways – hydrogenotrophic (CO₂ reduction with H₂) and acetoclastic (acetate splitting)

(Zinder et al., 1984). It was hypothesized that the adding BES inhibits the acetoclastic pathway (Whiticar et al., 1986).

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The CH₄ production was strongly inhibited in the two microforms and at all depths by BES (Fig. 3). Unfortunately, very low

CH₄ concentrations hindered the δ^{13} C-CH₄ analyses in samples with BES. Thus, the hypothesis about partitioning between

methanogenic pathways could not be rigorously proven. However, ¹³C-CH₄ depletion with depth in a treatment without BES

(Fig. 4b) reflected an increasing contribution of the hydrogenotrophic pathway to total methanogenesis (Whiticar et al., 1986).

Since the suppression of CH₄ production with BES was substantial in all samples with the hydrogenotrophic pathway

dominating before the addition, its inhibition was not selective, i.e. both hydrogenotrophic and acetoclastic pathways were

blocked. Therefore, the hypothesized selective inhibition of the acetoclastic pathway by BES was not supported in the studied

soil. Importantly, the reported concentration (1 mM) was tested in pure culturs of microorganisms and thus may vary in soils.

In general, the acetoclastic methanogenesis corresponds to δ^{13} C-CH₄ values between -65 and -50% (Whiticar et al., 1986).

The current experiment showed that the most intensive CH₄ production took place in the hollows surface soil (Fig. 1a), where

the value was -59% (Fig. 4b). Simultaneously, the released δ^{13} C-CO₂ was close to native peat organic matter (Fig. 4a,c). This

indicated both the restricted CH₄ oxidation (in this case δ^{13} C-CO₂ should be closer to the δ^{13} C-CH₄ source) and relatively low

CO₂-reduction pathway of methanogenesis. In the latter case, ¹³C-CO₂ becomes more enriched due to discrimation by

methanogens against heavier ¹³CO₂, while ¹²CO₂ is consumed during the methanogenesis (Popp et al., 1999). Therefore, we

conclude that methanogenesis in the surface soil of hollows was dominated by the acetoclastic pathway (Fig. 7). Significantly

lower δ^{13} C-CO₂ values in hummocks vs. hollows (Fig. 4a) reflected the difference in C isotopic characteristics between the

respective peat-SOM of the two microforms (Fig. 4c). This, in turn, is connected with the δ^{13} C signature of initial plant residues

because different species dominated the two microforms (Becker et al., 2008; Dorodnikov et al., 2011).

The strongly negative δ^{13} C-CO₂ values in the deeper soil layers may indicate the occurrence of so-called anaerobic oxidation

of methane – AOM (Smemo and Yavitt, 2011). The C source for microorganisms conducting AOM is a strongly ¹³C-depleted

CH₄, and its utilization should dilute the total 13 C-CO₂, resulting in an overall decrease of δ^{13} C-CO₂ values. This issue must be

tested in separate experiments using ¹³C-labeled CH₄ and analyzing the ¹³C in released CO₂ as an end-product of oxidation

under strictly anaerobic conditions.

In contrast to the surface soil, δ^{13} C values of SOM at 50 cm depth were similar for both microforms but the released CO₂ was

30-40% more enriched than SOM (Fig. 4a,c). As described above, the CO₂ enrichment occurs during the hydrogenothrophic

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pathway of methanogenesis (Popp et al., 1999). However, δ^{13} C-CH₄ at 50 cm was ca. 23% higher in hummocks than in hollows

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(Fig. 4b), indicating that the acetoclastic pathway may co-exist with the hydrogenotrophic one. Both, the low δ^{13} C-CH₄ and

the high δ^{13} C-CO₂ values in hollows, provided evidence for the increased contribution of the hydrogenotrophic pathway to

total methanogenesis (Fig. 7).

At the deepest soil layers (100, 150 and 200 cm) the CH₄ production was very low (Fig. 1a). Where measurable, δ^{13} C-CH₄

values ranged from -79 to -91\% (Fig. 4b), coinciding with the reported range of δ^{13} C-CH₄ due to hydrogenotrophic

methanogenesis (Whiticar et al., 1986) (Fig. 7). This finding corroborates the in situ domination of the hydrogenotrophic

pathway at deep peat layers of the same peatland (Dorodnikov et al., 2013). Interestingly, the measured "0" production under

anaerobic conditions along with δ^{13} C-CO₂ depletion with depth (Fig. 4a) may reflect the AOM.

5 Conclusions

The CH₄, CO₂ production and δ^{13} C of CH₄, CO₂ and SOM before and after the addition of BES to peat soil at five depths (15-

200 cm) below two contrasting microforms – naturally dry hummocks and wet hollows – revealed the following: (i) CH₄

production was significantly higher at hollows compared to hummocks but CO2 production did not differ between microform

types (Hypothesis I conditionally supported); (ii) production of CH₄ and CO₂ was significantly higher in the surface peat soil

compared to deeper soil layers (Hypothesis II supported); (iii) overall higher contribution of hydrogenotrophic vs. acetoclastic

methanogenesis corresponded to hollows as compared to hummocks (Hypothesis III supported).

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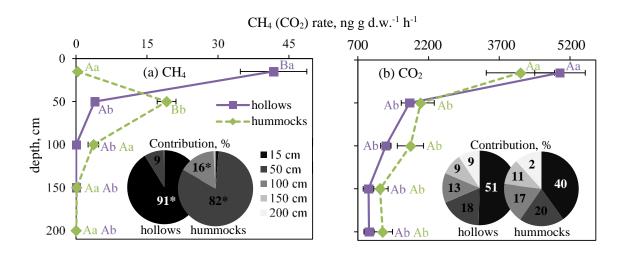


Figure 1: Mean CH_4 (A) and CO_2 (B) production rate for hollows (purple) and hummocks (green) at depths of 15, 50, 100, 150 and 200 cm without addition of the methanogenesis inhibitor (BES). The same letters show absence of significant differences (P<0.05) between microforms of the same depth (uppercase letters) and between five depths within the same microform (lowercase letters). The integrated pie charts show the distribution (in %) of the overall CH_4 and CO_2 production from all depths of hollows and hummocks. The contribution of depths below 100 cm to overall CH_4 production in hollows was < 0.3%. In hummocks, depths 15, 150 and 200 cm comprised 1.3, 0.6 and 0.2% of overall CH_4 , respectively. Asterisk: significant difference (P<0.05) between the two microforms within the same depth.

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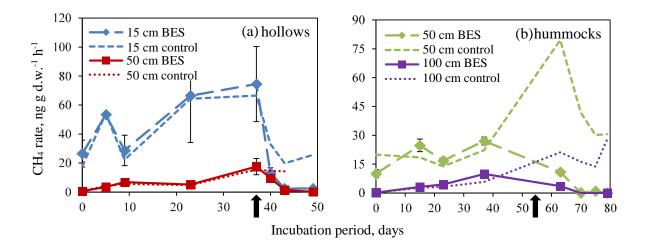


Figure 2: CH₄ production rate at two depths in (A) hollows (15 and 50 cm) and two depths in (B) hummocks (50 and 100 cm), where the effect of the methanogenic inhibitor BES was the most pronounced. Black arrow: date of BES addition. Dashed and dotted lines correspond to control soil with milli-Q water addition.

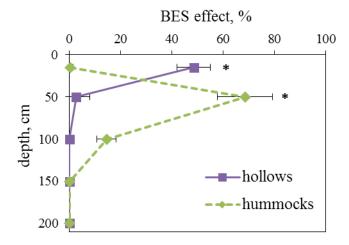
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Figure 3: BES suppression (in %) of the CH₄ production rate for hollows (purple) and hummocks (green) down to 200 cm depth. The effect was calculated as the difference of the mean CH₄ production rate before and after adding BES. Changes in respective control treatments before and after the addition of milli-Q water were subtracted from the treatment effect. BES treatments of each microform were "weighted" against each depth according to their contribution to overall CH₄ production.

485 Asterisk: significant effects (P<0.05).

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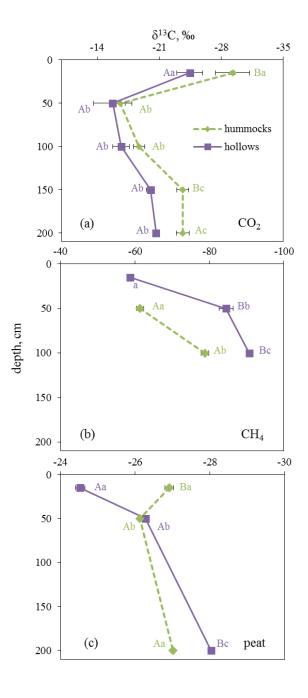


Figure 4: Delta (δ) ¹³C of CO₂ (A), CH₄ (B) and peat soil organic matter (C) depending on depths of hollows and hummocks. Same letters: no significant differences (P<0.05) between microforms of the same depth (uppercase letters) and between five depths within the same microform (lowercase letters).

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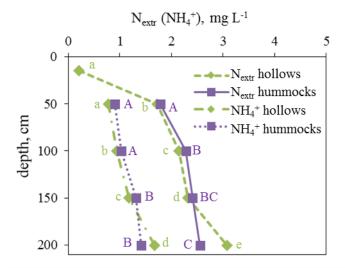


Figure 5: Concentration of total extractable nitrogen (N_{extr}) and ammonium (NH_4^+) for hollows (purple) and hummocks (green) down to 200 cm. Same letters: no significant differences (P<0.05) between depths of hummocks (uppercase letters) and hollows (lowercase letters) at P<0.05. No significant difference was observed between microforms at each single depth layer.

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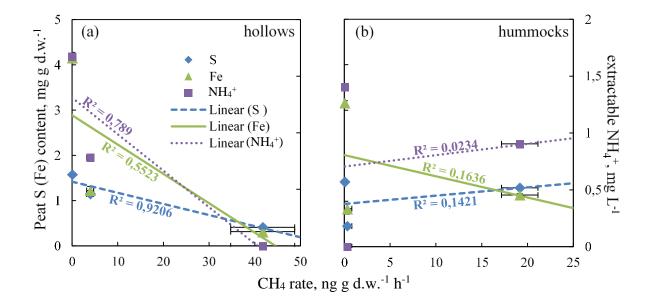


Figure 6: Relationship between mean CH_4 production rate (without inhibitor BES) and concentrations of total peat sulfur (S, blue), iron (Fe, green) in mg g d.w.⁻¹ (left y-axis) and extractable ammonium (purple) in mg L⁻¹ (right y-axis) for 15, 50 and 200 cm depths below hollows (A) and hummocks (B).

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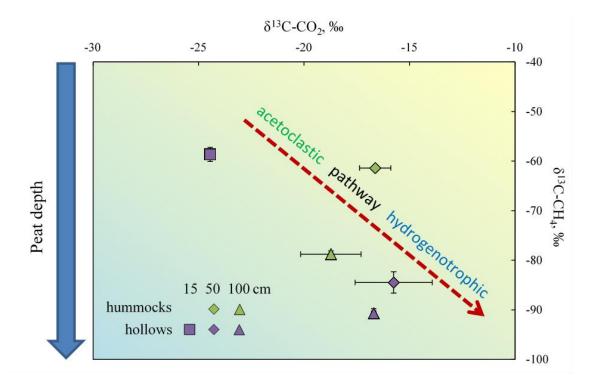


Figure 7: Cross-plot of δ¹³C of CH₄ and CO₂ (+- SE) demonstrating the shift in methanogenesis (red dashed arrow) from acetoclastic to hydrogenotrophic pathway with peat depth below hummocks (green) and hollows (purple). Depths where both parameters were measurable are shown (15, 50 and 100 cm). Background color reflects the gradient in δ^{13} C from the lowest (blueish, left bottom corner) to the highest (yellowish, upper right corner) values.