

1 **Predominance of methanogens over methanotrophs in rewetted** 2 **fens characterized by high methane emissions**

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32 **Abstract.** The rewetting of drained peatlands alters peat geochemistry and often leads to sustained
33 elevated methane emission. Although this methane is produced entirely by microbial activity, the

34 distribution and abundance of methane-cycling microbes in rewetted peatlands, especially in fens,
35 is rarely described. In this study, we compare the community composition and abundance of
36 methane-cycling microbes in relation to peat porewater geochemistry in two rewetted fens in
37 northeastern Germany, a coastal brackish fen and a freshwater riparian fen, with known high
38 methane fluxes. We utilized 16S rDNA high-throughput sequencing and quantitative polymerase
39 chain reaction on 16S rDNA, *mcrA*, and *pmoA* genes to determine microbial community
40 composition and the abundance of total bacteria, methanogens, and methanotrophs. Electrical
41 conductivity was more than three times higher in the coastal fen than in the riparian fen, averaging
42 5.3 and 1.5 mS cm⁻¹, respectively. Porewater concentrations of terminal electron acceptors varied
43 within and among the fens. This was also reflected in similarly high intra- and inter-site variations
44 of microbial community composition. Despite these differences in environmental conditions and
45 electron acceptor availability, we found a low abundance of methanotrophs and a high abundance
46 of methanogens, represented in particular by *Methanosaetaceae*, in both fens. This suggests that
47 rapid re/establishment of methanogens and slow re/establishment of methanotrophs contributes to
48 prolonged increased methane emissions following rewetting.

49 **1 Introduction**

50 Rewetting is a technique commonly employed to restore ecological and biogeochemical
51 functioning of drained fens. However, while rewetting may reduce carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions
52 (Wilson et al. 2016), it often increases methane (CH₄) emissions in peatlands that often remain
53 inundated following rewetting. On a 100-year time scale, CH₄ has a global warming potential 28
54 times stronger than CO₂ (Myhre et al. 2013), and the factors that contribute to the magnitude and
55 duration of increased emissions are still uncertain (Joosten et al. 2015, Abdalla et al. 2016). Thus,
56 elucidating the dynamics of post-rewetting CH₄ exchange is of strong interest for both modelling
57 studies and peatland management projects (Abdalla et al. 2016). Although a recent increase in
58 rewetting projects in Germany and other European countries has prompted a number of studies of
59 methane cycling in rewetted peatlands (e.g., Jerman et al. 2009, Hahn-Schöfl et al. 2011, Urbanová
60 et al. 2013, Hahn et al. 2015, Vanselow-Algan et al. 2015, Zak et al. 2015, Emsens et al. 2016,
61 Putkinen et al. 2018), the post-rewetting distribution and abundance of methane-cycling microbes

62 in rewetted fens has seldom been examined (but see Juottonen et al. 2012, Urbanová et al. 2013,
63 Putkinen et al. 2018).

64 Peat CH₄ production and release is governed by a complex array of interrelated factors including
65 climate, water level, plant community, nutrient status, site geochemistry, and the activity of
66 microbes (i.e., bacteria and archaea) that use organic carbon as energy source (Segers 1998,
67 Abdalla et al. 2016). To date, the vast majority of studies in rewetted fens have focused on
68 quantifying CH₄ emission rates in association with environmental variables such as water level,
69 plant community, and aspects of site geochemistry (Abdalla et al. 2016). Site geochemistry indeed
70 plays an important role for methanogenic communities, as methanogenesis is suppressed in
71 presence of thermodynamically more favorable terminal electron acceptors (TEAs, Blodau 2011).
72 Due to a smaller pool of more favorable electron acceptors and high availability of organic carbon
73 substrates, organic-rich soils such as peat rapidly establish methanogenic conditions post-
74 rewetting (Segers 1998, Keller and Bridgham 2007, Knorr and Blodau 2009). Despite their
75 decisive role as producers (i.e., methanogens) and consumers (i.e., methanotrophs) of CH₄ (Conrad
76 1996), only a few studies have combined a characterization of the CH₄-cycling microbial
77 community, site geochemistry, and observed trends in CH₄ production. Existing studies have been
78 conducted in oligotrophic and mesotrophic boreal fens (e.g., Juottonen et al. 2005, Yrjälä et al.
79 2011, Juottonen et al. 2012), alpine fens (e.g., Liebner et al. 2012, Urbanová et al. 2013, Cheema
80 et al. 2015, Franchini et al. 2015), subarctic fens (Liebner et al. 2015), and incubation experiments
81 (e.g., Jerman et al. 2009, Knorr and Blodau 2009, Urbanová et al. 2011, Emsens et al. 2016).
82 Several studies on CH₄-cycling microbial communities have been conducted in minerotrophic
83 temperate fens (e.g., Cadillo-Quiroz et al. 2008, Liu et al. 2011, Sun et al. 2012, Zhou et al. 2017),
84 but these sites were not subject to drainage or rewetting. Direct comparisons of *in situ* abundances
85 of methanogens and methanotrophs in drained versus rewetted fens are scarce (Juottonen et al.
86 2012, Putkinen et al. 2018), and the studied sites, so far, are nutrient-poor fens with acidic
87 conditions.

88 While studies of nutrient-poor and mesotrophic boreal fens have documented post-rewetting CH₄
89 emissions comparable to or lower than at pristine sites (Komulainen et al. 1998, Tuittila et al. 2000,
90 Juottonen et al. 2012), studies of temperate nutrient-rich fens have reported post-flooding CH₄
91 emissions dramatically exceeding emissions in pristine fens (e.g., Augustin and Chojnicki 2008,
92 Hahn et al. 2015). These high emissions typically occur together with a significant dieback in
93 vegetation, a mobilization of nutrients and electron acceptors in the upper peat layer, and increased
94 availability of dissolved organic matter (Zak and Gelbrecht 2007, Hahn-Schöfl et al. 2011, Hahn
95 et al. 2015, Jurasinski et al. 2016). High CH₄ fluxes may continue for decades following rewetting,
96 even in bogs (Vanselow-Algan et al. 2015). Hence, there is an urgent need to characterize CH₄-
97 cycling microbial communities and geochemical conditions in rewetted minerotrophic fens.
98 Therefore, in this study, we examined microbial community composition and abundance in
99 relation to post-flooding geochemical conditions in two rewetted fens in northeastern Germany. In
100 both fens, CH₄ emissions increased dramatically after rewetting, to over 200 g C m⁻² a⁻¹ (Augustin
101 and Chojnicki 2008, Hahn-Schöfl et al. 2011, Hahn et al. 2015, Jurasinski et al. 2016). Average
102 annual CH₄ emissions have decreased in both fens since the initial peak (Franz et al. 2016,
103 Jurasinski et al. 2016). Nevertheless, fluxes remained higher than under pre-flooding conditions
104 (*ibid.*), and higher than in pristine fens (Urbanová et al. 2013, Minke et al. 2016). In the Hütelmoor
105 in 2012, average CH₄ emissions during the growing season were 40 g m⁻² (Koebsch et al. 2015).
106 In Zarnekow, average annual CH₄ emissions were 40 g m⁻² for the year 2013 (Franz et al. 2016).
107 In comparison, a recent review paper (Abdalla et al. 2016) estimated an average flux of 12 ± 21 g
108 C m⁻² a⁻¹ for pristine peatlands.

109 We expected patterns in microbial community composition would reflect the geochemical
110 conditions of the two sites and hypothesized a high abundance of methanogens relative to
111 methanotrophs in both fens. We also expected acetoclastic methanogens, which typically thrive in
112 nutrient-rich fens (Kelly et al. 1992, Galand 2005), to dominate the methanogenic community in
113 both fens.

114 2 Methods

115 2.1 Study sites

116 The nature reserve “Heiligensee and Hütelmoor” (‘Hütelmoor’ in the following, approx. 540 ha,
117 54°12'36.66" N, 12°10'34.28" E), is a coastal, mainly minerotrophic fen complex in Mecklenburg-
118 Vorpommern (NE Germany) that is separated from the Baltic Sea by a narrow (~100 m and less)
119 dune dike (Fig. 1a and b). The climate is temperate in the transition zone between maritime and
120 continental, with an average annual temperature of 9.1 °C and an average annual precipitation of
121 645 mm (data derived from grid product of the German Weather Service, reference climate period:
122 1981–2010). Episodic flooding from storm events delivers sediment and brackish water to the site
123 (Weisner and Schernewski 2013). The vegetation is a mixture of salt-tolerant macrophytes, with
124 dominant to semi-dominant stands of *Phragmites australis*, *Bolboschoenus maritimus*, *Carex*
125 *acutiformis*, and *Schoenoplectus tabernaemontani*. The dominating plants are interspersed with
126 open water bodies that are colonized by *Ceratophyllum demersum* in summer (Koch et al. 2017).
127 Intense draining and land amelioration practices began in the 1970s, which lowered the water level
128 to 1.6 m below ground surface and caused aerobic decomposition and concomitant degradation of
129 the peat (Voigtländer et al. 1996). The upper peat layer varies in depth between 0.6 and 3 m and
130 is highly degraded, reaching up to H10 on the von Post humification scale (Hahn et al. 2015).
131 Active draining ended in 1992, but dry conditions during summertime kept the water table well
132 below ground surface (Schönfeld-Bockholt et al. 2005, Koebisch et al. 2013) until concerns of
133 prolonged aerobic peat decomposition prompted the installation of a weir in 2009 at the outflow
134 of the catchment (Weisner and Schernewski 2013). After installation of the weir, the site has been
135 fully flooded year-round with an average water level of 0.6 m above the peat surface, and annual
136 average CH₄ flux increased ~186-fold from 0.0014 ± 0.0006 kg CH₄ m⁻² a⁻¹ to 0.26 ± 0.06 kg CH₄
137 m⁻² a⁻¹ (Hahn et al. 2015).

138 The study site polder Zarnekow ('Zarnekow' in the following, approx. 500 ha, 53°52'31.10" N,
139 12°53'19.60" E) is situated in the valley of the River Peene in Mecklenburg-Vorpommern (NE
140 Germany, Fig. 1a and c). The climate is slightly more continental compared to the Hütelmoor, with
141 a mean annual precipitation of 544 mm and a mean annual temperature of 8.7 °C (German Weather
142 Service, meteorological station Teterow, 24 km southwest of the study site; reference period 1981–
143 2010). The fen can be classified as a river valley mire system consisting of spring mires, wider
144 percolation mires, and flood mires along the River Peene. Drainage and low-intensity agricultural
145 use began in the eighteenth century when land-use changed to pastures and grassland. This was
146 intensified by active pumping in the mid-1970s. Due to land subsidence of several decimeters,
147 after rewetting (October 2004) water table depth increased to 0.1–0.5 m above peat surface. The
148 upper horizon is highly decomposed (0–0.3 m), followed by moderately decomposed peat to a
149 depth of 1 m and a deep layer of slightly decomposed peat up to a maximum depth of 10 m. The
150 open water bodies are densely colonized by *Ceratophyllum* spp. and *Typha latifolia* is the dominant
151 emergent macrophyte (Steffenhagen et al. 2012). Following flooding, CH₄ flux rates increased to
152 ~0.21 kg m⁻² a⁻¹ (Augustin and Chojnicki 2008). No pre-rewetting CH₄ flux data were available
153 for the Zarnekow site, but published CH₄ flux rates of representative drained fens from the same
154 region have been shown to be negligible, and many of the fens were CH₄ sinks (Augustin et al.
155 1998).

156 **2.2 Collection of peat cores and porewater samples**

157 Peat and porewater samples were collected at four different locations (n=4) in Hütelmoor (October
158 2014) and at five locations (n=5) in Zarnekow (July 2015) and spanned a distance of 1,200 m and
159 250 m, respectively, to cover the whole lateral extension at each site (Fig. 1b and c). Sampling
160 depths in the Hütelmoor were 0-5, 5-10, 10-20, 20-30, 30-40, and 40-50 cm below the peat surface,
161 except for core numbers 1 and 4 where samples could only be obtained up to a depth of 10-20 and
162 30-40 cm, respectively. Sampling depths in Zarnekow were 0-5, 25-30, and 50-55 cm below the
163 peat surface. Previous work at Zarnekow has revealed little variation in peat properties with depth

164 (e.g., Zak and Gelbrecht 2007), hence, a lower depth resolution in Zarnekow cores was chosen for
165 this study. Peat cores were collected with a Perspex liner (ID: 60 mm, Hütelmoor) and a peat auger
166 (Zarnekow). In order to minimize oxygen contamination, the outer layer of the peat core was
167 omitted. Subsamples for molecular analysis were immediately packed in 50 ml sterile Falcon tubes
168 and stored at -80 °C until further processing.

169 Pore waters in the Hütelmoor were collected with a stainless-steel push-point sampler attached to
170 a plastic syringe to recover the samples from 10 cm depth intervals. Samples were immediately
171 filtered with 0.45 µm membrane sterile, disposable syringe filters. Pore waters in Zarnekow were
172 sampled with permanently installed dialysis samplers consisting of slotted polypropylene (PP)
173 pipes (length: 636 mm, ID: 34 mm) surrounded with 0.22 µm polyethersulfone membrane. The
174 PP pipes were fixed at distinct peat depths (surface level, 20 and 40 cm depth) and connected with
175 PP tubes (4x6 mm IDxAD). Water samples were drawn out from the dialysis sampler pipes with
176 a syringe through the PP tube. Due to practical restrictions in accessibility and sampling,
177 permanent dialysis samplers could not be installed at the desired locations in the Hütelmoor,
178 resulting in the different sampling techniques described above.

179 At both sites, electrical conductivity (EC), dissolved oxygen (DO), and pH were measured
180 immediately after sampling (Sentix 41 pH probe and a TetraCon 325 conductivity measuring cell
181 attached to a WTW multi 340i handheld; WTW, Weilheim). In this paper, EC is presented and
182 was not converted to salinity (i.e., psu), as a conversion would be imprecise for brackish waters.
183 A simplified equation for conversion can be found in Schemel (2001). Headspace CH₄
184 concentrations of porewater samples were measured with an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph
185 (Agilent Technologies, Germany) equipped with a flame ionization detector and a Carboxen PLOT
186 Capillary Column or HP-Plot Q (Porapak-Q) column. The measured headspace CH₄ concentration
187 was then converted into a dissolved CH₄ concentration using the temperature-corrected solubility
188 coefficient (Wilhelm et al. 1977). Isotopic composition of dissolved CH₄ for Hütelmoor was
189 analyzed using the gas chromatography-combustion-technique (GC-C) and the gas

190 chromatography-high-temperature-conversion-technique (GC-HTC). The gas was directly
191 injected in a Gas Chromatograph Agilent 7890A, CH₄ was quantitatively converted to CO₂ and
192 the δ¹³C values were then measured with the isotope-ratio-mass-spectrometer MAT-253 (Thermo
193 Finnigan, Germany). The δ¹³C of dissolved CH₄ in Zarnekow was analyzed using a laser-based
194 isotope analyzer equipped with a small sample isotope module for analyses of discrete gas samples
195 (cavity ring down spectroscopy CRDS; Picarro G2201-I, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Calibration was
196 carried out before, during and after analyses using certified standards of known isotopic
197 composition (obtained from Isometric Instruments, Victoria, BC, Canada, and from Westfalen AG,
198 Münster, Germany). Reproducibility of results was typically +/- 1 ‰. In the presence of high
199 concentrations of hydrogen sulfide interfering with laser-based isotope analysis, samples were
200 treated with iron(III) sulfate to oxidize and/or precipitate sulfide. For both sites, sulfate and nitrate
201 concentrations were analyzed by ion chromatography (IC, Thermo Fisher Scientific Dionex) using
202 an Ion Pac AS-9-HC 4 column, partly after dilution of the sample. Dissolved metal concentrations
203 were analyzed by ICP-OES (iCAP 6300 DUO, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Accuracy and precision
204 were routinely checked with a certified CASS standard as previously described (Kowalski et al.
205 2012).

206 **2.3 Gene amplification and phylogenetic analysis**

207 Genomic DNA was extracted from 0.2–0.3 g of duplicates of peat soil per sample using an EurX
208 Soil DNA Kit (Roboklon, Berlin, Germany). DNA concentrations were quantified with a
209 Nanophotometer P360 (Implen GmbH, München, DE) and Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher
210 Scientific, Darmstadt, Germany). Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification of bacterial and
211 archaeal 16S rRNA genes was performed using the primer combination of S-D-Bact-0341-b-S-
212 17/S-D-Bact-0785-a-A-21 (Herlemann et al. 2011) and S-D-Arch-0349-a-S-17/S-D-Arch-0786-a-
213 A-20 (Takai and Horikoshi 2000), respectively, with barcodes contained in the 5'-end. The PCR
214 mix contained 1x PCR buffer (Tris•Cl, KCl, (NH₄)₂SO₄, 15 mM MgCl₂; pH 8.7) (QIAGEN,
215 Hilden, Germany), 0.5 μM of each primer (Biomers, Ulm, Germany), 0.2 mM of each

216 deoxynucleoside (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Darmstadt, Germany) and 0.025 U μl^{-1} hot start
217 polymerase (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany). PCR samples were kept at 95 °C for 5 min to denature
218 the DNA, with amplification proceeding for 40 cycles at 95 °C for 1 min, 56 °C for 45 s and 72
219 °C for 90 s; a final extension of 10 min at 72 °C was added to ensure complete amplification. PCR
220 products were purified with a Hi Yield Gel/PCR DNA fragment extraction kit (Süd-Laborbedarf,
221 Gauting, Germany). To reduce amplification bias, PCR products of three individual runs per
222 sample were combined. PCR products of different samples were pooled in equimolar
223 concentrations and compressed to a final volume of 10 μl with a concentration of 200 ng μl^{-1} in a
224 vacuum centrifuge Concentrator Plus (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany).

225 Illumina sequencing was performed by GATC Biotech AG using 300 bp paired-end mode and a
226 20% PhiX Control v3 library to counteract the effects of low-diversity sequence libraries. Raw
227 data was demultiplexed using an own script based on CutAdapt (Martin 2011). Ambiguous
228 nucleotides at sequence ends were trimmed and a 10% mismatch was allowed for primer
229 identification, whereas barcode sequences needed to be present without any mismatches and with
230 a minimum Phred-Score of Q25 for each nucleotide. After sorting, overlapping paired-end reads
231 were merged using PEAR [Q25, p 0.0001, v20] (Zhang et al. 2014). The orientation of the merged
232 sequences was standardized according to the barcode information obtained from demultiplexing.
233 Low-quality reads were removed using Trimmomatic [SE, LEADING Q25, TRAILING Q25,
234 SLIDINGWINDOW 5:25; MINLEN 200] (Bolger et al. 2014). Chimeric sequences were removed
235 using USEARCH 6.1 and the QIIME-script identify_chimeric_seqs.py (Caporaso et al. 2010). Pre-
236 processed sequences were taxonomically assigned to operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at a
237 nucleotide sequence identity of 97% using QIIME's pick_open_reference_otus.py script and the
238 GreenGenes database 13.05 (McDonald et al. 2012) as reference. The taxonomic assignment of
239 representative sequences was further checked for correct taxonomical classification by
240 phylogenetic tree calculations in the ARB environment referenced against the SILVA database
241 (<https://www.arb-silva.de>) version 119 (Quast et al. 2013). The resulting OTU table was filtered

242 for singletons, OTUs assigned to chloroplasts or mitochondria, and for low-abundance OTUs
243 (below 0.2% within each sample). Archaeal and bacterial samples were processed separately while
244 only OTUs that were assigned to the respective domain were considered for further analysis. For
245 archaea, a total of 6,844,177 valid sequences were obtained, ranging from 60,496 to 398,660 in
246 individual samples. These sequences were classified into 402 OTUs. For bacteria, a total of
247 2,586,148 valid sequences were obtained, ranging from 22,826 to 164,916 in individual samples.
248 These sequences were classified into 843 OTUs. The OTU tables were then collapsed at a higher
249 taxonomic level to generate the bubble plots. The 16S rRNA gene sequence data have been
250 deposited at NCBI under the Bioproject PRJNA356778. Hütelmoor sequence read archive
251 accession numbers are SRR5118134-SRR5118155 for bacterial and SRR5119428-SRR5119449
252 for archaeal sequences, respectively. Zarnekow accession numbers are SRR6854018-
253 SRR6854033 and SRR6854205-SRR6854220 for bacterial and archaeal sequences, respectively.

254 **2.4 qPCR analysis**

255 Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) for the determination of methanotrophic and
256 methanogenic functional gene copy numbers and overall bacterial 16S rRNA gene copy numbers
257 was performed via SybrGreen assays on a Bio-Rad CFX instrument (Bio-Rad, Munich, Germany)
258 with slight modifications after Liebner et al. (2015). The functional methanotrophic *pmoA* gene
259 was amplified with the primer combination A189F/Mb661 (Kolb et al. 2003) suitable for detecting
260 all known aerobic methanotrophic Proteobacteria. Annealing was done at 55 °C after a 7-cycle-
261 step touchdown starting at 62 °C. The functional methanogenic *mcrA* gene was amplified with the
262 *mlas/mcrA*-rev primer pair (Steinberg and Regan 2009) with annealing at 57 °C. The bacterial 16S
263 rRNA gene was quantified with the primers Eub341F/Eub534R according to Degelmann et al.
264 (2010) with annealing at 58 °C. Different DNA template concentrations were tested prior to the
265 qPCR runs to determine optimal template concentration without inhibitions through co-extracts.
266 The 25 µl reactions contained 12.5 µl of iTaq universal Sybr Green supermix (Bio-Rad, Munich,
267 Germany), 0.25 µM concentrations of the primers, and 5 µl of DNA template. Data acquisition

268 was always done at 80 °C to avoid quantification of primer dimers. The specificity of each run
269 was verified through melt-curve analysis and gel electrophoresis. Only runs with efficiencies
270 between 82 and 105% were used for further analysis. Measurements were performed in duplicates.
271 We determined the ratio of methanogens to methanotrophs based on gene abundances of *mcrA* and
272 *pmoA*. The marker gene for the soluble monooxygenase, *mmoX*, was neglected due to the absence
273 of *Methylocella* in the sequencing data (Fig. 4).

274 **2.5 Data visualization and statistical analysis**

275 All data visualization and statistical analysis were done in R (R Core Team). The taxonomic
276 relative abundances across samples were visualized through bubble plots with the R package
277 ggplot2 (Wickham 2009). Differences in microbial community composition were visualized with
278 2-dimensional non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) based on Bray-Curtis distances. The
279 NMDS ordinations were constructed using R package vegan (Oksanen et al. 2017). An
280 environmental fit was performed on the ordinations to determine the measured geochemical
281 parameters that may influence community composition. The geochemical data were fitted to the
282 ordinations as vectors with a significance of $p < 0.05$. Depth profiles were constructed with the
283 porewater geochemical data, as well as with the microbial abundances, to elucidate depthwise
284 trends and assess whether differences in microbial community and abundances among the two fens
285 are related to differences in their respective geochemistry.

286

287 **3 Results**

288 **3.1 Environmental characteristics and site geochemistry**

289 The two rewetted fens varied substantially in their environmental characteristics (e.g., proximity
290 to the sea) and porewater geochemistry (Fig. 2, Tables 1 and 2). EC was more than three times
291 higher in Hütelmoor than in Zarnekow, averaging 5.3 and 1.5 mS cm⁻¹, respectively. Mean values
292 of pH were approximately neutral (6.5 to 7.0) in the upper peat profile and comparable in both
293 fens until a depth of about 30 cm where pH decreased to ~6 in the Hütelmoor. Concentrations of

294 the TEAs nitrate and sulfate were lower in Zarnekow and near zero in the pore water at all depths,
295 while nitrate and sulfate were abundant in the upper and lower peat profile in Hütelmoor at ~1.5
296 to 3.0 mM and ~4 to 20 mM, respectively (Fig. 2). Iron concentrations were higher in the
297 Hütelmoor pore water, while manganese concentrations were higher in Zarnekow pore water.
298 Dissolved oxygen concentrations in the upper peat profile (i.e. 0 to 25 cm depths) were much
299 higher in Hütelmoor than in Zarnekow (Fig. 2). Here DO concentrations averaged ~0.250 mM
300 until a depth of 15 cm at which they dropped sharply, reaching concentrations slightly below 0.050
301 mM at 25 cm. In Zarnekow, DO concentrations did not exceed 0.1 mM and varied little with depth.
302 Regarding geochemical conditions, HC 1 differed from all other Hütelmoor cores and was more
303 similar to Zarnekow cores. In HC 1 – the core taken nearest to potential freshwater sources (Fig.
304 1b) – pore water EC and DO concentrations were lower while pH was slightly higher than in all
305 other Hütelmoor cores. Moreover, this was the only Hütelmoor core where nitrate concentrations
306 were below detection limit (0.001mM) (Fig. 2). In all cores we found high concentrations of
307 dissolved CH₄ that varied within and among fens and were slightly higher in Zarnekow pore water.
308 Stable isotope ratios of $\delta^{13}\text{C-CH}_4$ (Fig. 2) in the upper peat (approx. -59‰) suggest a
309 predominance of acetoclastic methanogenesis, with a shift to hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis
310 around -65‰ in the lower peat profile. Moreover, the observed shifts toward less negative $\delta^{13}\text{C-}$
311 CH₄ values in the upper peat layer, as in HC 1 and HC 2, could also indicate partial oxidation of
312 CH₄ occurred (Chasar et al. 2000).

313 **3.2 Community composition of bacteria and archaea**

314 Bacterial sequences could be affiliated into a total of 30 bacterial phyla (Fig. 3). Among them,
315 Proteobacteria, Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria, Chloroflexi, Nitrospirae and Bacteroidetes were
316 present in all samples. With mean relative abundance of 48%, Proteobacteria was the most
317 abundant phylum. Some taxa (e.g., Verrucomicrobia, Atribacteria (OP9), and AD3) were present
318 only in Hütelmoor. Variation in community composition was larger in Hütelmoor samples than in
319 Zarnekow. Within Proteobacteria, the alpha subdivision was the most dominant group, having

320 contributed 26.7% to all the libraries on average (Fig. 4). The family *Hyphomicrobiaceae*
321 dominated the Alphaproteobacteria, and was distributed evenly across samples, but missing in the
322 surface and bottom peat layers in Hütelmoor core (HC) 2. In addition, methanotrophs were clearly
323 in low abundance across all samples, representing only 0.06% and 0.05% of the bacterial
324 community in Hütelmoor and Zarnekow, respectively. Of the few methanotrophs that were
325 detected, type II methanotrophs (mainly *Methylocystaceae*) outcompeted type I methanotrophs
326 (mainly *Methylococcaceae*) in the community, while members of the genus *Methylocella* were
327 absent (Fig. 4).

328 Within the archaeal community, Bathyarchaeota were mostly dominating over Euryarchaeota (Fig.
329 5). The MCG group (mainly the order of pGrfC26) in Bathyarchaeota prevailed across all samples
330 but was especially abundant in HC 2 samples. In addition to Bathyarchaeota, methanogenic
331 archaea were important, and on average contributed 30.6% to the whole archaeal community.
332 Among the methanogens, acetoclastic methanogens were more abundant in most of the samples
333 and *Methanosaetaceae* (24.8%) were the major component. They were present in most samples
334 and much more dominant than *Methanosarcinaceae* (2.0%). Hydrogenotrophic methanogens, such
335 as *Methanomassiliicoccaceae* (1.6%), *Methanoregulaceae* (1.2%) and *Methanocellaceae* (0.6%),
336 albeit low in abundance, were detected in many samples. Hütelmoor samples displayed greater
337 variability in archaeal community composition compared to Zarnekow samples. The putative
338 anaerobic methanotrophs of the ANME-2D (Raghoebarsing et al. 2006) clade occurred in patchy
339 abundance with dominance in single spots of both sites. In HC 1 they represented a mean relative
340 abundance of 40.9% of total archaeal reads but were almost absent in all other Hütelmoor cores.
341 In Zarnekow core (ZC) 3, ANME-2D represented up to approximately 30% of all archaea but were
342 otherwise low in abundance.

343 **3.3 Environmental drivers of microbial community composition**

344 Bacterial and archaeal population at both peatland sites showed distinct clustering (Fig. 6) with
345 similarly high intra- and inter-site variations but greater overall variation in community

346 composition in the Hütelmoor. Community composition varied much more strongly in HC 2 than
347 in any other core (grey dashed-line polygon in Fig. 6). Bacterial communities in HC 1 were more
348 similar to communities in all Zarnekow cores than in other Hütelmoor cores (Fig. 6a). The archaeal
349 community in HC 1 was more similar to Zarnekow cores as well (Fig. 6b). Overall, the influence
350 of depth on microbial community was evident, especially in the Hütelmoor where the differences
351 were more pronounced. Environmental fit vectors suggest pH, oxygen and alternative TEA
352 availability as important factors influencing microbial community composition. The EC vector
353 suggests the importance of brackish conditions in shaping microbial communities in the Hütelmoor
354 (Fig. 6a - c).

355 **3.4 Total microbial and functional gene abundances**

356 Quantitative PCR results show that in both fens, *mcrA* abundance is up to two orders of magnitude
357 greater than *pmoA* abundance (Fig. 7, Tables 1 and 2). Gene copy numbers of *mcrA* are overall
358 higher and spatially more stable in Zarnekow than in Hütelmoor. Total microbial abundance
359 declined with depth more strongly in Hütelmoor than in Zarnekow (Fig. 7). There was a
360 pronounced decrease in microbial abundances at 20 cm depth in the Hütelmoor. For example, 16S
361 rRNA gene and *pmoA* gene copy numbers in deeper samples (below 20 cm depth) are one order
362 of magnitude lower than in upper samples on average, while the *mcrA* gene abundance are
363 approximately two orders of magnitude lower. Hütelmoor samples also exhibited larger
364 heterogeneity in terms of abundances than Zarnekow samples. Contrary to previous studies,
365 methanotroph abundance did not correlate with dissolved CH₄ or oxygen concentrations.

366

367 **4 Discussion**

368 **4.1 Fen geochemistry and relations to microbial community composition**

369 The rewetting of drained fens promotes elevated CH₄ production and emission, which can
370 potentially offset carbon sink benefits. Very few studies have attempted to link microbial
371 community dynamics and site geochemistry with observed patterns in CH₄ production and/or

372 emission in rewetted fens, while such data are crucial for predicting long-term changes to CH₄
373 cycling (Galand et al. 2002, Yrjälä et al. 2011, Juottonen et al. 2012). In this study, we show that
374 CH₄-cycling microbial community composition is related to patterns in site geochemistry in two
375 rewetted fens with high CH₄ emissions, high methanogen abundances, and low methanotroph
376 abundances. Our results suggest that high methanogen abundances concurrent with low
377 methanotroph abundances are characteristic of rewetted fens with ongoing high CH₄ emissions.
378 Thus, we present microbial evidence for sustained elevated CH₄ emissions in mostly inundated
379 rewetted temperate fens.

380 The environmental conditions and associated geochemistry of the two rewetted fens were largely
381 different. Depth profiles of porewater geochemical parameters show the fens differed in EC
382 throughout the entire peat profile, while pH and concentrations of alternative TEAs differed at
383 certain depths. In general, concentrations of TEAs oxygen, sulfate, nitrate, and iron were higher
384 in the Hütelmoor. In Zarnekow, geochemical conditions varied little across the fen and along the
385 peat depth profiles (Fig. 2). As expected, the geochemical heterogeneity was reflected in microbial
386 community structure in both sites, suggesting the importance of environmental characteristics and
387 associated geochemical conditions as drivers of microbial community composition (Figs. 2, 3, 4,
388 6). The NMDS ordinations (Fig. 6) show large variation in archaeal and bacterial community
389 composition in the coastal brackish fen, and much less variation in the freshwater riparian fen.
390 Environmental fit vectors (Fig. 6) suggest that salinity (indicated by the EC vector), pH, oxygen
391 and alternative TEA availability are the most important measured factors influencing microbial
392 communities in the two fens. Patterns in microbial community composition have previously been
393 linked to salinity (e.g., Chambers et al. 2016), pH (e.g., Yrjälä et al. 2011), and TEA availability
394 in peatlands (e.g., He et al. 2015).

395 Comparing the geochemical depth profiles (Fig. 2) with the relative abundance of bacteria and
396 archaea (Figs. 3 and 4) provides a more complete picture of the relationships between microbial
397 communities and site geochemistry, particularly with respect to TEA utilization. While the

398 porewater depth profiles suggest there is little nitrate available for microbial use in HC 1, the
399 relative abundance plot for Archaea showed that this core was dominated by ANME-2D. ANME-
400 2D were recently discovered to be anaerobic methanotrophs that oxidize CH₄ performing reverse
401 methanogenesis using nitrate as an electron acceptor (Haroon et al. 2013). However, ANME-2D
402 has also been implicated in the iron-mediated anaerobic oxidation of methane (Ettwig et al. 2016),
403 and the HC 1 site showed slightly higher total iron concentrations. The relevance of ANME-2D as
404 CH₄ oxidizers in terrestrial habitats is still not clear. Rewetting converts the fens into widely
405 anaerobic conditions, thus providing conditions suitable for the establishment of anaerobic
406 oxidation of methane, but this has yet to be demonstrated in fens. The patchy yet locally high
407 abundance of ANME-2D both in Hütelmoor and in Zarnekow suggests an ecological relevance of
408 this group. Shifts towards less negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CH}_4$ signatures in the upper peat profile, for example,
409 from -65 to -60‰ in HC 1 (where ANME-2D was abundant), may indicate that partial oxidation
410 of CH₄ occurred, but we could only speculate whether or not ANME-2D are actively involved in
411 this CH₄ oxidation.

412 Although TEA input may be higher in the Hütelmoor, here, methanogenic conditions also
413 predominate. This finding contrasts the measured oxygen concentrations in the upper peat profile,
414 as methanogenesis under persistently oxygenated conditions is thermodynamically not possible.
415 However, seasonal analysis of oxygen concentrations in both sites suggests highly fluctuating
416 oxygen regimes both spatially and temporary (data not shown). Such non-uniform distribution of
417 redox processes has already been described elsewhere, in particular for methanogenesis (Hoehler
418 et al. 2001, Knorr et al. 2009). It is possible that oxygen levels in both fens are highly variable,
419 allowing for spatially decoupled aerobic and anaerobic carbon turnover processes. Recent studies
420 from wetlands also show that methanogenesis can occur in aerobic layers, driven mainly by
421 *Methanosaeta* (Narrowe et al. 2017, Wagner 2017), which were detected in a high abundance in
422 this study (Fig. 5). Further, oxygen may not necessarily be available within aggregates entailing
423 anaerobic pathways and thus, the existence of anaerobic microenvironments may also partially

424 explain the seemingly contradictory co-occurrence of oxygen and the highly abundant
425 methanogens. Anaerobic conditions are also reflected by the extensive and stable occurrence of
426 the strictly anaerobic syntrophs (e.g., *Syntrophobacteraceae*, *Syntrophaceae*) in most samples,
427 even in the top centimeters. This suggests that syntrophic degradation of organic material is taking
428 place in the uppermost layer and the fermented substances are easily available for methanogens.
429 As geochemistry and microbial community composition differ among the sites in this study, it is
430 thus notable that a similarly high abundance of methanogens, and low abundance of methanotrophs
431 was detected in both fens. The dominance of methanogens implies that readily available substrates
432 and favorable geochemical conditions promote high anaerobic carbon turnover despite seasonally
433 fluctuating oxygen concentrations in the upper peat layer.

434 **4.2 Low methanotroph abundances in rewetted fens**

435 Methanogens (mainly *Methanosaetaceae*) dominated nearly all of the various niches detected in
436 this study, while methanotrophs were highly under-represented in both sites (Figs. 3 and 4).
437 Functional and ribosomal gene copy numbers not only show a high ratio of methanogen to
438 methanotroph abundance (Fig. 7) irrespective of site and time of sampling, but also a small
439 contribution of methanotrophs to total bacterial population in both sites. Methanotrophs constitute
440 only ~0.06% of the total bacterial population in the Hütelmoor and ~0.05% at Zarnekow. It should
441 be noted that in this study we measured only gene abundances and not transcript abundances, so
442 that the pool both of active methanogens and methanotrophs was likely smaller than the numbers
443 presented here (Freitag and Prosser 2009, Freitag et al. 2010, Cheema et al. 2015, Franchini et al.
444 2015). Also, as we were unable to obtain microbial samples from before rewetting, a direct
445 comparison of microbial abundances was not possible. This was therefore, not a study of rewetting
446 effects. For this reason, we performed an exhaustive literature search on relevant studies of pristine
447 fens. Compared to pristine fens, we detected a low abundance of methanotrophs. Liebner et al.
448 (2015), for example, found methanotrophs represented 0.5% of the total bacterial community in a
449 pristine, subarctic transitional bog/fen palsa, while *mcrA* and *pmoA* abundances were nearly

450 identical. In a pristine Swiss alpine fen, Liebner et al. (2012) found methanotrophs generally
451 outnumbered methanogens by an order of magnitude. Cheema et al. (2015) and Franchini et al.
452 (2015) reported *mcrA* abundances higher than *pmoA* abundances by only one order of magnitude
453 in a separate Swiss alpine fen. In the rewetted fens in our study, *mcrA* gene abundance was up to
454 two orders of magnitude higher than *pmoA* abundance (Fig. 7). Due to inevitable differences in
455 methodology and equipment, direct comparisons of absolute gene abundances are limited.
456 Therefore, only the abundances of methanotrophs relative to methanogens and relative to the total
457 bacterial community were compared, rather than absolute abundances. We are confident that this
458 kind of ‘normalization’ can mitigate the bias of different experiments and allows a comparison of
459 sites. Further, all primers and equipment used in this study were identical to those used by Liebner
460 et al. (2012, 2015), making the comparison more reliable.

461 As most methanotrophs live along the oxic-anoxic boundary of the peat surface and plant roots
462 therein (Le Mer and Roger 2001), the low methanotroph abundances in both fens could be
463 explained by disturbances to this boundary zone and associated geochemical pathways following
464 inundation. In rewetted fens, a massive plant dieback has been observed along with strong changes
465 in surface peat geochemistry (Hahn-Schöfl et al. 2011, Hahn et al. 2015). In addition to substrate
466 (i.e. CH₄) availability, oxygen availability is the most important factor governing the activity of
467 most methanotrophs (Le Mer and Roger 2001, Hernandez et al. 2015). The anoxic conditions at
468 the peat surface caused by inundation may have disturbed existing methanotrophic niches, either
469 directly by habitat destruction, and/or indirectly by promoting the growth of organisms that are
470 able to outcompete methanotrophs for oxygen. Heterotrophic organisms, for example, have been
471 shown to outcompete methanotrophs for oxygen when oxygen concentrations are greater than 5
472 μM (van Bodegom et al. 2001). Our microbial data support this conclusion, as
473 *Hyphomicrobiaceae*, most of which are aerobic heterotrophs, was the most abundant bacterial
474 family in both fens. Incubation data from Zarnekow (Fig. S1) show that the CH₄ oxidation potential
475 is high, however incubations provide ideal conditions for methanotrophs and thus only potential

476 rates. It is likely that, *in situ*, the activity of methanotrophs is overprinted by the activity of
477 competitive organisms such as heterotrophs. It is also possible that methane oxidation may occur
478 in the water column above the peat surface, but this was beyond the scope of this study.
479 Nevertheless, it is low enough that methane production and emissions remain high, as
480 demonstrated by the high dissolved CH₄ concentrations and ongoing high fluxes.
481 Comparable studies have so far been conducted in nutrient-poor or mesotrophic fens where post-
482 rewetting CH₄ emissions, though higher than pre-rewetting, did not exceed those of similar pristine
483 sites (e.g., Yrjälä et al. 2011, Juottonen et al. 2005, Juottonen et al. 2012). Nevertheless, there is
484 mounting evidence linking CH₄-cycling microbe abundances to CH₄ dynamics in rewetted fens.
485 Juottonen et al. (2012), for example, compared *pmoA* gene abundances in three natural and three
486 rewetted fens and found them to be lower in rewetted sites. The same study also measured a lower
487 abundance of *mcrA* genes in rewetted sites, which was attributed to a lack of available labile
488 organic carbon compounds. In peatlands, and especially fens, litter and root exudates from vascular
489 plants can stimulate CH₄ emissions (Megonigal et al. 2005, Bridgham et al. 2013, Agethen and
490 Knorr 2018), and excess labile substrate has been proposed as one reason for substantial increases
491 in CH₄ emissions in rewetted fens (Hahn-Schöfl et al. 2011). Future studies should compare pre-
492 and post-rewetting microbial abundances along with changes in CH₄ emissions, plant
493 communities, and peat geochemistry to better assess the effect rewetting has on the CH₄-cycling
494 microbial community.

495

496 **5 Conclusion**

497 Despite a recent increase in the number of rewetting projects in Northern Europe, few studies have
498 characterized CH₄-cycling microbes in restored peatlands, especially fens. In this study, we show
499 that rewetted fens differing in geochemical conditions and microbial community composition have
500 a similarly low abundance of methanotrophs, a high abundance of methanogens, and an established
501 anaerobic carbon cycling microbial community. Comparing these data to pristine wetlands with

502 lower CH₄ emission rates, we found that pristine wetlands generally have a higher abundance of
503 methanotrophs than measured in the fens in this study, suggesting the inundation and associated
504 anoxia caused by flooding disturbs methanotrophic niches and may negatively affect the ability of
505 methanotrophic communities to establish. The abundances of methane producers and consumers
506 are thus suggested as important drivers for continued elevated CH₄ emissions following the
507 rewetting of drained fens. Management decisions regarding rewetting processes should consider
508 that disturbances to methanotrophic niches is possible if rewetting leads to long-term inundation
509 of the peat surface.

510

511 **Competing interests**

512 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

513

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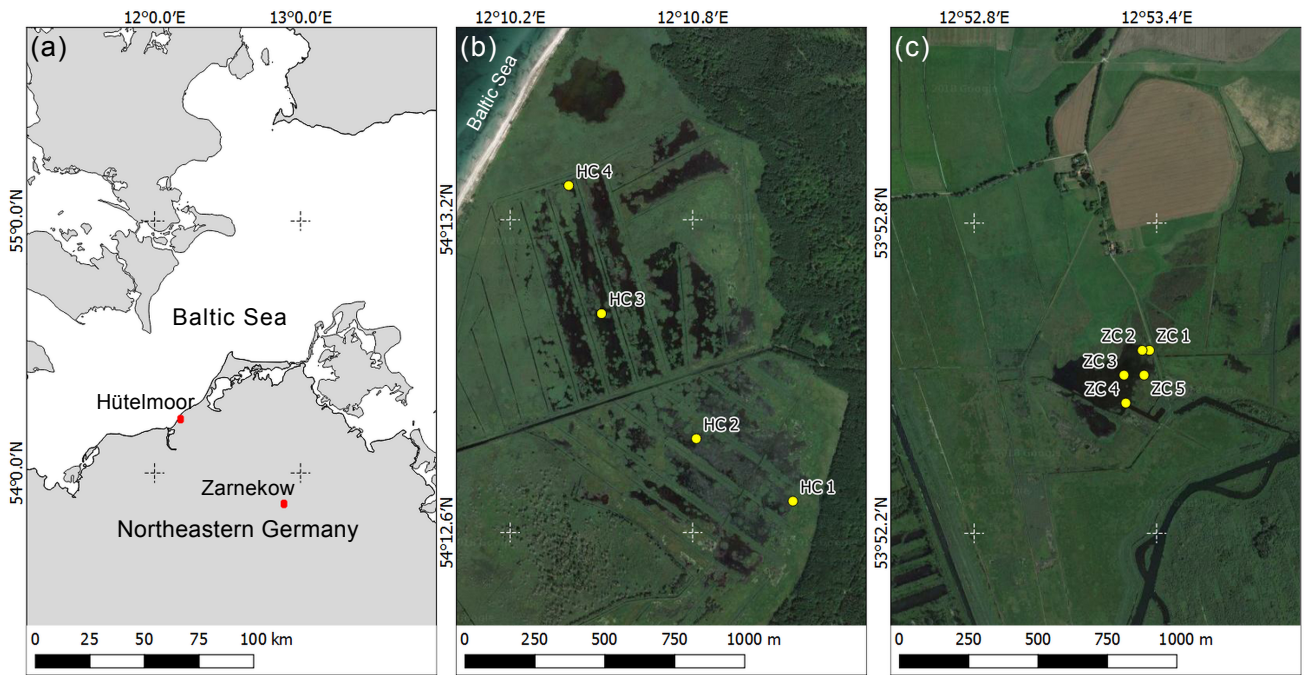
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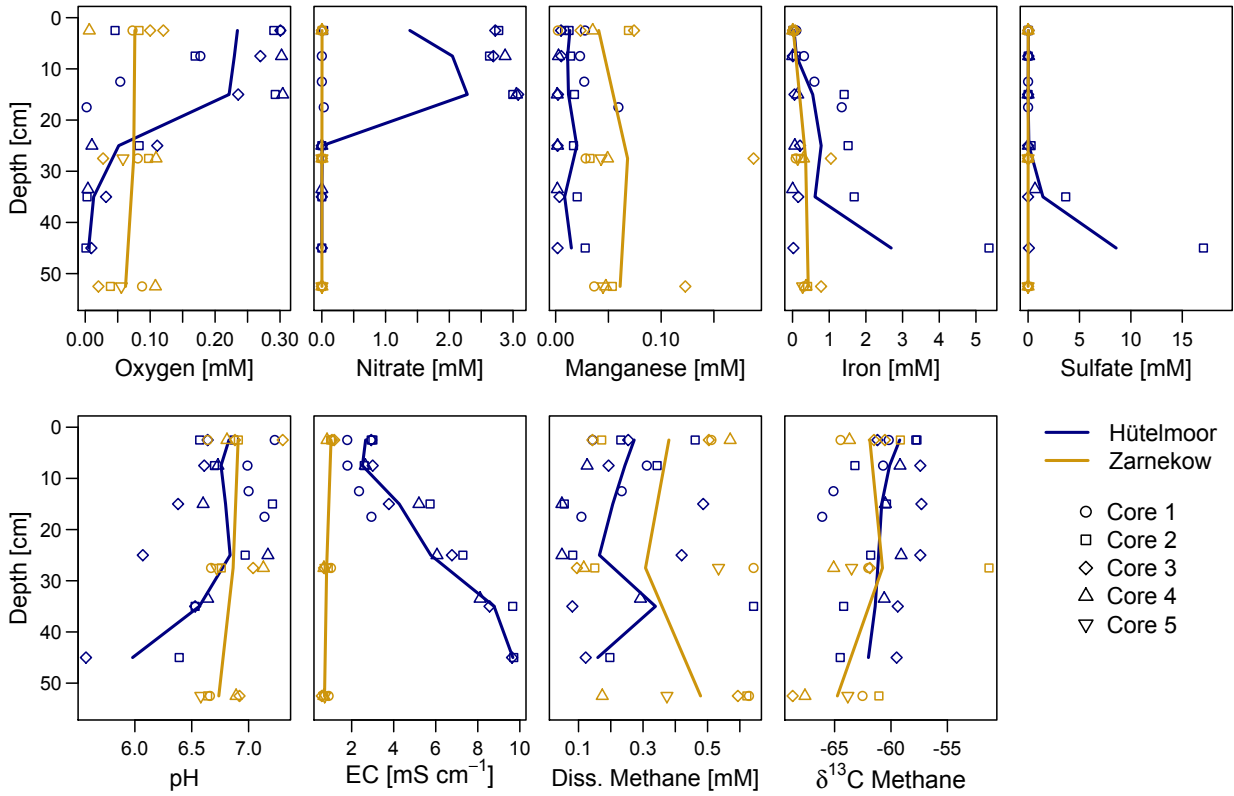
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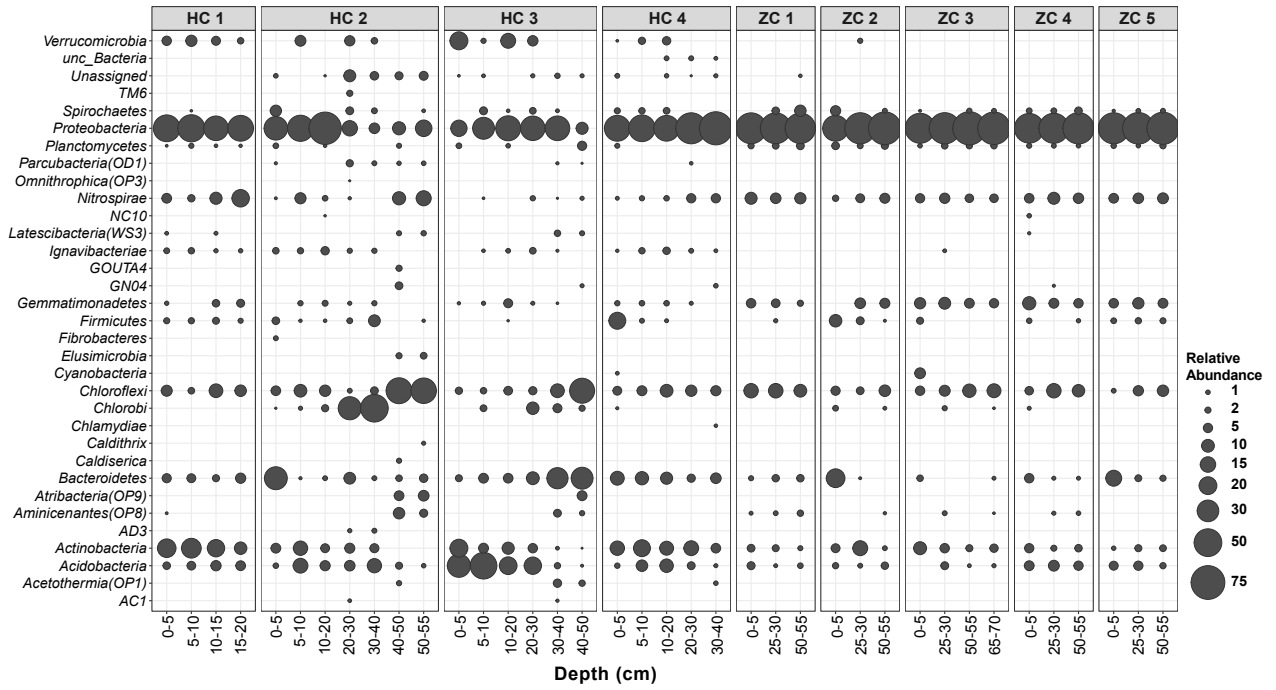
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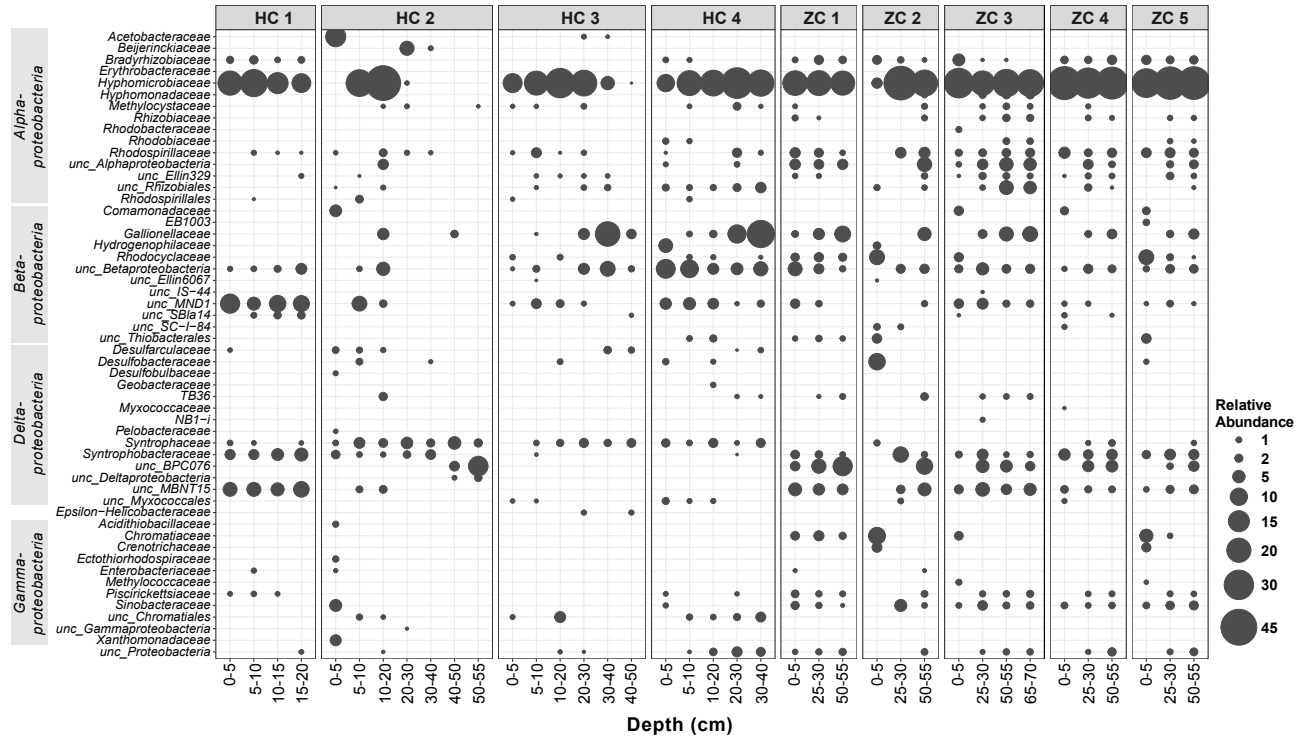
Figure 1: Location of study sites in northeastern Germany (a) and sampling locations within sites (b) Hütelmoor and (c) Zarnekow. Maps b) and c) are drawn to the same scale. Image source: (a) QGIS, (b) and (c) Google Earth via QGIS OpenLayer Plugin. Imagery date: August 9, 2015.



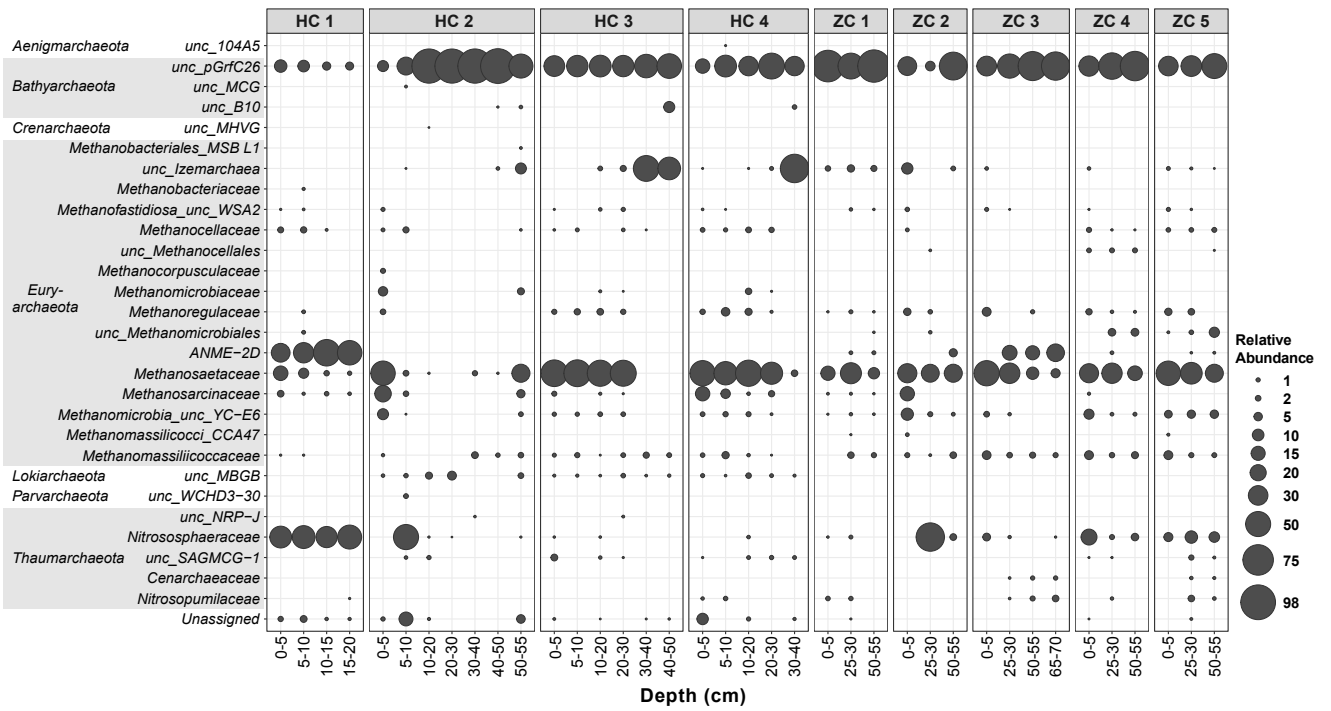
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 903 **Figure 2:** Depth profiles of oxygen, nitrate, total iron, manganese, and sulfate (upper panels), and profiles of pH, EC, dissolved
 904 methane, and the isotopic signature of methane-bound carbon (lower panels) in both study sites. Solid lines connect the respective
 905 means of individual wetlands (n=4 for Hütelmoor and n=5 for Zarnekow).
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 909 **Figure 3:** Relative abundances of different bacterial lineages in the study sites. Along the horizontal axis samples are arranged
 910 according to site and depth. The rank order along the vertical axis is shown for the phylum level.



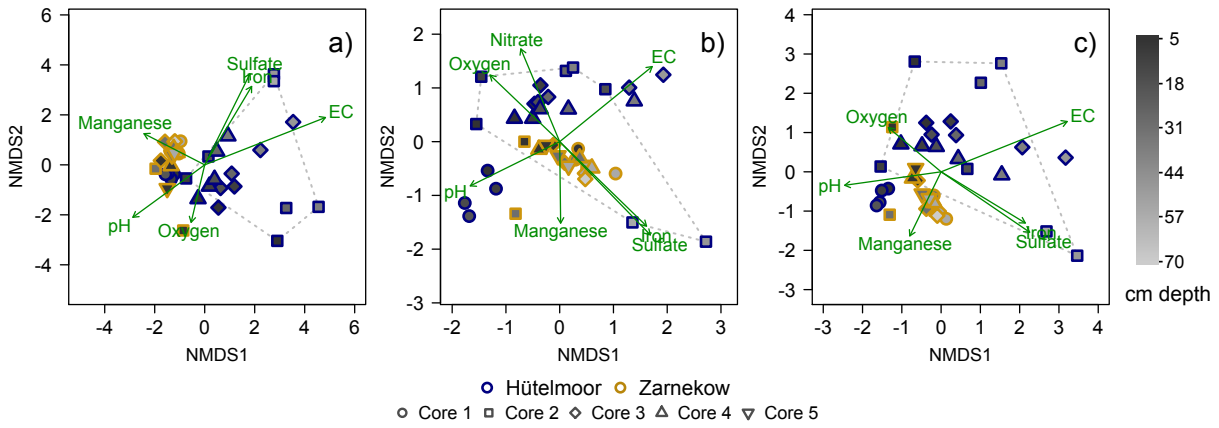
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 912 **Figure 4:** Relative abundances of Proteobacteria phyla in the study sites. Along the horizontal axis samples are arranged according
 913 to site and depth. The rank order along the vertical axis is shown for the family level. If an assignment to the family level was not
 914 possible the next higher assignable taxonomic level was used.
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Figure 5: Relative abundances of different archaeal lineages in the study sites. Along the horizontal axis samples are arranged according to site and depth. The rank order along the vertical axis is shown for the family level. If an assignment to the family level was not possible, the next higher assignable taxonomic level was used.

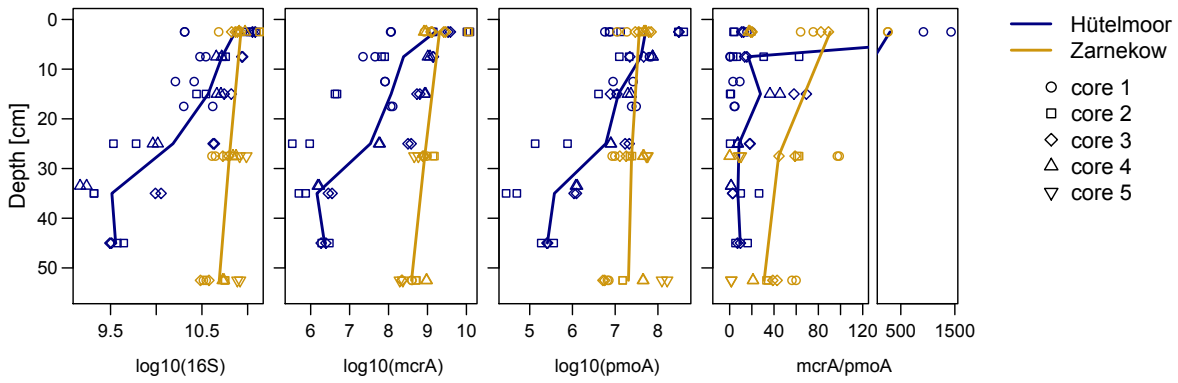
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Figure 6: NMDS plots showing (a) bacterial, (b) archaeal, and (c) microbial (bacterial plus archaeal) community composition across the nine peat cores and their respective depth sections. The point positions represent distinct microbial communities, with the border colors of the symbols referring to the study sites and their shapes representing the core number. The shading indicates sample depth, with darker shades representing shallower depths, and lighter shades representing deeper depths. The dashed grey polygon highlights the large variation in microbial community composition in HC 2. Environmental fit vectors with a significance of $p < 0.05$ are shown in green.

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Figure 7: Depth distribution of qPCR abundances for total microbial (16S), methanogen (*mcrA*), methanotroph (*pmoA*), and ratio of *mcrA* to *pmoA* gene copy numbers in both sites. Microbial abundances were designated as numbers of gene copies per gram of dry peat soil. Duplicate measurements per depth section are shown against sampling depth using log-transformed values. Solid lines indicate mean abundances. Note that the plot at the right was split into two plots to capture very high *mcrA/pmoA* ratios in the upper peat layer.

943 **Table 1:** Environmental conditions, geochemical conditions, and microbial abundances in peat cores from the Hütelmoor, a coastal minerotrophic fen
 944 in northeastern Germany. Environmental conditions are described by pH and EC (electrical conductivity). Geochemical parameters shown are dissolved
 945 methane (CH₄) concentrations, the isotopic signature of methane-bound carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}-\text{CH}_4$), and concentrations of terminal electron acceptors which
 946 are denoted with their respective chemical abbreviations. Microbial abundances here represent the mean value of averaged subsamples for each depth
 947 section (n=2). nd = not detected.
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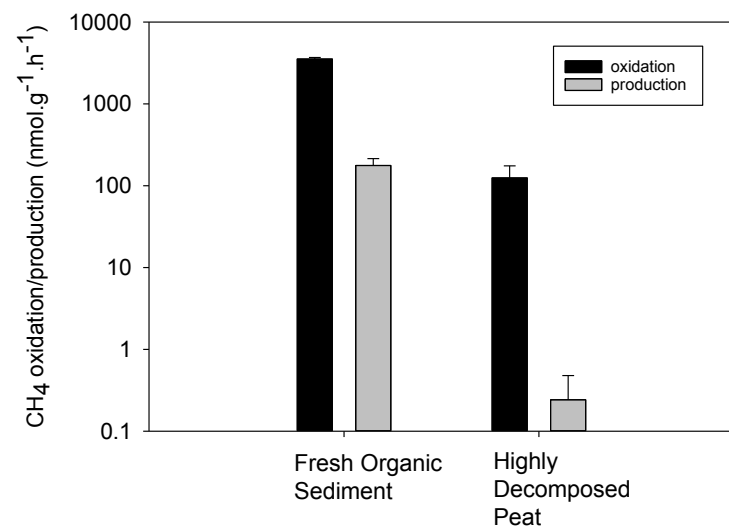
Core, depth	pH	EC	$\delta^{13}\text{C}-\text{CH}_4$	Dissolved CH ₄	O ₂	NO ₃ ⁻	Fe	Mn	SO ₄ ²⁻	16S	<i>mcrA</i>	<i>pmoA</i>	<i>mcrA/pmoA</i>
cm		mS cm ⁻¹				mM					gene copies g dry peat ⁻¹		
HC 1, 0–5	7.2	1.79	-60.2	0.14	0.30	nd	0.10	0.03	0.03	2.04x10 ¹⁰	1.15x10 ⁰⁸	6.60x10 ⁰⁶	17.7
5–10	7.0	1.80	-60.7	0.31	0.18	nd	0.31	0.02	0.01	3.25 x10 ¹⁰	3.36x10 ⁰⁷	6.68x10 ⁰⁷	0.51
10–15	7.0	2.35	-65.1	0.23	0.05	nd	0.60	0.03	nd	2.11x10 ¹⁰	8.12x10 ⁰⁷	1.76x10 ⁰⁷	6.12
15–20	7.1	2.94	-66.1	0.11	nd	0.03	1.34	0.06	nd	3.08x10 ¹⁰	1.21x10 ⁰⁸	2.76x10 ⁰⁷	4.41
HC 2, 0–5	6.9	3.01	-57.8	0.46	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.01	nd	1.10x10 ¹¹	1.13x10 ¹⁰	1.03x10 ⁰⁷	1,170
5–10	6.7	2.60	-63.2	0.34	0.17	2.63	0.10	0.01	0.01	5.51x10 ¹⁰	7.27x10 ⁰⁷	1.69x10 ⁰⁷	4.73
10–20	7.2	5.73	-60.4	0.06	0.29	3.00	1.41	0.02	nd	3.13x10 ¹⁰	4.47x10 ⁰⁶	7.32x10 ⁰⁶	0.74
20–30	7.0	7.29	-61.8	0.08	0.08	nd	1.51	0.02	0.29	4.71x10 ⁰⁹	6.41x10 ⁰⁵	4.50x10 ⁰⁵	3.75
30–40	6.5	9.66	-64.2	0.64	nd	nd	1.68	0.02	3.66	2.09x10 ⁰⁹	6.21x10 ⁰⁵	3.90x10 ⁰⁴	18.3
40–50	6.4	9.71	-64.5	0.20	nd	nd	5.35	0.03	17.1	4.09x10 ⁰⁹	2.47x10 ⁰⁶	2.75x10 ⁰⁵	10.7
HC 3, 0–5	6.6	2.93	-57.7	0.23	0.29	2.77	0.11	0.01	0.04	1.10x10 ¹¹	1.34x10 ⁰⁹	3.51x10 ⁰⁸	3.86
5–10	6.6	3.00	-57.4	0.19	0.27	2.69	0.01	0.01	0.03	8.72x10 ¹⁰	1.40x10 ⁰⁹	3.42x10 ⁰⁷	46.6
10–20	6.4	3.77	-57.3	0.49	0.24	3.08	0.05	nd	nd	6.08x10 ¹⁰	5.86x10 ⁰⁸	9.35x10 ⁰⁶	63.6
20–30	6.1	6.77	-57.4	0.42	0.11	nd	0.20	nd	nd	4.26x10 ¹⁰	3.48x10 ⁰⁸	1.92x10 ⁰⁷	18.2
30–40	6.5	8.56	-59.4	0.08	0.03	nd	0.16	nd	nd	1.05x10 ¹⁰	3.20x10 ⁰⁶	1.17x10 ⁰⁶	2.74
40–50	5.6	9.36	-59.5	0.12	0.01	nd	0.02	nd	0.08	3.18x10 ⁰⁹	2.16x10 ⁰⁶	2.58x10 ⁰⁵	8.39
HC 4, 0–5	6.6	2.93	-61.2	0.25	0.30	2.72	0.02	0.01	0.04	1.17x10 ¹¹	3.63x10 ⁰⁹	3.09x10 ⁰⁸	11.7
5–10	6.7	2.65	-59.2	0.13	0.30	2.87	0.01	nd	0.05	4.87x10 ¹⁰	1.09x10 ⁰⁹	7.51x10 ⁰⁷	14.5
10–20	6.6	5.20	-60.5	0.05	0.30	3.05	0.14	nd	nd	4.85x10 ¹⁰	8.71x10 ⁰⁸	2.15x10 ⁰⁷	40.8
20–30	7.2	6.06	-59.1	0.05	0.01	nd	0.06	nd	0.02	9.78x10 ⁰⁹	5.82x10 ⁰⁷	7.91x10 ⁰⁶	7.36
30–40	6.6	8.11	-60.6	0.29	nd	nd	0.09	nd	0.67	1.60x10 ⁰⁹	1.58x10 ⁰⁶	1.25x10 ⁰⁶	1.27

950 **Table 2:** Environmental conditions, geochemical conditions, and microbial abundances in peat cores from Zarnekow, a freshwater minerotrophic fen
 951 in northeastern Germany. Environmental conditions are described by pH and EC (electrical conductivity). Geochemical parameters shown are dissolved
 952 methane (CH₄) concentrations, the isotopic signature of methane-bound carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -CH₄), and concentrations of terminal electron acceptors which
 953 are denoted with their respective chemical abbreviations. Microbial abundances here represent the mean value of averaged subsamples for each depth
 954 section (n=2). nd = not detected.
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Core, depth	pH	EC	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - CH ₄	Dissolved CH ₄	O ₂	NO ₃ ⁻	Fe	Mn	SO ₄ ²⁻	16S	<i>mcrA</i>	<i>pmoA</i>	<i>mcrA/pmoA</i>
cm		mS cm ⁻¹				mM					gene copies g dry peat ⁻¹		
ZC 1 , 0–5	6.64	1.03	-64.5	0.51	0.07	0.001	0.007	0.002	0.002	6.33x10 ¹⁰	1.02x10 ⁰⁹	1.49x10 ⁰⁷	69.7
25–30	6.67	1.14	-62.0	0.64	0.08	0.001	0.087	0.028	0.003	4.25x10 ¹⁰	8.96x10 ⁰⁸	9.14x10 ⁰⁶	98.0
50–55	6.66	1.31	-62.5	0.63	0.09	0.005	0.310	0.037	0.002	3.40x10 ¹⁰	3.97x10 ⁰⁸	6.85x10 ⁰⁶	58.1
ZC 2 , 0–5	6.91	1.00	-59.2	0.17	0.08	0.004	0.012	0.069	0.007	1.43x10 ¹¹	1.14x10 ¹⁰	4.35x10 ⁰⁷	261
25–30	6.76	1.29	-51.3	0.15	0.10	0.001	0.215	0.033	0.013	6.44x10 ¹⁰	1.45x10 ⁰⁹	2.34x10 ⁰⁷	61.8
50–55	6.64	1.52	-61.1	0.62	0.04	nd	0.410	0.054	0.003	5.64x10 ¹⁰	5.10x10 ⁰⁸	1.50x10 ⁰⁷	34.0
ZC 3 , 0–5	6.88	1.17	-60.5	0.50	0.10	0.001	0.073	0.074	0.032	7.86x10 ¹⁰	2.78x10 ⁰⁹	3.26x10 ⁰⁷	85.7
25–30	7.04	3.39	-61.9	0.10	0.03	0.002	1.046	0.188	0.003	5.79x10 ¹⁰	7.81x10 ⁰⁸	1.55x10 ⁰⁷	51.8
50–55	6.92	3.82	-68.7	0.59	0.02	nd	0.779	0.123	0.003	3.41x10 ¹⁰	2.21x10 ⁰⁸	5.41x10 ⁰⁶	40.9
ZC 4 , 0–5	7.3	1.06	-61.5	0.14	0.12	0.010	0.013	0.024	0.035	7.19x10 ¹⁰	1.28x10 ⁰⁹	6.53x10 ⁰⁷	19.6
25–30	7.13	1.58	-65.1	0.12	0.11	0.002	0.301	0.049	0.002	7.19x10 ¹⁰	nd	4.60x10 ⁰⁷	-
50–55	6.89	1.51	-67.6	0.17	0.11	0.002	0.366	0.048	0.002	5.42x10 ¹⁰	9.47x10 ⁰⁸	4.50x10 ⁰⁷	21.0
ZC 5 , 0–5	6.81	0.83	-63.7	0.57	0.01	0.002	0.005	0.035	0.005	8.73x10 ¹⁰	8.73x10 ⁰⁸	4.97x10 ⁰⁷	17.6
25–30	6.72	0.86	-63.5	0.53	0.06	0.002	0.139	0.043	0.001	8.94x10 ¹⁰	5.21x10 ⁰⁸	5.57x10 ⁰⁷	93.4
50–55	6.58	1.00	-63.8	0.37	0.06	0.002	0.275	0.045	0.002	8.00x10 ¹⁰	2.14x10 ⁰⁸	1.44x10 ⁰⁸	14.9

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967 **Supplemental Material**



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Figure S1: Incubation data from Zarnekow, a freshwater minerotrophic fen in Northeastern Germany. Rates of methane production and methane oxidation are shown for both fresh (surficial) organic sediment and the bulk peat.