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1 Predominance of methanogens over methanotrophs contributes

2 to high methane emissions in rewetted fens

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Abstract. The rewetting of drained peatlands alters peat geochemistry and often leads to sustained elevated methane emission. Although this methane is produced entirely by microbial activity, the distribution and abundance of methane-cycling microbes in rewetted peatlands, especially in fens, is rarely described. In this study, we compare the community composition and abundance of methane-cycling microbes in relation to peat porewater geochemistry in two rewetted fens in northeastern Germany, a coastal brackish fen and a freshwater riparian fen, with known high

33 methane fluxes. We utilized 16S rDNA high-throughput sequencing and quantitative polymerase





chain reaction on 16S rDNA, mcrA, and pmoA genes to determine microbial community 34 composition and the abundance of total bacteria, methanogens, and methanotrophs. Electrical 35 36 conductivity was more than three times higher in the coastal fen than in the riparian fen, averaging 37 5.3 and 1.5 mS cm⁻¹, respectively. Porewater concentrations of terminal electron acceptors varied 38 within and among the fens. This was also reflected in similarly high intra- and inter-site variations 39 of microbial community composition. Despite these differences in environmental conditions and 40 electron acceptor availability, we found a low abundance of methanotrophs and a high abundance 41 of methanogens, represented in particular by Methanosaetaceae, in both fens. This suggests that 42 rapid re/establishment of methanogens and slow re/establishment of methanotrophs contributes to 43 prolonged increased methane emissions following rewetting.

44 1 Introduction

Rewetting is a technique commonly employed to restore ecological and biogeochemical 45 46 functioning of drained fens. However, while rewetting may reduce carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions 47 (Wilson et al. 2016), it often increases methane (CH_4) emissions in peatlands that remain mostly inundated following rewetting. The factors that contribute to the magnitude and duration of this 48 increase are still uncertain (Joosten et al. 2015, Abdalla et al. 2016). On a 100-year time scale CH₄ 49 has a global warming potential 28 times stronger than CO₂ (Myhre et al. 2013); thus, increased 50 CH₄ emissions could potentially offset the benefit of decreased CO₂ emissions (Jurasinski et al. 51 2016). Although a recent increase in rewetting projects in Germany and other European nations 52 has prompted a number of studies of methane cycling in rewetted peatlands (e.g., Jerman et al. 53 2009, Hahn-Schöfl et al. 2011, Urbanová et al. 2013, Hahn et al. 2015, Vanselow-Algan et al. 54 55 2015, Zak et al. 2015, Emsens et al. 2016), the post-rewetting distribution and abundance of methane-cycling microbes in rewetted fens has seldom been examined (but see Juottonen et al. 56 2012, Urbanová et al. 2013). 57 58 Peat CH₄ production and release is governed by a complex array of interrelated factors including

- 59 climate, water level, plant community, nutrient status, site geochemistry, and the activity of
- 60 microbes (i.e. bacteria and archaea) that use organic carbon as energy source (Segers 1998, Abdalla
- 61 et al. 2016). To date, the vast majority of studies in rewetted fens have focused on quantifying CH4





62 emission rates in association with environmental variables such as water level, plant community, and aspects of site geochemistry (Abdalla et al. 2016). Site geochemistry indeed plays an important 63 64 role for methanogenic communities, as methanogenesis is suppressed in presence of thermodynamically more favorable terminal electron acceptors (TEAs, Blodau 2011). Due to a 65 smaller pool of more favorable electron acceptors and high availability of carbon substrates, 66 organic-rich soils such as peat rapidly establish methanogenic conditions when anoxic (Segers 67 1998, Keller and Bridgham 2007, Knorr and Blodau 2009). Despite their decisive role as producers 68 (i.e. methanogens) and consumers (i.e. methanotrophs) of CH4 (Conrad 1996), only a few studies 69 70 have combined a characterization of the CH4-cycling microbial community, site geochemistry, and observed patterns of CH₄ production. Existing studies have been conducted in oligotrophic and 71 mesotrophic boreal fens (e.g., Juottonen et al. 2005, Yrjälä et al. 2011, Juottonen et al. 2012), 72 73 alpine fens (e.g., Liebner et al. 2012, Urbanová et al. 2013, Cheema et al. 2015, Franchini et al. 74 2015), subarctic fens (Liebner et al. 2015), and incubation experiments (e.g., Jerman et al. 2009, Knorr and Blodau 2009, Urbanová et al. 2011, Emsens et al. 2016). Several studies on CH₄-cycling 75 microbial communities have been conducted in minerotrophic temperate fens (e.g., Cadillo-Quiroz 76 77 et al. 2008, Liu et al. 2011, Sun et al. 2012, Zhou et al. 2017), but these sites were not subject to drainage or rewetting. To our knowledge, only one study has directly compared in situ abundances 78 of methanogens and methanotrophs in drained versus rewetted fens (Juottonen et al. 2012). The 79 80 studied sites, however, were nutrient-poor fens with acidic conditions. While studies of nutrient-poor and mesotrophic boreal fens have documented post-rewetting CH₄ 81 emissions comparable to or lower than at pristine sites (Komulainen et al. 1998, Tuittila et al. 2000, 82

83 Juottonen et al 2012), studies of temperate nutrient-rich fens have reported post-flooding CH₄

84 emissions dramatically exceeding emissions in pristine fens (e.g., Augustin and Chojnicki 2008,

85 Hahn et al. 2015). These high emissions typically occur together with a significant dieback in

86 vegetation, a mobilization of nutrients and electron acceptors in the upper peat layer, and increased

87 availability of dissolved organic matter (Zak and Gelbrecht 2007, Hahn-Schöfl et al. 2011, Hahn





88 et al. 2015, Jurasinski et al. 2016). Vanselow-Algan et al. (2015) have shown that such high CH₄ 89 fluxes may continue for decades following rewetting even in bogs. Because of their potential to 90 remain significant CH₄ sources on decadal timescales, there is an urgent need to characterize CH₄-91 cycling microbial communities and geochemical conditions in rewetted minerotrophic fens. Therefore, in this study, we examined microbial community composition and abundance in 92 relation to post-flooding geochemical conditions in two rewetted fens in northeastern Germany. In 93 94 both fens, CH₄ emissions increased dramatically after rewetting (Augustin and Chojnicki 2008, Hahn-Schöfl et al. 2011, Hahn et al. 2015, Jurasinski et al. 2016). Average annual CH4 emissions 95 96 have decreased in both fens since the initial peak (Franz et al. 2016, Jurasinski et al. 2016). 97 Nevertheless, fluxes remained higher than under pre-flooding conditions (ibid.), and higher than in pristine fens (Urbanová et al. 2013, Minke et al 2016). 98 99 We expected patterns in microbial community composition would reflect the geochemical conditions of the two sites and hypothesized a high abundance of methanogens relative to 100

methanotrophs in both fens. We also expected acetoclastic methanogens, which typically thrive in nutrient-rich fens (Kelly et al. 1992, Galand 2005), to dominate the methanogenic community in

103 both fens.

104

105 2 Methods

106 2.1 Study sites

The nature reserve "Heiligensee and Hütelmoor" ('Hütelmoor' in the following, approx. 540 ha, 54°12'36.66" N, 12°10'34.28" E), is a coastal, mainly minerotrophic fen complex in Mecklenburg-Vorpommern (NE Germany) that is separated from the Baltic Sea by a narrow (~100 m and less) dune dike (Fig. 1a and b). The climate is temperate in the transition zone between maritime and continental with an average annual temperature of 9.1 °C and an average annual precipitation of 645 mm (data derived from grid product of the German Weather Service, reference climate period:





113 1981–2010). Episodic flooding from storm events delivers sediment and brackish water to the site (Weisner and Schernewski 2013). The vegetation is a mixture of salt-tolerant macrophytes, with 114 115 dominant to semi-dominant stands of Phragmites australis, Bolboschoenus maritimus, Carex 116 acutiformis, and Schoenoplectus tabernaemontani. The dominating plants are interspersed with open water bodies that are colonized by Ceratophyllum demersum in summer (Koch et al. 2017). 117 Intense draining and land amelioration practices began in the 1970s, which lowered the water level 118 119 to 1.6 m below ground surface and caused aerobic decomposition and concomitant degradation of 120 the peat (Voigtländer et al. 1996). The upper peat layer varies in depth between 0.6 and 3 m and 121 is highly degraded, reaching up to H10 on the von Post humification scale (Hahn et al. 2015). 122 Active draining ended in 1992, but dry conditions during summertime kept the water table well below ground surface (Schönfeld-Bockholt et al. 2005, Koebsch et al. 2013) until concerns of 123 124 prolonged aerobic peat decomposition prompted the installation of a weir in 2009 at the outflow 125 of the catchment (Weisner and Schernewski 2013). After installation of the weir, the site was fully flooded year-round with an average water level of 0.6 m, and annual average CH4 flux increased 126 ~186-fold from 0.0014 ± 0.0006 kg CH₄ m⁻² a⁻¹ to 0.26 ± 0.06 kg CH₄ m⁻² a⁻¹ (Hahn et al. 2015). 127 The study site polder Zarnekow ('Zarnekow' in the following, approx. 500 ha, 53°52'31.10" N, 128 129 12°53'19.60" E) is situated in the valley of the River Peene in Mecklenburg-Vorpommern (NE 130 Germany, Fig. 1a and c). The climate is slightly more continental compared to the Hütelmoor, with a mean annual precipitation of 544 mm and a mean annual temperature of 8.7 °C (German Weather 131 Service, meteorological station Teterow, 24 km southwest of the study site; reference period 1981– 132 2010). The fen can be classified as a river valley mire system consisting of spring mires, wider 133 percolation mires, and flood mires along the River Peene. Drainage and low-intensity agricultural 134 use began in the eighteenth century when land-use changed to pastures and grassland. This was 135 intensified by active pumping in the mid-1970s. Due to land subsidence of several decimeters, 136 137 after rewetting (October 2004) water table depth increased to 0.1-0.5 m above peat surface. The 138 upper horizon is highly decomposed (0-0.3 m), followed by moderately decomposed peat to a





- 139 depth of 1 m and a deep layer of slightly decomposed peat up to a maximum depth of 10 m. The
- 140 open water bodies are densely colonized by Ceratophyllum spp. and Typha latifolia is the dominant
- 141 emergent macrophyte (Steffenhagen et al. 2012). Following flooding, CH4 flux rates increased to
- 142 ~0.21 kg m⁻² a⁻¹ (Augustin and Chojnicki 2008). No pre-rewetting CH₄ flux data were available
- 143 for the Zarnekow site but published CH₄ flux rates of representative drained fens from the same
- 144 region have been shown to be negligible (Augustin et al. 1998).
- 145 2.2 Collection of peat cores and porewater samples
- Peat and porewater samples were collected at four different locations in Hütelmoor (October 2014) 146 147 and at five locations in Zarnekow (July 2015) and spanned a distance of 1,200 m and 250 m, respectively, to cover the whole lateral extension at each site (Fig. 1b and c). Peat cores were 148 collected with a Perspex liner (ID: 60 mm, Hütelmoor) and a peat auger (Zarnekow). In order to 149 150 minimize oxygen contamination, the outer layer of the peat core was omitted. Subsamples for 151 molecular analysis were immediately packed in 50 ml sterile Falcon tubes and stored at -80 °C 152 until further processing. 153 Pore waters in Hütelmoor were collected with a stainless-steel push-point sampler attached to a
- plastic syringe to recover the samples from 10 cm depth intervals. Samples were immediately filtered with 0.45 µm membrane disposable syringe filters. Pore waters in Zarnekow were sampled with permanently installed dialysis samplers consisting of slotted polypropylene (PP) pipes (length: 636 mm, ID: 34 mm) surrounded with 0.22 µm polyethersulfone membrane. The PP pipes were fixed at distinct peat depths (surface level, 20 and 40 cm depth) and connected with PP tubes (4x6 mm IDxAD). Water samples were drawn out from the dialysis sampler pipes with a syringe through the PP tube.
- 161 At both sites, electrical conductivity (EC), dissolved oxygen (DO) and pH were measured 162 immediately after sampling (Sentix 41 pH probe and a TetraCon 325 conductivity measuring cell 163 attached to a WTW multi 340i handheld; WTW, Weilheim). Headspace CH₄ concentrations of 164 porewater samples were measured with an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph (Agilent





165 Technologies, Germany) equipped with a flame ionization detector and a Carboxen PLOT Capillary Column or HP-Plot Q (Porapak-Q) column. The measured headspace CH₄ concentration 166 167 was then converted into a dissolved CH₄ concentration using the temperature-corrected solubility coefficient (Wilhelm et al. 1977). Isotopic composition of dissolved CH₄ for Hütelmoor was 168 analyzed using the gas chromatography-combustion-technique (GC-C) and the gas 169 170 chromatography-high-temperature-conversion-technique (GC-HTC). The gas was directly injected in a Gas Chromatograph Agilent 7890A, methane was quantitatively converted to CO₂ 171 and the δ^{13} C values were then measured with the isotope-ratio-mass-spectrometer MAT-253 172 173 (Thermo Finnigan, Germany). The δ^{13} C of dissolved methane in Zarnekow was analyzed using a 174 laser-based isotope analyzer equipped with a small sample isotope module for analyses of discrete gas samples (cavity ring down spectroscopy CRDS; Picarro G2201-I, Santa Clara, CA, USA). 175 176 Calibration was carried out before, during and after analyses using certified standards of known 177 isotopic composition (obtained from Isometric Instruments, Victoria, BC, Canada, and from Westfalen AG, Münster, Germany). Reproducibility of results was typically +/- 1 ‰. In the 178 presence of high concentrations of hydrogen sulfide interfering with laser-based isotope analysis, 179 180 samples were treated with iron(III) sulfate to oxidize and/or precipitate sulfide. For both sites, sulfate and nitrate concentrations were analyzed by ion chromatography (IC, Thermo Fisher 181 Scientific Dionex) using an Ion Pac AS-9-HC 4 column, partly after dilution of the sample. 182 183 Dissolved metal concentrations were analyzed by ICP-OES (iCAP 6300 DUO, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Accuracy and precision were routinely checked with a certified CASS standard as 184 previously described (Kowalski et al. 2012). 185 2.3 Gene amplification and phylogenetic analysis 186

187 Genomic DNA was extracted from 0.2–0.3 g of duplicates of peat soil per sample using an EurX

188 Soil DNA Kit (Roboklon, Berlin, Germany). DNA concentrations were quantified with a

189 Nanophotometer P360 (Implen GmbH, München, DE) and Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher

190 Scientific, Darmstadt, Germany). Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification of bacterial and





191 archaeal 16S rRNA genes was performed using the primer combination of S-D-Bact-0341-b-S-192 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-193 A-20 (Takai and Horikoshi 2000), respectively. The PCR mix contained 1x PCR buffer (Tris•Cl, 194 KCl, (NH₄)₂SO₄, 15 mM MgCl₂; pH 8.7) (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany), 0.5 µM of each primer 195 (Biomers, Ulm, Germany), 0.2 mM of each deoxynucleoside (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 196 Darmstadt, Germany) and 0.025 U µl⁻¹ hot start polymerase (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany). PCR samples were kept at 95 °C for 5 min to denature the DNA, with amplification proceeding for 40 197 cycles at 95 °C for 1 min, 56 °C for 45 s and 72 °C for 90 s; a final extension of 10 min at 72 °C 198 199 was added to ensure complete amplification. PCR products were purified with a Hi Yield Gel/PCR 200 DNA fragment extraction kit (Süd-Laborbedarf, Gauting, Germany). PCR products of three individual runs per sample were combined. PCR products of different samples were pooled in 201 202 equimolar concentrations and compressed to a final volume of 10 μ l with a concentration of 200 203 ng μ l⁻¹ in a vacuum centrifuge Concentrator Plus (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany).

204 Illumina sequencing was performed by GATC Biotech AG using 300 bp paired-end mode and a 205 20% PhiX Control v3 library to counteract the effects of low-diversity sequence libraries. Raw 206 data was demultiplexed using an own script based on CutAdapt (Martin 2011). Ambiguous 207 nucleotides at sequence ends were trimmed and a 10% mismatch was allowed for primer 208 identification, whereas barcode sequences needed to be present without any mismatches and with 209 a minimum Phred-Score of Q25 for each nucleotide. After sorting, overlapping paired-end reads were merged using PEAR [Q25, p 0.0001, v20] (Zhang et al. 2014). The orientation of the merged 210 211 sequences was standardized according to the barcode information obtained from demultiplexing. 212 Low-quality reads were removed using Trimmomatic [SE, LEADING Q25, TRAILING Q25, SLIDINGWINDOW 5:25; MINLEN 200] (Bolger et al. 2014). Chimeric sequences were removed 213 214 using USEARCH 6.1 and the QIIME-script identify_chimeric_seqs.py (Caporaso et al. 2010). Pre-215 processed sequences were taxonomically assigned to operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at a 216 nucleotide sequence identity of 97% using QIIME's pick open reference otus.py script and the





217 GreenGenes database 13.05 (McDonald et al. 2012) as reference. The taxonomic assignment of 218 representative sequences was further checked for correct taxonomical classification by 219 phylogenetic tree calculations in the ARB environment referenced against the SILVA database 220 (https://www.arb-silva.de) version 119 (Quast et al. 2013). The resulting OTU table was filtered 221 for singletons, OTUs assigned to chloroplasts or mitochondria, and for low-abundance OTUs 222 (below 0.2% within each sample). Archaeal and bacterial samples were processed separately while 223 only OTUs that were assigned to the respective domain were considered for further analysis. The 224 16S rRNA gene sequence data have been deposited at NCBI under the Bioproject PRJNA356778. 225 Hütelmoor sequence read archive accession numbers are SRR5118134-SRR5118155 for bacterial 226 and SRR5119428-SRR5119449 for archaeal sequences, respectively. Zarnekow accession numbers are SRR6854018-SRR6854033 and SRR6854205-SRR6854220 for bacterial and 227 228 archaeal sequences, respectively.

229 2.4 qPCR analysis

230 Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) for the determination of methanotrophic and 231 methanogenic functional gene copy numbers and overall bacterial 16S rRNA gene copy numbers 232 was performed via SybrGreen assays on a Bio-Rad CFX instrument (Bio-Rad, Munich, Germany) 233 with slight modifications after Liebner et al. (2015). The functional methanotrophic pmoA gene 234 was amplified with the primer combination A189F/Mb661 (Kolb et al. 2003) suitable for detecting all aerobic methanotrophic Proteobacteria. Annealing was done at 55 °C after a 7-cycle-step 235 touchdown starting at 62 °C. The functional methanogenic mcrA gene was amplified with the 236 237 mlas/mcrA-rev primer pair (Steinberg and Regan 2009) with annealing at 57 °C. The bacterial 16S 238 rRNA gene was quantified with the primers Eub341F/Eub534R according to Degelmann et al. 239 (2010) with annealing at 58 °C. Different DNA template concentrations were tested prior to the 240 qPCR runs to determine optimal template concentration without inhibitions through co-extracts. 241 The 25 µl reactions contained 12.5 µl of iTaq universal Sybr Green supermix (Bio-Rad, Munich, 242 Germany), 0.25 μ M concentrations of the primers, and 5 μ l of DNA template. Data acquisition





was always done at 80 °C to avoid quantification of primer dimers. The specificity of each run
was verified through melt-curve analysis and gel electrophoresis. Only runs with efficiencies

245 between 82 and 105% were used for further analysis. Measurements were performed in triplicates.

- 246 We determined the ratio of methanogens to methanotrophs based on gene abundances of mcrA and
- 247 pmoA. The marker gene for the soluble monooxygenase, mmoX, was neglected due to the absence
- 248 of Methylocella in the sequencing data (Fig. 3).
- 249 2.5 Data visualization and statistical analysis

250 All data visualization and statistical analysis were done in R (R Core Team). The taxonomic 251 relative abundances across samples were visualized through bubble plots with the R package 252 ggplot2 (Wickham 2009). Differences in microbial community composition were visualized with 2-dimensional non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) based on Bray-Curtis distances. The 253 254 NMDS ordinations were constructed using R package vegan (Oksanen et al. 2017). An 255 environmental fit was performed on the ordinations to determine the measured geochemical 256 parameters that may influence community composition. The geochemical data were fitted to the ordinations as vectors with a significance of p < 0.05. Depth profiles were constructed with the 257 258 porewater geochemical data, as well as with the microbial abundances, to elucidate depthwise 259 trends and assess whether differences in microbial community and abundances among the two fens 260 are related to differences in their respective geochemistry.

261

262 3 Results

263 3.1 Community composition of bacteria and archaea

Bacterial sequences could be affiliated into a total of 30 bacterial phyla (Fig. 2). Among them, Proteobacteria, Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria, Chloroflexi, Nitrospirae and Bacteroidetes were present in all samples. With mean relative abundance of 48%, Proteobacteria was the most abundant phylum. Some taxa (e.g., Verrucomicrobia, Atribacteria (OP9), and AD3) were present only in Hütelmoor. Variation in community composition was larger in Hütelmoor samples than in





269 Zarnekow. Within Proteobacteria, the alpha subdivision was the most dominant group, having 270 contributed 26.7% to all the libraries on average (Fig. 3). The family Hyphomicrobiaceae 271 dominated the Alphaproteobacteria, and was distributed evenly across samples, but missing in the 272 surface and bottom peat layers in Hütelmoor core (HC) 2. In addition, methanotrophs were clearly 273 in low abundance across all samples. Of the few methanotrophs that were detected, type II 274 methanotrophs (mainly Methylocystaceae) outcompeted type I methanotrophs (mainly 275 Methylococcaceae) in the community, while members of the genus Methylocella were absent (Fig. 276 3).

277 Within the archaeal community, Bathyarchaeota were mostly dominating over Euryarchaeota (Fig. 278 4). The MCG group (mainly the order of pGrfC26) in Bathyarchaeota prevailed across all samples 279 but was especially abundant in HC 2 samples. In addition to Bathyarchaeota, methanogenic 280 archaea were important, and on average contributed 30.6% to the whole archaeal community. 281 Among the methanogens, acetoclastic methanogens were more abundant in most of the samples 282 and Methanosaetaceae (24.8%) were the major component. They were present in most samples 283 and much more dominant than Methanosarcinaceae (2.0%). Hydrogenotrophic methanogens, such 284 as Methanomassiliicoccaceae (1.6%), Methanoregulaceae (1.2%) and Methanocellaceae (0.6%), 285 albeit low in abundance, were detected in many samples. Hütelmoor samples displayed greater 286 variability in archaeal community composition compared to Zarnekow samples. The putative 287 anaerobic methanotrophs of the ANME-2D (Raghoebarsing et al. 2006) clade occurred in patchy 288 abundance with dominance in single spots of both sites. In HC 1 they represented a mean relative 289 abundance of 40.9% of total archaeal reads but were almost absent in all other Hütelmoor cores. 290 In Zarnekow core (ZC) 3, ANME-2D represented up to approximately 30% of all archaea but were 291 otherwise low in abundance.

292 **3.2** Environmental characteristics and site geochemistry

- 293 The two rewetted fens varied substantially in their environmental characteristics (e.g., proximity
- to the sea) and porewater geochemistry (Fig. 5, Tables 1 and 2). Electrical conductivity was more





295 than three times higher in Hütelmoor than in Zarnekow, averaging 5.3 and 1.5 mS cm⁻¹, 296 respectively. Mean pH was approximately neutral (6.5 to 7) in the upper peat profile and 297 comparable in both fens until a depth of about 30 cm where pH was ~6 in the Hütelmoor. 298 Concentrations of the TEAs nitrate and sulfate were lower in Zarnekow and near zero in the pore 299 water at all depths, while nitrate and sulfate were abundant in the upper and lower peat profile in 300 Hütelmoor at ~1.5 to 3.0 mM and ~4 to 20 mM, respectively (Fig. 5). Iron concentrations were 301 higher in the Hütelmoor pore water, while manganese concentrations were higher in Zarnekow 302 pore water. Dissolved oxygen concentrations in the upper peat profile (i.e. 0 to 25 cm depths) were 303 much higher in Hütelmoor than in Zarnekow (Fig. 5). Here DO concentrations averaged ~0.250 304 mM until a depth of 15 cm at which they dropped sharply, reaching concentrations slightly below 305 0.050 mM at 25 cm. In Zarnekow, DO concentrations did not exceed 0.1 mM and varied little with 306 depth. Regarding geochemical conditions, HC 1 was distinct from all other Hütelmoor cores and 307 more similar to Zarnekow cores. In HC 1 - the core taken nearest to potential freshwater sources 308 (Fig. 1b) – pore water EC and DO concentrations were lower while pH was slightly higher than all other Hütelmoor cores. Moreover, this was the only Hütelmoor core where nitrate 309 310 concentrations were undetectable (Fig. 5). Dissolved CH₄ concentrations were high, varied within 311 and among fens and were slightly higher in Zarnekow pore water. Stable isotope ratios of ∂^{13} C-312 CH₄ (Fig. 5) in the upper peat (approx. -59‰) suggest a predominance of acetoclastic 313 methanogenesis, with a shift to hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis around -65% in the lower peat profile. Also, shifts toward less negative ∂^{13} C-CH₄ values in the upper peat layer, as in HC 1 and 314 HC 2, could indicate partial oxidation of CH₄ occurred (Chasar et al. 2000). 315 3.3 Environmental drivers of microbial community composition 316

317 Bacterial and archaeal population at both peatland sites showed distinct clustering (Fig. 6) with 318 similarly high intra- and inter-site variations but greater overall variation in community 319 composition in the Hütelmoor. Community composition varied much more strongly in HC 2 than 320 in any other core (grey dashed-line polygon in Fig. 6). Bacterial communities in HC 1 were more





321 similar to communities in all Zarnekow cores than in other Hütelmoor cores (Fig. 6a). The archaeal 322 community in HC 1 was more similar to Zarnekow cores as well (Fig. 6b). Overall, the influence 323 of depth on microbial community was evident, especially in the Hütelmoor where the differences 324 were more pronounced. Environmental fit vectors suggest pH, oxygen and alternative TEA availability as important factors influencing microbial community composition. The EC vector 325 326 suggests the importance of brackish conditions in shaping microbial communities in the Hütelmoor 327 (Fig. 6a - c). 328 3.4 Total microbial and functional gene abundances

329 Quantitative PCR results show that in both fens, mcrA abundance is up to two orders of magnitude 330 greater than pmoA abundance (Fig. 7, Tables 1 and 2). Gene copy numbers of mcrA are overall higher and spatially more stable in Zarnekow than in Hütelmoor. Total microbial abundance 331 332 declined with depth more strongly in Hütelmoor than in Zarnekow (Fig. 7). There was a 333 pronounced decrease in microbial abundances at 20 cm depth in the Hütelmoor. For example, 16S 334 rRNA gene and *pmoA* gene copy numbers in deeper samples (below 20 cm depth) are one order of magnitude lower than in upper samples on average, while the mcrA gene abundance are 335 336 approximately two orders of magnitude lower. Hütelmoor samples also exhibited larger 337 heterogeneity in terms of abundances than Zarnekow samples.

338

339 4 Discussion

340 4.1 Fen geochemistry and relations to microbial community composition

The rewetting of drained fens promotes elevated CH₄ production and emission, which can potentially offset carbon sink benefits. Very few studies have attempted to link microbial community dynamics and site geochemistry with observed patterns in CH₄ production and/or emission in rewetted fens while such data are crucial for predicting long-term changes to CH₄ cycling (Galand et al. 2002, Yrjälä et al. 2011, Juottonen et al. 2012). In this study, we show that CH₄-cycling microbial community composition is related to patterns in site geochemistry in two





347 rewetted fens with high CH₄ emissions, high methanogen abundances, and low methanotroph 348 abundances. Our results suggest that high methanogen abundances concurrent with low 349 methanotroph abundances contribute to increased CH₄ production and the resulting high emissions 350 in rewetted peatlands with readily available substrate. Thus, we present microbial evidence for 351 sustained elevated CH₄ emissions in mostly inundated rewetted temperate fens.

352 The environmental conditions and associated geochemistry of the two rewetted fens were largely 353 different. Depth profiles of porewater geochemical parameters show the fens differed in EC 354 throughout the entire peat profile, while pH and concentrations of alternative TEAs differed at 355 certain depths. In general, concentrations of TEAs oxygen, sulfate, nitrate, and iron were higher 356 in the Hütelmoor. In Zarnekow, geochemical conditions varied little across the fen and along the peat depth profiles (Fig. 5). As expected, the geochemical heterogeneity was reflected in microbial 357 358 community structure in both sites, suggesting the importance of environmental characteristics and 359 associated geochemical conditions as drivers of microbial community composition (Figs. 2, 3, 4, 360 6). The NMDS ordinations (Fig. 6) show significant variation in archaeal and bacterial community composition in the coastal brackish fen, and much less variation in the freshwater riparian fen. 361 362 Environmental fit vectors (Fig. 6) suggest that salinity (indicated by the EC vector), pH, oxygen 363 and alternative TEA availability are the most important measured factors influencing microbial 364 communities in the two fens. Patterns in microbial community composition have previously been linked to salinity (e.g., Chambers et al. 2016), pH (e.g., Yrjälä et al. 2011), and TEA availability 365 in peatlands (e.g., He et al. 2015). 366

Comparing the geochemical depth profiles (Fig. 5) with the relative abundance of bacteria and archaea (Figs. 3 and 4) provides a more complete picture of the relationships between microbial communities and site geochemistry, particularly with respect to TEA utilization. While the porewater depth profiles suggest there is little nitrate available for microbial use in HC 1, the relative abundance plot for Archaea showed that this core was dominated by ANME-2D. ANME-2D were recently discovered to be anaerobic methanotrophs that oxidize CH₄ performing reverse





373 methanogenesis using nitrate as an electron acceptor (Haroon et al. 2013). However, ANME-2D 374 has also been implicated in the iron-mediated anaerobic oxidation of methane (Ettwig et al. 2016), 375 and the HC 1 site showed slightly higher total iron concentrations. The relevance of ANME-2D as CH4 oxidizers in terrestrial habitats is still not clear. Rewetting converts the fens into widely 376 anaerobic conditions, thus providing conditions suitable for the establishment of anaerobic 377 378 oxidation of methane, but this has yet to be demonstrated in fens. The patchy occurrence and 379 locally high abundance of ANME-2D both in Hütelmoor and in Zarnekow suggests an ecological relevance of this group. Shifts toward a less negative δ^{13} C-CH₄ signature in the upper peat profile, 380 381 especially in HC 1 where ANME-2D was abundant, may indicate partial oxidation occurred, but 382 we could only speculate whether or not they are actively involved in CH₄ oxidation.

383 Although TEA input may be higher in the Hütelmoor, here, methanogenic conditions also 384 predominate. This finding contrasts the measured oxygen concentrations in the upper peat profile, 385 however seasonal analysis of oxygen concentrations in both sites suggests highly fluctuating 386 oxygen regimes both spatially and temporary (data not shown). Such non-uniform distribution of 387 redox processes has already been described elsewhere, in particular for methanogenesis (Hoehler 388 et al. 2001, Knorr et al. 2009). It is possible that oxygen levels in both fens are highly dynamic 389 allowing for both aerobic and anaerobic carbon turnover processes. Further, oxygen may not 390 necessarily be available within aggregates in which anaerobic pathways predominate. Anaerobic 391 conditions are also reflected by the extensive and stable occurrence of the strictly anaerobic 392 syntrophs (e.g., Syntrophobacteraceae, Syntrophaceae) in most samples, even in the top 393 centimeters. This suggests that syntrophic degradation of organic material is taking place in the 394 uppermost layer and the fermented substances are easily available for methanogens. Recent studies 395 from wetlands also show that methanogenesis can occur in aerobic layers, driven mainly by 396 Methanosaeta (Narrowe et al. 2017, Wagner 2017), which were detected in a high abundance in 397 this study (Fig. 4). As geochemistry and microbial community composition differ among the sites 398 in this study, it is thus notable that a similarly high abundance of methanogens, and low abundance





399 of methanotrophs was detected in both fens. The dominance of methanogens implies that readily

- 400 available substrates and favorable geochemical conditions promote high anaerobic carbon turnover
- 401 despite seasonally fluctuating oxygen concentrations in the upper peat layer.

402 4.2 Microbial evidence for high CH₄ emissions

Methanogens (mainly Methanosaetaceae) dominated nearly all of the various niches detected in 403 404 this study, while methanotrophs were highly under-represented in both sites (Figs. 3 and 4). 405 Functional and ribosomal gene copy numbers not only show a high ratio of methanogen to 406 methanotroph abundance (Fig. 7) irrespective of site and time of sampling, but also a small 407 contribution of methanotrophs to total bacterial population in both sites. Methanotrophs constitute 408 only ~0.06% of the total bacterial population in the Hütelmoor and ~0.05% at Zarnekow. It should be noted that in this study we measured only gene abundances and not transcript abundances, so 409 410 that the pool both of active methanogens and methanotrophs was likely smaller than the numbers 411 presented here (Freitag and Prosser 2009, Freitag et al. 2010, Cheema et al. 2015, Franchini et al. 412 2015). Also, as we were unable to obtain microbial samples from before rewetting, a direct comparison of microbial abundances was not possible. Compared to pristine fens, however, we 413 414 detected a relatively low abundance of methanotrophs. Liebner et al. (2015), for example, found 415 methanotrophs represented 0.5% of the total bacterial community in a pristine, subarctic 416 transitional bog/fen palsa, while mcrA and pmoA abundances were nearly identical. In a pristine 417 Swiss alpine fen, Liebner et al. (2012) found methanotrophs generally outnumbered methanogens by an order of magnitude. Cheema et al. (2015) and Franchini et al. (2015) reported mcrA 418 419 abundances higher than pmoA abundances by only one order of magnitude in a separate Swiss 420 alpine fen. In the rewetted fens in our study, mcrA gene abundance was up to two orders of magnitude higher than *pmoA* abundance (Fig. 7). As most methanotrophs live along the oxic-421 422 anoxic boundary of the peat surface and plant roots therein (Le Mer and Roger 2001), the low 423 methanotroph abundances in both fens could be explained by disturbances to this boundary zone 424 and associated geochemical pathways following inundation. In rewetted fens, a massive plant





dieback has been observed along with strong changes in surface peat geochemistry (Hahn-Schöfl
et al. 2011, Hahn et al. 2015). The anoxic conditions at the peat surface caused by inundation may
have disturbed existing methanotrophic niches, and further, hindered the establishment of new
ones, as oxygen availability is the most important factor governing the activity of most
methanotrophs (Le Mer and Roger 2001, Hernandez et al. 2015).
Comparable studies have so far been conducted in nutrient-poor or mesotrophic fens where post-

431 rewetting CH₄ emissions, though higher than pre-rewetting, did not exceed those of similar pristine

432 sites (e.g., Yrjälä et al. 2011, Juottonen et al. 2005, Juottonen et al. 2012). Nevertheless, there is

433 mounting evidence linking CH₄-cycling microbe abundances to CH₄ dynamics in rewetted fens.

434 Juottonen et al. (2012), for example, compared *pmoA* gene abundances in three natural and three

435 rewetted fens and found them to be lower in rewetted sites. The same study also measured a lower

436 abundance of mcrA genes in rewetted sites, which was attributed to a lack of available labile carbon

- 437 compounds. In peatlands, and especially fens, litter and root exudates from vascular plants can
- 438 stimulate CH₄ emissions (Megonigal et al. 2005, Bridgham et al. 2013, Agethen and Knorr 2018),

439 and excess labile substrate has been proposed as one reason for dramatic increases in CH_4

440 emissions in rewetted fens (Hahn-Schöfl et al. 2011). Future studies should compare pre- and post-

441 rewetting microbial abundances along with changes in CH₄ emissions, plant communities, and 442 peat geochemistry to better assess the effect rewetting has on the CH₄-cycling microbial 443 community.

444

445 **5** Conclusion

Despite a recent increase in the number of rewetting projects in Northern Europe, few studies have characterized CH₄-cycling microbes in restored peatlands, especially fens. In this study, we show that rewetted fens differing in geochemical conditions and microbial community composition have a similarly low abundance of methanotrophs, a high abundance of methanogens, and an established

450 anaerobic carbon cycling microbial community. Comparing these data to pristine wetlands with





451 lower CH₄ emission rates, we found that pristine wetlands generally have a higher abundance of 452 methanotrophs than measured in the fens in this study, suggesting the inundation and associated 453 anoxia caused by flooding disturbs methanotrophic niches and may negatively affect the ability of 454 methanotrophic communities to establish. The abundances of methane producers and consumers are thus suggested as important drivers for continued elevated CH₄ emissions following the 455 rewetting of drained fens. Our results suggest that in the context of CH₄ cycling, rewetting drained 456 457 peatlands by flooding may be problematic if post-rewetting conditions hinder methanotroph 458 establishment. Management decisions regarding rewetting processes should consider that 459 disturbances to methanotrophic niches is possible if rewetting leads to long-term inundation of the 460 peat surface.

461

462 Competing interests

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

464

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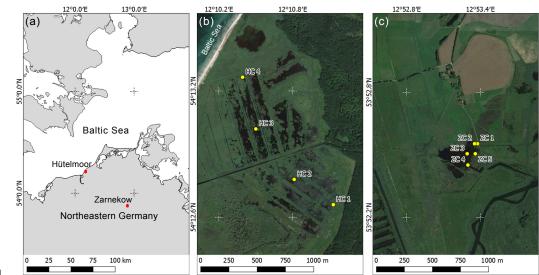
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- Figure 1: Location of study sites in northeastern Germany (a) and sampling locations within sites (b) Hütelmoor and (c) Zarnekow.
- 842 843 844 Maps b) and c) are drawn to the same scale. Image source: (a) QGIS, (b) and (c) Google Earth via QGIS OpenLayer Plugin. Imagery
- date: August 9, 2015.





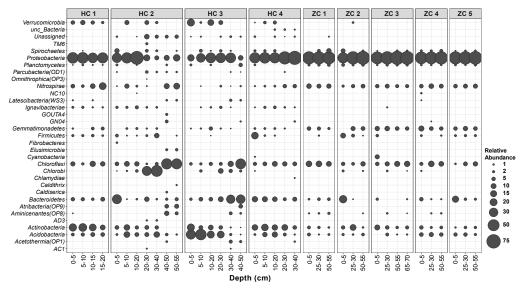


Figure 2: Relative abundances of different bacterial lineages in the study sites. Along the horizontal axis samples are arranged according to site and depth. The rank order along the vertical axis is shown for the phylum level.





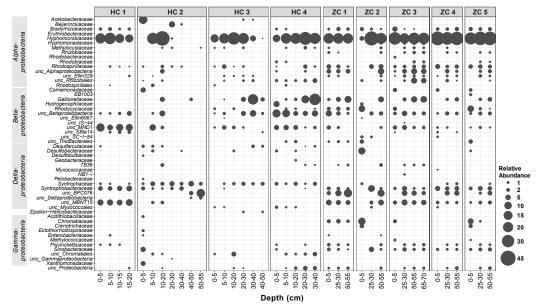
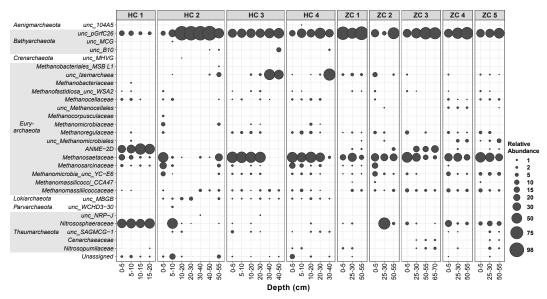


Figure 3: Relative abundances of Proteobacteria phyla in the study sites. Along the horizontal axis samples are arranged according to site and depth. The rank order along the vertical axis is shown for the family level. If an assignment to the family level was not possible the next higher assignable taxonomic level was used.





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855 856 Figure 4: 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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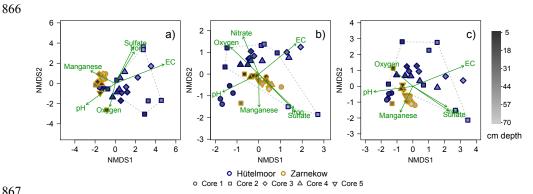
0 ∞ ¢ • ۵ ۵ ¢Δ D 10 Depth [cm] 30 40 50 0.20 2.0 3.0 0 3 5 0.00 0.05 0.10 0.15 0.00 0.10 0.30 0.0 1.0 2 4 10 15 1 Ó 5 Nitrate [mM] Oxygen [mM] Iron [mM] Manganese [mM] Sulfate [mM] 0. Hütelmoor 0 00 00 ∞ . . Zarnekow o∕∆ ◊ 0 оп 10 0 0 ٥ 0 。 ۸ 0 0 Core 1 Depth [cm] Core 2 0 Δo 0 ∇ Δ ♦ Core 3 △ Core 4
 ▽ Core 5 0 0 40 0 50 · 70 Δ V 0.5 6.0 7.0 6.5 2 4 6 8 10 0.1 0.3 -65 -60 -55 EC [mS/cm] Diss. Methane [mM] ∂13C Methane pН

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Figure 5: Depth profiles of porewater geochemistry (see x-axis labels for considered variables) in both study sites. Lines connect the respective means.







867 868 869 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 809 870 871 872 873 873 874 875 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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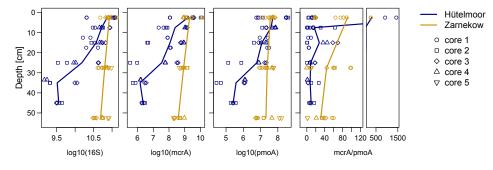




Figure 7: Depth distribution of qPCR abundances for total microbial (16S), methanogen (*mcrA*), methanotroph (*pmoA*), and ratio
 of *mcrA* to *pmoA* gene copy numbers in both sites. Microbial abundances were designated as numbers of gene copies per gram of
 dry peat soil and are shown against sampling 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.





884 885 886 887 888 889 890 Table 1: Environmental conditions, geochemical conditions, and microbial abundances in peat cores from the Hütelmoor, a coastal minerotrophic fen in northeastern Germany. Environmental conditions are described by pH and EC (electrical conductivity). Geochemical parameters shown are dissolved methane (CH₄) concentrations, the isotopic signature of methane-bound carbon (∂^{13} C–CH₄), and concentrations of terminal electron acceptors which are denoted with their respective chemical abbreviations. Microbial abundances here represent the mean value of averaged subsamples for each depth section (n=2). nd = not detected.

Core, depth	pН	EC	∂ ¹³ C– CH4	Dissolved CH ₄	O ₂	NO ₃ -	Fe	Mn	SO4 ²⁻	168	mcrA	pmoA	mcrA/pmoA	
cm	mS cm ⁻¹ mM					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	2.04x1010	1.15×10^{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	$2.11 x 10^{10}$	8.12×10^{07}	1.76×10^{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	4.50×10^{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	1.10×10^{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	8.72×10^{10}	1.40×10^{09}	3.42×10^{07}	46.6	
10-20	6.4	3.77	-57.3	0.49	0.24	3.08	0.05	nd	nd	6.08x1010	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	4.26x1010	3.48×10^{08}	1.92×10^{07}	18.2	
30-40	6.5	8.56	-59.4	0.08	0.03	nd	0.16	nd	nd	$1.05 x 10^{10}$	3.20x10 ⁰⁶	$1.17 x 10^{06}$	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	2.58×10^{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	$1.17 x 10^{11}$	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	$4.87 x 10^{10}$	$1.09 x 10^{09}$	7.51×10^{07}	14.5	
10-20	6.6	5.20	-60.5	0.05	0.30	3.05	0.14	nd	nd	4.85x1010	8.71×10^{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	





Table 2: Environmental conditions, geochemical conditions, and microbial abundances in peat cores from Zarnekow, a freshwater minerotrophic fen

891 892 893 894 895 895 896 897 In northeastern Germany. Environmental conditions are described by pH and EC (electrical conductivity). Geochemical parameters shown are dissolved methane (CH₄) concentrations, the isotopic signature of methane-bound carbon (∂^{13} C–CH₄), and concentrations of terminal electron acceptors which are denoted with their respective chemical abbreviations. Microbial abundances here represent the mean value of averaged subsamples for each depth section (n=2). nd = not detected.

Core, depth	рН	EC	∂ ¹³ C– CH4	Dissolved CH ₄	O ₂	NO ₃ -	Fe	Mn	SO4 ²⁻	168	mcrA	pmoA	mcrA/pmoA	
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	6.33x1010	1.02×10^{09}	1.49×10^{07}	69.7	
25-30	6.67	1.14	-62.0	0.64	0.08	0.001	0.087	0.028	0.003	4.25x1010	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	$3.40 x 10^{10}$	$3.97 x 10^{08}$	6.85×10^{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	1.43x1011	$1.14 x 10^{10}$	4.35×10^{07}	261	
25-30	6.76	1.29	-51.3	0.15	0.10	0.001	0.215	0.033	0.013	$6.44 x 10^{10}$	1.45×10^{09}	$2.34 x 10^{07}$	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	1.50×10^{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	3.26×10^{07}	85.7	
25-30	7.04	3.39	-61.9	0.10	0.03	0.002	1.046	0.188	0.003	5.79x1010	7.81x10 ⁰⁸	1.55×10^{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	7.19x1010	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	4.60×10^{07}	-	
50-55	6.89	1.51	-67.6	0.17	0.11	0.002	0.366	0.048	0.002	5.42x1010	9.47x10 ⁰⁸	4.50×10^{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	$8.73 x 10^{10}$	8.73x10 ⁰⁸	4.97×10^{07}	17.6	
25-30	6.72	0.86	-63.5	0.53	0.06	0.002	0.139	0.043	0.001	8.94x1010	5.21x10 ⁰⁸	5.57×10^{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	