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2 **Fractionation of stable carbon isotopes during acetate consumption by**  
3 **methanogenic and sulfidogenic microbial communities in rice paddy soils**  
4 **and lake sediments**

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16 **Running head:** Isotope fractionation by anaerobic acetate consumption

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18



19 **Abstract.** Acetate is an important intermediate during the degradation of organic matter in  
20 anoxic flooded soils and sediments. Acetate is disproportionated to CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> by  
21 methanogenic or is oxidized to CO<sub>2</sub> by sulfate-reducing microorganisms. These reactions  
22 result in carbon isotope fractionation, depending on the microbial species and their particular  
23 carbon metabolism. To learn more about the magnitude of the isotopic enrichment factors ( $\epsilon$ )  
24 involved, acetate conversion to CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> was measured in anoxic paddy soils from  
25 Vercelli (Italy) and the International Rice Research Institute (IRRI, the Philippines) and in  
26 anoxic lake sediments from the north east (NE) and the south west (SW) basins of Fuchskuhle  
27 (Germany). Acetate consumption was measured using samples of paddy soil or lake sediment  
28 suspended in water or in phosphate buffer (pH 7.0), both in the absence and presence of  
29 sulfate (gypsum), and of methyl fluoride (CH<sub>3</sub>F), an inhibitor of acetoclastic methanogenesis.  
30 Under methanogenic conditions, values of  $\epsilon_{ac}$  for acetate consumption were always in a range  
31 of -21‰ to -17‰, but higher in the lake sediment from the SW basin (-11‰). Under  
32 sulfidogenic conditions  $\epsilon_{ac}$  values tended to be slightly lower (-26‰ to -19‰) especially  
33 when acetoclastic methanogenesis was inhibited. Again,  $\epsilon_{ac}$  in the lake sediment of the SW  
34 basin was higher (-18‰ to -14‰). Determination of  $\epsilon_{CH_4}$  from the accumulation of <sup>13</sup>C in  
35 CH<sub>4</sub> resulted in much lower values (-37‰ to -27‰) than from the depletion of <sup>13</sup>C in acetate  
36 (-21‰ to -17‰), especially when acetate degradation was measured in buffer suspensions.  
37 The microbial communities were characterized by sequencing the bacterial 16S rRNA genes  
38 as well as the methanogenic *mcrA* and sulfidogenic *dsrB* genes. The microbial communities  
39 were quite different between lake sediments and paddy soils, but were similar in the  
40 sediments of the two lake basins and in the soils from Vercelli and IRR, and were similar after  
41 preincubation without and with addition of sulfate (gypsum). The different microbial  
42 compositions could hardly serve for the prediction of the magnitude of enrichment factors.



## 43 1 Introduction

44 Organic matter degradation under anaerobic conditions results in the production of CO<sub>2</sub>,  
45 when electron acceptors such sulfate (sulfidogenic conditions) are available, and in the  
46 production of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>, when they are absent (methanogenic conditions). Carbon dioxide  
47 is not only end product, but can also serve as an intermediate. It can for example be converted  
48 by chemolithotrophic microorganisms to CH<sub>4</sub> or to acetate. These conversion reactions of  
49 CO<sub>2</sub> have an isotope effect and result in products that are strongly depleted in <sup>13</sup>C, expressing  
50 isotope enrichment factors (ε) being on the order of -70 to -50‰ (Blaser and Conrad, 2016).  
51 However, the conversion of acetate to CO<sub>2</sub> by sulfidogenic reactions or to CH<sub>4</sub> plus CO<sub>2</sub> by  
52 methanogenic reactions can also have quite substantial enrichment factors, often being on the  
53 order of about -20‰ (Goevert and Conrad, 2009; Goevert and Conrad, 2010).

54 Knowledge of enrichment factors is important for the quantification of the pathways  
55 involved in anaerobic degradation of organic matter. For example, the relative contribution of  
56 hydrogenotrophic and acetoclastic methanogenesis to total CH<sub>4</sub> production can be determined  
57 in situ from analytical values of <sup>13</sup>C in organic matter, CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>, if the enrichment factors  
58 (ε) are known for the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub> (hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis) and the  
59 cleavage of acetate to CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> (acetoclastic methanogenesis)(Conrad, 2005). While ε of  
60 the former reaction can be experimentally determined by incubation in the presence of CH<sub>3</sub>F  
61 (Chan et al., 2005; Conrad et al., 2007; Holmes et al., 2014; Penning et al., 2006b), that of the  
62 latter reaction is not so easy to determine. So far reference values are mainly available from  
63 relatively few experiments with pure microbial cultures. This is true for both acetoclastic  
64 methanogenic archaea (Gelwicks et al., 1994; Goevert and Conrad, 2009; Krzycki et al.,  
65 1987; Penning et al., 2006a; Valentine et al., 2004; Zyakun et al., 1988) and acetate-oxidizing  
66 sulfidogenic bacteria (Goevert and Conrad, 2008; Goevert and Conrad, 2010; Londry and  
67 DesMarais, 2003).

68 There are hardly studies of environmental samples, in which ε values of acetate  
69 consumption were determined together with the composition of the methanogenic and  
70 sulfidogenic microbial communities (Blair and Carter Jr., 1992; Chidthaisong et al., 2002;  
71 Conrad et al., 2009; Goevert and Conrad, 2009; Penning et al., 2006a). In order to constrain



72 the magnitude of such  $\epsilon$  values, we decided to investigate the stable carbon isotope  
73 fractionation during consumption of acetate in methanogenic and sulfidogenic rice paddy soils  
74 and anaerobic lake sediments.

75

## 76 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 77 *2.1 Environmental samples*

78 The soil samples were from the research stations in Vercelli, Italy and the International  
79 Rice research Institute (IRRI) in the Philippines. Sampling and soil characteristics were  
80 described before (Liu et al., 2018b). The lake sediments (top 10 cm layer) were from the NE  
81 and SW basins of Lake Fuchskuhle (Casper et al., 2003). They were sampled in July 20016  
82 using a gravity core sampler as described before (Kanaparthi et al., 2013).

83

### 84 *2.2 Paddy soils*

85 Two different experimental setups were used using soil suspensions in water (unbuffered  
86 suspensions) or in 20 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0)(buffered suspensions). For the  
87 unbuffered suspensions, paddy soil was mixed with autoclaved anoxic H<sub>2</sub>O at a ratio of 1:1  
88 and incubated under N<sub>2</sub> at 25°C for 4 weeks. Then, 5 ml preincubated soil slurry was  
89 incubated at 25°C with 45 ml 5.6 mM sodium acetate in a 150-ml bottle under an atmosphere  
90 of N<sub>2</sub>. The bottles were (i) unamended; (ii) amended with 4.5 ml CH<sub>3</sub>F; (iii) amended with  
91 200  $\mu$ l of a gypsum (CaSO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O) suspension (corresponding to a concentration of 2.5 M  
92 sulfate) giving a final concentration of 10 mM sulfate. The experiment was performed in 4  
93 replicates.

94 For the buffered suspensions, paddy soil was mixed with autoclaved anoxic H<sub>2</sub>O at a ratio  
95 of 1:1 and incubated under N<sub>2</sub> at 25°C for 4 weeks. In a second incubation, paddy soil was  
96 mixed with autoclaved anoxic H<sub>2</sub>O at a ratio of 1:1, was amended with 0.07 g CaSO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O,  
97 and then incubated under N<sub>2</sub> at 25°C for 4 weeks. These two preincubated soil slurries were  
98 sampled and stored at -20°C for later molecular analysis. The preincubated soil slurries were  
99 also used (in 3 replicates) for the following incubation experiments. Three different sets of  
100 incubations were prepared. In the first set (resulting in methanogenic conditions), 5 ml soil



101 slurry preincubated without sulfate was incubated at 25°C with 40 ml 20 mM potassium  
102 phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) in a 150-ml bottle under an atmosphere of N<sub>2</sub>. The bottles were the  
103 amended with (i) 5 ml H<sub>2</sub>O; (ii) 5 ml H<sub>2</sub>O + 4.5 ml CH<sub>3</sub>F; (iii) 5 ml 50 mM sodium acetate;  
104 (iv) 5 ml 50 mM sodium acetate + 4.5 ml CH<sub>3</sub>F. In the second set (resulting in mainly  
105 methanogenic conditions), again 5 ml soil slurry preincubated without sulfate was incubated  
106 at 25°C with 40 ml 20 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) in a 150-ml bottle under an  
107 atmosphere of N<sub>2</sub>. The amendments were the same as above, but with the addition of 200 µl  
108 of a CaSO<sub>4</sub> suspension giving a final concentration of 10 mM sulfate. In the third set  
109 (resulting in sulfidogenic conditions), 5 ml soil slurry preincubated with sulfate was incubated  
110 at 25°C with 40 ml 20 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) in a 150-ml bottle under an  
111 atmosphere of N<sub>2</sub>. The amendments were the same as above, but with the addition of 200 µl of  
112 a CaSO<sub>4</sub> suspension corresponding to a concentration of 2.5 M (giving a final concentration  
113 of 10 mM sulfate).

114

### 115 2.3 Lake sediments

116 For methanogenic conditions, 5 ml lake sediment was incubated in 3 replicates at 10°C  
117 with 45 ml 20 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) in a 150-ml bottle under an  
118 atmosphere of N<sub>2</sub>. The bottles were the amended with (i) 5 ml H<sub>2</sub>O; (ii) 5 ml H<sub>2</sub>O + 4.5 ml  
119 CH<sub>3</sub>F; (iii) 5 ml 50 mM sodium acetate; (iv) 5 ml 50 mM sodium acetate + 4.5 ml CH<sub>3</sub>. Part  
120 of the lake sediment was preincubated with sulfate by adding 0.1 g CaSO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (gypsum) to  
121 50 ml sediment and incubating at 10°C for 4 weeks. For sulfidogenic conditions 5 ml of the  
122 preincubated sediment was incubated at 10°C with 40 ml 20 mM potassium phosphate buffer  
123 (pH 7.0) in a 150-ml bottle under an atmosphere of N<sub>2</sub>. The bottles were amended as above,  
124 but in addition also with 200 µl of a CaSO<sub>4</sub> suspension giving a final concentration of 10 mM  
125 sulfate. Samples for later molecular analysis were taken from the original lake sediment and  
126 from the lake sediment preincubated with sulfate. The samples were stored at -20°C.

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128



129 *2.4 Extraction of DNA and amplicon sequencing*

130 The lake sediments or paddy soils in phosphate buffer were collected by centrifugation  
131 ( $11000 \times g$ ,  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$ , 5 min). Genomic DNA were extracted with NucleoSpin Soil Kit (Macherey-  
132 Nagel, Düren, Germany) by following the user's manufacture. DNA were checked by gel  
133 electrophoresis (1% agarose in TEA buffer, stained with GelRed) and quantified by Qubit 2.0.  
134 The amplification of 16S rRNA, *mcrA* and *dsrB* gene were done as described previously (Liu  
135 and Conrad, 2017). In brief, First step PCR, for 16S rRNA, h515-Y / h926R primers were  
136 used with the following PCR protocol:  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 3 min; 15 cycles with  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 30 s,  $52^{\circ}\text{C}$  for  
137 30 s and  $68^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 60 s;  $68^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 10 min and hold at  $8^{\circ}\text{C}$ . For *mcrA*, hmlas-mod-F / hmcra-  
138 rev-R primers were used with the following PCR protocol:  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 4 min; 15-18 cycles with  
139  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 30 s, 60 by  $1^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $55^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 30 s and  $68^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 60 s;  $68^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 10 min and hold at  
140  $8^{\circ}\text{C}$ . For *dsrB* hDSR1762Fmix / hDSR2010Rmix primers were used with the following PCR  
141 protocol:  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 3 min; 25 cycles with  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 30 s,  $60^{\circ}\text{C}$  by  $1^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $50^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 30 s and  
142  $68^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 60 s;  $68^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 10 min and hold at  $8^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

143 In the second step PCR, barcode-head primers were used for the PCR products of 16S  
144 rRNA, *mcrA* and *dsrB* obtained from the first step with the following PCR protocol:  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  for  
145 3 min; 10-20 cycles with  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 30 s,  $52^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 30 s and  $68^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 60 s;  $68^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 10 min and  
146 hold at  $8^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

147 PCR amplicons were purified by AMP xx for both the first and second step PCR. After  
148 quantification, the individual barcoded amplicons of 16S rRNA gene and *dsrB* were mixed in  
149 equimolar concentrations, with 16S rRNA gene amplicons added in double amounts. Library  
150 was sequenced on an ILLUMINA HISEQ 2000 system using  $2 \times 250$  cycle combination mode  
151 by Max Planck-Genome-Centre (Cologne, Germany). For *mcrA*, individual barcoded  
152 amplicons were mixed in equimolar concentrations and library was sequenced on an  
153 ILLUMINA MISEQ system using  $2 \times 300$  cycle combination mode by Max Planck-Genome-  
154 Centre (Cologne, Germany).

155



156 *2.5 Amplicon sequence data processing*

157 Amplicon Sequence data were analyzed according to pipeline as described previously (Liu  
158 and Conrad, 2017). In brief, paired-end reads were first merged by USEARCH and 16S rRNA  
159 gene and *dsrB* datasets were separated by primer sequences using CUTADAPT and  
160 demultiplexed using QIIME1. Datasets of *mcrA* were demultiplexed using QIIME1 directly.  
161 All reads were subjected to quality control, *de novo* chimera filtering, singleton filtering and  
162 OTU clustering according to the UPARSE pipeline. Species level OTUs for 16S rRNA gene  
163 were obtained at 97% sequence identity. Approximate species-level *dsrB* and *mcrA* OTUs  
164 were obtained with the gene-specific OTU threshold 0.90 (Pelikan et al., 2016) and 0.84  
165 (Yang et al., 2014). Taxonomic identities of the OTUs of 16S rRNA gene were assigned with  
166 the Ribosomal Database Project Classifier against the SILVA 123 SSU Ref database (Pruesse  
167 et al., 2007). Nucleotide sequences of *dsrB* and *mcrA* were initially translated into amino acid  
168 sequences using FrameBot (Wang et al., 2013). For *dsrB* gene, amino acid sequences were  
169 aligned to the DsrAB reference sequence alignment (Pelikan et al., 2016) using MAFFT  
170 (Kato and Standley, 2013). Subsequently, the taxonomic classification of each *dsrB* OTU  
171 was analysed using the Evolutionary Placement Algorithm (EPA) in RAXML (Berger et al.,  
172 2011). For *mcrA* gene, amino acid sequences of each OTUs and updated full length *mcrA*  
173 amino acid sequences from NCBI were imported into a *mcrA* reference ARB database  
174 developed by Angel et al. (2012). The taxonomic classification of each *mcrA* OTU was  
175 analysed by phylogenetic tree construction using Maximum parsimony implemented in ARB  
176 software (Ludwig et al., 2004).

177

178 *2.6 Chemical and isotopic analyses*

179 Chemical and isotopic analyses were performed as described in detail previously (Govert  
180 and Conrad, 2009). Methane was analyzed by gas chromatography (GC) with flame  
181 ionization detector. Carbon dioxide was analyzed after conversion to CH<sub>4</sub> with a Ni catalyst.  
182 Stable isotope analyses of <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C in gas samples were performed using GC-combustion  
183 isotope ratio mass spectrometry (GC-C-IRMS). Acetate was measured using high-  
184 performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) linked via a Finnigan LC IsoLink to an IRMS.



185 The isotopic values are reported in the delta notation ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) relative to the Vienna Peedee  
186 Belemnite standard having a  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$  ratio ( $R_{\text{standard}}$ ) of 0.01118:  $\delta^{13}\text{C} = 10^3 (R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}} -$   
187 1). The precision of the GC-C-IRMS was  $\pm 0.2\%$ , that of the HPLC-IRMS was  $\pm 0.3\%$ . The  
188 carbon of the sodium acetate that was used in the incubation experiments had the following  
189  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values: total acetate,  $-24.4\%$ ; acetate-methyl,  $-27.9\%$ ; acetate-carboxyl,  $-20.9\%$ .

190

### 191 2.7 Calculations

192 Fractionation factors for reaction  $A \rightarrow B$  are defined after Hayes (Hayes, 1993) as:

$$193 \alpha_{A/B} = (\delta_A + 1000) / (\delta_B + 1000) \quad (1)$$

194 also expressed as  $\epsilon \equiv 1000 (1 - \alpha)$  in permil. The carbon isotope enrichment factor  $\epsilon_{\text{ac}}$

195 associated with acetate consumption was calculated from the temporal change of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of

196 acetate as described by Mariotti et al. (Mariotti et al., 1981) from the residual reactant

$$197 \delta_r = \delta_{ri} + \epsilon [\ln(1-f)] \quad (2)$$

198 and from the product formed

$$199 \delta_p = \delta_{ri} - \epsilon (1-f) [\ln(1-f)]/f \quad (3)$$

200 where  $\delta_{ri}$  is the isotopic composition of the reactant (acetate) at the beginning,  $\delta_r$  is the

201 isotopic composition of the residual acetate and  $\delta_p$  that of the product ( $\text{CH}_4$ ), both at the

202 instant when  $f$  is determined.  $f$  is the fractional yield of the products based on the

203 consumption of acetate ( $0 < f < 1$ ). Linear regression of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of acetate against  $\ln(1-f)$  yields

204  $\epsilon_{\text{ac}}$  as the slope of best fit lines. Similarly, linear regression of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  $\text{CH}_4$  against  $(1-f)$

205  $[\ln(1-f)]/f$  yields  $\epsilon_{\text{CH}_4}$  as the slope of best fit lines. The regressions of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of acetate were

206 done for data in the range of  $f < 0.5$ . The linear regressions of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  $\text{CH}_4$  were done either

207 for the entire data range of again only for  $f < 0.5$ . The linear regressions were done

208 individually for each experimental replicate ( $n = 3-4$ ) and were only accepted if  $r^2 > 0.8$  for

209 paddy soils or  $r^2 > 0.7$  for lake sediments. The  $\epsilon$  values resulting from the replicate

210 experiments were then averaged ( $\pm \text{SE}$ ).

211 For mass balance calculations, total inorganic carbon (TIC) was calculated as the sum of

212 gaseous  $\text{CO}_2$ , dissolved  $\text{CO}_2$  and bicarbonate using the measured data of gaseous  $\text{CO}_2$ , the pH

213 and the relevant solubility and equilibrium constants (Stumm and Morgan, 1996).





214

### 215 **3 Results**

#### 216 *3.1 Incubation of unbuffered suspensions of rice field soils*

217 Incubation of unbuffered suspensions (soil + H<sub>2</sub>O) of rice field soil from the International  
218 Rice Research Institute (IRRI) of the Philippines with acetate under anoxic conditions  
219 resulted in the depletion of acetate and the release of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 1A, C). In the  
220 presence of CH<sub>3</sub>F, an inhibitor of aceticlastic methanogenesis (Janssen and Frenzel, 1997),  
221 acetate was no longer consumed, and production of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> was inhibited. However,  
222 addition of sulfate had only little effect on acetate consumption and the production of CH<sub>4</sub> and  
223 CO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 1A, C). Both in the presence and the absence of sulfate, δ<sup>13</sup>C of the residual acetate  
224 and the produced CH<sub>4</sub> increased, whereas δ<sup>13</sup>C in CO<sub>2</sub> stayed relatively stable (Fig. 1B, D). In  
225 the presence of CH<sub>3</sub>F, the δ<sup>13</sup>C in CH<sub>4</sub> was much more negative than in the absence. The  
226 results were similar for soil from the Rice Research Station in Vercelli (Italy) (Fig.S1).

227 Mariotti plots of the <sup>13</sup>C of acetate as function of the fractions (*f*) of acetate consumed  
228 resulted in similar curves for all four replicates of the incubations of IRRI soil without (Fig.  
229 2A) and with (Fig. 2B) sulfate amendment. The lines were straight for *f* < 0.5 (<50% of  
230 acetate consumed). The same was the case for Mariotti plots of <sup>13</sup>CH<sub>4</sub>, the product of acetate  
231 consumption (Fig. 2C, D). The enrichment factors ε, which were calculated from the Mariotti  
232 plots were in a range of -22‰ to -19‰, irrespectively whether they were determined in the  
233 presence or the absence of sulfate and whether they were determined from acetate depletion  
234 or from CH<sub>4</sub> formation (Fig. 3; Table S1). Similar Mariotti plots were obtained for Vercelli  
235 soil (Fig. S2), which resulted in ε values ranging between -20‰ to -17‰, except the ε  
236 determined for CH<sub>4</sub> production in the presence of sulfate, which was only -14 ± 1.4‰ (Fig.  
237 3).

238 Mass balance calculations showed that on a molar basis the accumulated CH<sub>4</sub> amounted to  
239 about 90% of the consumed acetate (the methyl group) in the absence and to about 71% in the  
240 presence of sulfate in the IRRI soil and to 97% and 76%, respectively, in the Vercelli soil.

241



242 *3.2 Incubation of buffered suspensions of rice field soils*

243 The experiments with rice field soils were repeated using soil slurries suspended in  
244 phosphate buffer. This was done to run the experiment at a constant pH 7.0. In Vercelli soil,  
245 acetate was consumed and CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> were produced (Fig. 4A, C, E). The δ<sup>13</sup>C of the  
246 residual acetate and the produced CH<sub>4</sub> increased as acetate consumption proceeded (Fig. 4B,  
247 D). The δ<sup>13</sup>C of the produced CO<sub>2</sub> first decreased and later increased (Fig. 4F). This happened  
248 also, when the soil suspensions were incubated in the presence of sulfate after preincubation  
249 with sulfate (Fig. 4F), but CH<sub>4</sub> production was lower and CO<sub>2</sub> production was higher in the  
250 presence than in the absence of sulfate (Fig. 4C, E). Production of CH<sub>4</sub> ceased in the presence  
251 of sulfate after about 10 d (Fig. 4C). Addition of CH<sub>3</sub>F completely inhibited CH<sub>4</sub> production  
252 both in the presence and absence of sulfate (Fig. 4C). It also inhibited CO<sub>2</sub> production but  
253 only in the absence of sulfate (Fig. 4E). In the presence of sulfate, CH<sub>3</sub>F only delayed but did  
254 not inhibit acetate consumption and CO<sub>2</sub> production (Fig. 4A, E), and also did not prevent the  
255 increase of δ<sup>13</sup>C in the residual acetate (Fig. 4B).

256 Mass balance calculations showed that while acetate (the methyl group) was almost  
257 completely degraded to CH<sub>4</sub> in the absence of sulfate, it accounted, after a delayed inhibition,  
258 for only about a third in the presence of sulfate (Fig. 5). When the soil suspensions were  
259 incubated in the presence of sulfate but without preincubation, CH<sub>4</sub> production was only  
260 slightly less than in the incubations without sulfate (Fig. 5). The complete set of these  
261 experiments is shown in Fig. S3. When CH<sub>4</sub> production was inhibited, CO<sub>2</sub> production  
262 apparently was a substitute, since the consumed acetate was always rather well balanced by  
263 the production of both CH<sub>4</sub> and TIC together (Fig. S4). The same experimental setup was  
264 used for IRRI soil. The results were similar and are shown in the supplementary (Fig. S5, S6,  
265 S7). In IRRI soil suspensions, the mass balance between the production of CH<sub>4</sub> + TIC and the  
266 acetate consumed was improved when the production was corrected with the background  
267 production in a control without addition of acetate (Fig. S8).

268 Mariotti plots of acetate consumption and CH<sub>4</sub> production in both Vercelli soil (Fig. S9)  
269 and IRRI soil (Fig. S10) could be created for all the different incubation conditions, in which  
270 acetate was consumed, i.e. in the absence of sulfate (control), in the presence of sulfate, and in



271 the presence of sulfate after preincubation with sulfate. Enrichment factors ( $\epsilon$ ) were calculated  
272 for fractions of acetate consumption with  $f < 0.5$  (Fig. 3; Table S1). The  $\epsilon$  values for acetate  
273 consumption were similar for the experiments without and with sulfate and ranged between -  
274 21‰ and -17‰. However, the  $\epsilon$  values for  $\text{CH}_4$  production were systematically lower,  
275 ranging between -37‰ and -23‰ (Fig. 3; Table S1). Since acetate consumption in the  
276 presence of sulfate was also possible when  $\text{CH}_4$  production was inhibited by  $\text{CH}_3\text{F}$ , Mariotti  
277 plots could also be created for these conditions (Fig. S11). The resulting  $\epsilon$  values were similar  
278 than those in the absence of sulfate and ranged for Vercelli soil between -24‰ and -22‰  
279 (Fig. 3; Table S1). Only in the IRRI soil  $\epsilon$  values were higher (-10‰), but only when the soil  
280 had been preincubated with sulfate (Fig. 3; Table S1).

281

### 282 *3.3 Incubation of buffered suspensions of lake sediments*

283 Experiments with lake sediments were done analogous to those with rice field soils.  
284 Slurries of sediment from the NE and SW basins of Lake Fuchskuhle were suspended in  
285 phosphate buffer pH 7.0 in the absence and the presence of sulfate (after preincubation with  
286 sulfate) and without and with addition of  $\text{CH}_3\text{F}$ . In the sediment from the NE basin acetate  
287 was consumed after a lag phase, first (after about 40 d) in the incubations with sulfate, then  
288 (after about 60 d) also in the incubations without sulfate (Fig. 6A). Addition of  $\text{CH}_3\text{F}$  only  
289 partially inhibited the acetate consumption in the absence of sulfate, and did not at all inhibit  
290 the acetate consumption in the presence of sulfate (Fig. 6A). However,  $\text{CH}_3\text{F}$  almost  
291 completely inhibited the production of  $\text{CH}_4$ , and also inhibited almost completely the increase  
292 of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in the residual acetate when sulfate was absent (Fig. 6B). Presence of sulfate also  
293 strongly inhibited  $\text{CH}_4$  production (Fig. 6C). The small amounts of  $\text{CH}_4$  produced showed a  
294 rather constant  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of about -40‰ in the absence and of -90 to -80‰ in the presence of  
295  $\text{CH}_3\text{F}$  (Fig. 6D). Without sulfate, by contrast, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in  $\text{CH}_4$  was first about -70‰ and then  
296 with acetate consumption progressively increased to about -40‰ in the absence and decreased  
297 to about -90‰ in the presence of  $\text{CH}_3\text{F}$  (Fig. 6D). Mass balance calculations showed that  $\text{CH}_4$   
298 production in the presence of sulfate accounted on a molar basis only for about 5% of the  
299 acetate consumed, while in the absence of sulfate  $\text{CH}_4$  production accounted for about 45%



300 (Fig. 5). In the sediment from the SW basin, the contribution of CH<sub>4</sub> production to acetate  
301 consumption was even lower (about 30%)(Fig. 5). These low values are noteworthy in  
302 comparison to those found in the rice field soils (Fig. 5). In the presence of sulfate, acetate  
303 was almost exclusively converted to CO<sub>2</sub>, which strongly increased during the time of acetate  
304 consumption exhibiting a relatively good mass balance (Fig. S4, S8). This was also the case in  
305 the incubations without sulfate, indicating that a rather large fraction of the acetate was  
306 converted to CO<sub>2</sub> rather than CH<sub>4</sub> (Fig. S4, S8). The δ<sup>13</sup>C of the produced CO<sub>2</sub> strongly  
307 decreased from about -30‰ to about -55‰ during the period of acetate consumption (Fig. 6F)  
308 and then slowly increased back to -30‰, when about 50% of the acetate had been consumed  
309 (Fig. 6A). The experimental results were similar in the incubations with sediment from the  
310 SW basin, which are shown in the supplement (Fig. S12, S13).

311 Mariotti plots of acetate consumption could be generated for all incubation conditions both  
312 in the NE and in the SW basin of Lake Fuchskuhle (Fig. S14, S15). These plots allowed the  
313 calculation of ε values, which were generally higher (-20‰ to -19‰) in the NE (-20‰ to -  
314 19‰) than the SW basin (-14‰ to -11‰). For CH<sub>4</sub> production, useful Mariotti plots could  
315 only be generated for incubations without sulfate resulting in ε values, which were higher (-  
316 28‰ to -27‰) than those calculated from acetate consumption (Fig. 3; Table S1). Mariotti  
317 plots of acetate consumption could be generated for incubations with sulfate, in which the  
318 very low CH<sub>4</sub> production was further inhibited by CH<sub>3</sub>F (Fig. S16). The ε values of these  
319 incubations (NE and the SW basin, respectively) were lower (-26‰, and -24‰) than those  
320 without CH<sub>3</sub>F (-20‰ and -14‰) (Fig. 3; Table S1).

321

### 322 3.4 Microbial community composition

323 The composition of the microbial communities was determined at the beginning of  
324 incubation, after preincubation without and with sulfate in the rice field soil and lake sediment  
325 suspensions by targeting three different genes, i.e., *mcrA* (methyl CoM reductase), *dsrB*  
326 (dissimilatory sulfate reductase), and the bacterial 16S rRNA gene. The compositions of  
327 microorganisms represented by all three genes were quite different between the rice field soils



328 and the lake sediments, while the differences within the individual samples of either soils or  
329 sediments were smaller (Fig. 7).

330 In the sediments of both basins of Lake Fuchskuhle, the methanogenic archaea  
331 (represented by *mcrA*) were dominated by *Methanomicrobiales* and *Methanosaetaceae*, while  
332 *Methanomassiliicoccales* and *Methanosarcinaceae* contributed less (Fig. 7A). In the rice field  
333 soils, the methanogenic taxa were more diverse comprising 6 different orders or families, with  
334 putatively acetivlastic *Methanosarcinaceae* being relatively more abundant than  
335 *Methanosaetaceae*. In addition, *Methanomicrobiales* contributed only little compared to  
336 *Methanobacteriales* and especially *Methanocellales*. In general, there was only a marginal  
337 difference in composition between the incubations in the absence and the presence of sulfate.

338 The composition of putative sulfate reducers (represented by *dsrB*) was also only little  
339 different between the incubations with and without sulfate addition (Fig. 7B). However, the  
340 composition between rice field soils and lake sediments was completely different. While rice  
341 field soils were dominated by members of the uncultured-family-level lineages 9 and 5, the  
342 lake sediments were dominated by the *Desulfobacca acetoxidans* lineage. Compared to IRRI  
343 soil the relative abundance of *Syntrophobacteraceae* was larger in Vercelli soil, where it  
344 increased upon treatment with sulfate. In the lake sediments, the relative abundances of  
345 *Syntrophobacteraceae* and members of environmental superclusters were similar. In the lake  
346 sediments there was only some minor quantitative difference between the two basins, while  
347 the difference between Vercelli and IRRI soil was more pronounced. For example, compared  
348 to IRRI soil the relative abundance of *Syntrophobacteraceae* was larger in Vercelli soil,  
349 where it increased upon preincubation with sulfate.

350 The composition of Bacteria in general (represented by the 16S rRNA gene) was again  
351 most different between rice field soils and lake sediments, while differences between Vercelli  
352 and IRRI soils and also between sediments from the NE and SW lake basins were much less,  
353 and differences between preincubations without and with sulfate were marginal (Fig. 7C).  
354 While in rice field soils Clostridia were the most abundant group followed by  
355 Deltaproteobacteria, it was the other way round in the lake sediments. Rice field soils



356 contained *Bacilli*, while Lake sediments contained *Spirochaetes*, which were respectively  
357 negligible.

358

## 359 **4 Discussion**

### 360 *4.1 Methanogenic conditions*

361 We measured  $\epsilon_{ac}$  values in anaerobic environmental samples, which consumed acetate  
362 almost exclusively by methanogenesis. Predominance of methanogenesis occurred in the  
363 absence of sulfate, in some incubations of the rice field soils even in the presence of sulfate  
364 provided there was no prior incubation in the presence of sulfate. In the rice field soils, CH<sub>4</sub>  
365 carbon accounted for more than 90% of the consumed acetate carbon, and CH<sub>3</sub>F completely  
366 inhibited acetate consumption, the increase of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in the residual acetate, and also inhibited  
367 most of CH<sub>4</sub> production. In conclusion, acetate was exclusively consumed by aceticlastic  
368 methanogenesis and only little CH<sub>4</sub> was produced from other sources than acetate,  
369 presumably from background organic carbon via hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis as  
370 indicated by the negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of the produced CH<sub>4</sub>. The increase of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in the residual  
371 acetate was expected due to preferred utilization of isotopically light acetate carbon. Such  
372 patterns of CH<sub>4</sub> production and change in  $^{13}\text{C}$  isotopic signatures have been observed by us  
373 before in rice field soils and lake sediments (Conrad et al., 2010; Conrad et al., 2009; Fu et al.,  
374 2018; Ji et al., 2018). They are in agreement with the presence of a diverse methanogenic  
375 archaeal community consisting of putatively hydrogenotrophic and aceticlastic methanogenic  
376 archaea, which have been found in both Vercelli and IRRI soils (Liu et al., 2019; Liu et al.,  
377 2018b). The aceticlastic methanogens consisted of species of the genera *Methanosarcina* and  
378 *Methanosaeta* (or *Methanotherix* (Oren, 2014)), which differ in the mechanism of acetate  
379 activation and the affinity towards acetate (Jetten et al., 1990).

380 Both genera of methanogens were also present in the sediments of Lake Fuchskuhle, which  
381 exhibited a similar pattern of acetate consumption and CH<sub>4</sub> production as the anaerobic rice  
382 field soils, thus confirming and extending earlier studies (Chan et al., 2002; Conrad et al.,  
383 2010). Notably, CH<sub>3</sub>F addition again almost completely inhibited CH<sub>4</sub> production from  
384 acetate and was accompanied by highly negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in the small amounts of residual CH<sub>4</sub>,



385 which was presumably produced by hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis. Addition of CH<sub>3</sub>F did  
386 not completely inhibit acetate consumption, indicating consumption by oxidation rather than  
387 aceticlastic methanogenesis. However, CH<sub>3</sub>F almost completely inhibited the increase of δ<sup>13</sup>C  
388 in the residual acetate, indicating only a negligible isotope effect. Also, CH<sub>4</sub> production  
389 accounted only for less than 50% of the consumed acetate, as production of CH<sub>4</sub> was replaced  
390 by CO<sub>2</sub>. Hence, part of the acetate was apparently consumed by oxidative processes, even  
391 without addition of sulfate. We assume that the oxidation consumption process was driven by  
392 humic acids (Lovley et al., 1996). Notably, imbalance in the stoichiometry between CH<sub>4</sub> and  
393 consumed acetate is reflected by the fact that the SW basin has a higher humic acid content  
394 than the NE basin (Casper et al., 2003).

395 Values of ε<sub>ac</sub> measured in cultures of methanogenic archaea differ depending on the genus  
396 and the corresponding mechanism of acetate activation. Thus, methanogenic archaea of the  
397 genus *Methanosarcina*, which activate acetate with acetate kinase and phosphotransacetylase  
398 have a relatively negative ε<sub>ac</sub> with values ranging between -35‰ and -21‰ (Gelwicks et al.,  
399 1994; Goevert and Conrad, 2009; Krzycki et al., 1987; Zyakun et al., 1988). By contrast,  
400 those of the genus *Methanosaeta*, which activate acetate with acetyl-CoA synthetase, have  
401 less negative ε<sub>ac</sub> with values ranging between -14‰ and -10‰ (Penning et al., 2006a;  
402 Valentine et al., 2004). The ε<sub>ac</sub> values in methanogenic rice field soils were all in a range of -  
403 21‰ to -17‰, which is at the less negative end or even a bit less negative than the values  
404 reported for pure cultures of *Methanosarcina* but is more negative than the values reported for  
405 *Methanosaeta*. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that in the methanogenic rice field soils,  
406 acetate was consumed mainly by *Methanosarcina* species and only to a minor extent by  
407 *Methanosaeta* species. This conclusion is in agreement with the composition of the soil  
408 methanogenic archaeal communities, which consisted of both genera. A similar conclusion  
409 has been reached in methanogenic rice field soil (Goevert and Conrad, 2009). A similar  
410 enrichment factor for acetate consumption has also been measured in the anoxic sediment of  
411 Lake Wintergreen (Gelwicks et al., 1994) and again in the present study of the NE basin of  
412 Lake Fuchskuhle. However, the sediment of the SW basin of Lake Fuchskuhle exhibited a  
413 less negative ε<sub>ac</sub> of about -11‰, which would be consistent with the activity of aceticlastic



414 *Methanosaeta* species. Indeed, *mcrA* genes of *Methanosaeta* species were much more  
415 abundant in the sediments of Lake Fuchskuhle than *mcrA* genes of *Methanosarcina* species.  
416 Also in Lake Dagow sediments (located in the same region of Germany), methanogenic  
417 archaea were dominated by *Methanosaeta* species and exhibited a relatively high  $\epsilon_{ac}$  of about  
418  $-13\text{‰}$  (Penning et al., 2006a). However, the sediment of the NE basin of Lake Fuchskuhle,  
419 which was also dominated by *Methanosaeta* species exhibited more negative  $\epsilon_{ac}$  values of  
420 about  $-19\text{‰}$ .

421 Methanogenic consumption results in disproportionation of the acetate molecule with  
422 oxidation of the carboxyl group to  $\text{CO}_2$  and reduction of the methyl group to  $\text{CH}_4$ . In context  
423 of the isotope fractionation during the conversion of acetate to  $\text{CH}_4$  it is the isotopic  
424 enrichment factor of the methyl group,  $\epsilon_{ac\text{-methyl}}$ , which matters. Studies of fractionation of the  
425 acetate-methyl in pure culture studies of acetoclastic methanogenic archaea have shown that  
426  $\epsilon_{ac\text{-methyl}}$  was always a few permil less negative than  $\epsilon_{ac}$ . This difference was due to a larger  
427 isotope effect for the conversion of acetate-carboxyl than acetate-methyl (Gelwicks et al.,  
428 1994; Goevert and Conrad, 2009; Penning et al., 2006a; Valentine et al., 2004). Alternatively  
429 to  $\epsilon_{ac\text{-methyl}}$  the enrichment factor for the conversion of acetate-methyl to  $\text{CH}_4$  can also be  
430 measured from the isotopic composition in  $\text{CH}_4$ , i.e.,  $\epsilon_{\text{CH}_4}$ . Most of the studies of pure  
431 methanogenic cultures resulted in  $\epsilon_{\text{CH}_4}$  being similar to  $\epsilon_{ac\text{-methyl}}$  (Gelwicks et al., 1994;  
432 Goevert and Conrad, 2009; Penning et al., 2006a), but occasionally  $\epsilon_{\text{CH}_4}$  was a few permil  
433 more negative than  $\epsilon_{ac\text{-methyl}}$ , both in pure culture (Valentine et al., 2004) and in environmental  
434 samples (Goevert and Conrad, 2009). Similarly, values of  $\epsilon_{\text{CH}_4}$  in the unbuffered suspensions  
435 of rice field soils were only slightly more negative than values of  $\epsilon_{ac}$ . However, in the  
436 buffered suspensions of both rice field soils and lake sediments, values of  $\epsilon_{\text{CH}_4}$  were much  
437 more negative than those of  $\epsilon_{ac}$ , the difference amounting to 9-17‰. These results indicate  
438 that the isotope effect for the conversion of the acetate-methyl to  $\text{CH}_4$  was much stronger than  
439 that for the conversion of acetate-carboxyl to  $\text{CO}_2$ , which is completely opposite to the results  
440 obtained in cultures of methanogenic archaea. This discrepancy in the results is presently  
441 without conclusive explanation. The possibility of effects by bicarbonate or  $\text{CO}_2$   
442 concentrations, being different in the pure microbial cultures, the unbuffered and buffered soil





443 suspensions, or of phosphate effects should be considered. Effects of CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and  
444 buffer systems on fractionation factors have for example been observed in cultures of  
445 chemolithoautotrophic *Thermoanaerobacter kivui* (Blaser et al., 2015).

446

#### 447 4.2 Sulfidogenic conditions

448 We also measured  $\epsilon_{ac}$  values in anaerobic environmental samples, which consumed acetate  
449 by sulfate reduction. These conditions were achieved (only in the buffered suspensions) by  
450 preincubation with gypsum and measurement of acetate consumption in the presence of  
451 sulfate (gypsum). Preincubation was required because of delayed sulfate reduction (Liu et al.,  
452 2018a). The relative abundance of both *dsrB* genes and genes of bacterial 16S rRNA were  
453 only marginally different between samples preincubated under methanogenic and sulfidogenic  
454 conditions, similarly as observed before (Wörner et al., 2016). It is probably the induction of  
455 the sulfate reduction activity, which delayed sulphidogenic conditions (Liu et al., 2018a).  
456 Sulfidogenic conditions were verified by showing that methanogenesis was almost completely  
457 inhibited while acetate consumption operated, also with respect to increase of  $\delta^{13}C$  in the  
458 residual acetate, and that CH<sub>3</sub>F, which is rather specific for acetoclastic methanogenesis, had  
459 only a marginal effect on these sulfidogenic activities. Finally, sulfidogenic conditions were  
460 verified by the stoichiometry of acetate conversion, which showed only very little CH<sub>4</sub>  
461 production.

462 Values of  $\epsilon_{ac}$  measured in cultures of sulfate-reducing bacteria differ depending on the  
463 genus and the corresponding mechanism of acetate dissimilation. Experiments with cultures  
464 of sulfate reducers showed that *Desulfobacca acetoxidans*, which dissimilates acetate via the  
465 acetyl-CoA pathway, exhibits of about -19‰ being similar to the  $\epsilon_{ac}$  values of aceticlastic  
466 *Methanosarcina* species. By contrast, cultures of *Desulfobacter* species, which dissimilate  
467 acetate via the tricarboxylic acid cycle, exhibited  $\epsilon_{ac}$  values of about +2‰ (Goevert and Conrad,  
468 2008). The  $\epsilon_{ac}$  values measured in sulfidogenic anoxic paddy soils were in a range of -24‰ to  
469 -22‰, but were only -24‰ to -10‰, when measured in the presence of CH<sub>3</sub>F, which  
470 guarantees that all aceticlastic methanogenic activities were inhibited. This range of  $\epsilon_{ac}$  values  
471 compares rather well with the value of -19‰ measured in *Desulfobacca acetoxidans*, which



472 however, was of only low relative abundance in the rice field soil incubations. However, it is  
473 well possible that uncultured-family-level lineages, which were the major sulfate reducers,  
474 dissimilated by similar pathway than *Desulfobacca acetoxidans* and thus, exhibited similar  $\epsilon_{ac}$   
475 values. Also *Syntrophobacteraceae*, which have been found to act as major acetate-utilizing  
476 sulfate reducers in Vercelli soil (Liu et al., 2018a) increased in relative abundance after  
477 preincubation with sulfate. The lake sediments, by contrast, exhibited a high relative  
478 abundance of *Desulfobacca acetoxidans*, and  $\epsilon_{ac}$  values (including those with  $\text{CH}_3\text{F}$ ) were in a  
479 range of -26‰ to -14‰. Unfortunately, there is, to our knowledge, only a paucity of  $\epsilon_{ac}$  values  
480 measured in cultures of sulfate reducers (Govert and Conrad, 2008). Therefore, it is not  
481 possible to have a better resolution of the role of different taxa and metabolic types of sulfate-  
482 reducing bacteria on the fractionation of acetate carbon.

483

## 484 5 Conclusions

485 In order to learn about the factors that affect the magnitude of  $^{13}\text{C}$  isotope fractionation  
486 during anaerobic acetate consumption, we studied acetate consumption under methanogenic  
487 and sulfidogenic conditions in four different environmental samples, two rice field soils and  
488 two lake sediments, by quantifying the conversion of acetate to  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  and by  
489 measuring the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in these compounds, and also determined the composition of the microbial  
490 communities. Despite a relatively wide variety of environmental conditions and microbial  
491 community compositions, the range of fractionation factors (isotopic enrichment factors  $\epsilon_{ac}$   
492 for the fractionation of total acetate) was quite moderate. The observed  $\epsilon_{ac}$  values were  
493 basically within the range that is known from studies of pure cultures of sulfate-reducing  
494 bacteria and methanogenic archaea, with a predominance of  $\epsilon_{ac}$  values around -20‰, which is  
495 consistent with acetate fractionation in both aceticlastic *Methanosarcina* species and acetate-  
496 dissimilating sulfate reducers using the acetyl-CoA pathway. In few cases  $\epsilon_{ac}$  values were  
497 close to -10‰, being consistent with a predominance of aceticlastic *Methanosaeta* species.  
498 However, there is a paucity of data from cultures of acetate-dissimilating sulfate reducing  
499 bacteria, for example from *Syntrophobacteraceae*, which presently limits the potential for  
500 predicting fractionation of acetate carbon by knowing the microbial community composition.



501 Another point of concern is the use of buffered growth media, which may affect isotope  
502 fractionation, such as indicated by the observation that  $\epsilon_{\text{CH}_4}$  values were much more negative  
503 than  $\epsilon_{\text{ac}}$  values when using suspensions in phosphate buffer rather than in water.

504

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509

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511

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656 **Figure legends**

657 Fig. 1: Acetate conversion to CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> in unbuffered suspensions of paddy soil from the  
658 IRRI (the Philippines) without additions (water control), with gypsum, and with CH<sub>3</sub>F.  
659 The panels show the temporal change of (A) concentrations of acetate; (B) δ<sup>13</sup>C of  
660 acetate; (C) partial pressures of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> (1 ppmv = 10<sup>-6</sup> bar); (D) δ<sup>13</sup>C of CH<sub>4</sub>  
661 and CO<sub>2</sub>. Means ± SE, n = 2.

662 Fig. 2: Mariotti plots of (A, B) acetate consumption and (C, D) CH<sub>4</sub> production in (A, C) the  
663 absence (control) and (B, D) the presence of gypsum (+ sulfate) in 4 replicates of  
664 unbuffered suspensions of paddy soil from the IRRI.

665 Fig. 3: Isotopic enrichment factors (ε<sub>ac</sub> or ε<sub>CH<sub>4</sub></sub>, given as negative values) of unbuffered soil  
666 suspensions (Vercelli-soil, IRRI-soil) and buffered suspensions of paddy soil  
667 (Vercelli, IRRI) or sediments of Lake Fuchskuhle (NE and SW basin). The values of  
668 ε<sub>ac</sub> (acetate) and ε<sub>CH<sub>4</sub></sub> (CH<sub>4</sub>) were measured without addition of sulfate (methanogenic  
669 conditions), with addition of sulfate during preincubation and the experiment  
670 (sulfidogenic conditions) and with sulfate but the preincubation without sulfate  
671 (mostly methanogenic conditions). Mean ± SE, n = 3-4.

672 Fig. 4: Acetate conversion to CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> in phosphate-buffered (pH 7.0) suspensions of  
673 paddy soil from Vercelli (Italy) without additions (control); with CH<sub>3</sub>F; with gypsum  
674 (preincubation and experiment); with gypsum (preincubation and experiment) + CH<sub>3</sub>F.  
675 The panels show the temporal change of (A) concentrations of acetate; (B) δ<sup>13</sup>C of  
676 acetate; (C) partial pressures of CH<sub>4</sub> (1 ppmv = 10<sup>-6</sup> bar); (D) δ<sup>13</sup>C of CH<sub>4</sub>; (E) partial  
677 pressures of CO<sub>2</sub> (1 ppmv = 10<sup>-6</sup> bar); (D) δ<sup>13</sup>C of CO<sub>2</sub>. Means ± SE, n = 3.

678 Fig. 5: Balance of CH<sub>4</sub> produced against acetate consumed in phosphate-buffered suspensions  
679 of paddy soil from Vercelli and IRRI, and of sediments from the NE and SW basin of  
680 Lake Fuchskuhle. The figures show individual replicates (n = 3) of the unamended  
681 control (methanogenic conditions); of the experiment plus gypsum (CaSO<sub>4</sub>-1); of  
682 preincubation and experiment plus gypsum (CaSO<sub>4</sub>-2). The diagonal line indicates  
683 stoichiometric conversion (disproportionation) of acetate to CH<sub>4</sub> + CO<sub>2</sub>.



684 Fig. 6: Acetate conversion to CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> in phosphate-buffered (pH 7.0) suspensions of  
685 sediment from the NE basin of Lake Fuchskuhle without additions (control); with  
686 CH<sub>3</sub>F; with gypsum (preincubation and experiment); with gypsum (preincubation and  
687 experiment) + CH<sub>3</sub>F. The panels show the temporal change of (A) concentrations of  
688 acetate; (B) δ<sup>13</sup>C of acetate; (C) partial pressures of CH<sub>4</sub> (1 ppmv = 10<sup>-6</sup> bar); (D) δ<sup>13</sup>C  
689 of CH<sub>4</sub>; (E) partial pressures of CO<sub>2</sub> (1 ppmv = 10<sup>-6</sup> bar); (D) δ<sup>13</sup>C of CO<sub>2</sub>. Means ±  
690 SE, n = 3.

691 Fig. 7: Relative abundance of (A) *mcrA* (methanogens), (B) *dsrB* (sulfate reducers), (C)  
692 bacterial 16S rRNA genes; The DNA was extracted after preincubation of phosphate-  
693 buffered suspensions of paddy soils (Vercelli, IIRRI) and sediments of Lake  
694 Fuchskuhle (NE, SW basin) without additions (methanogenic conditions) or  
695 preincubated and incubated in the presence of sulfate (sulfidogenic conditions).  
696



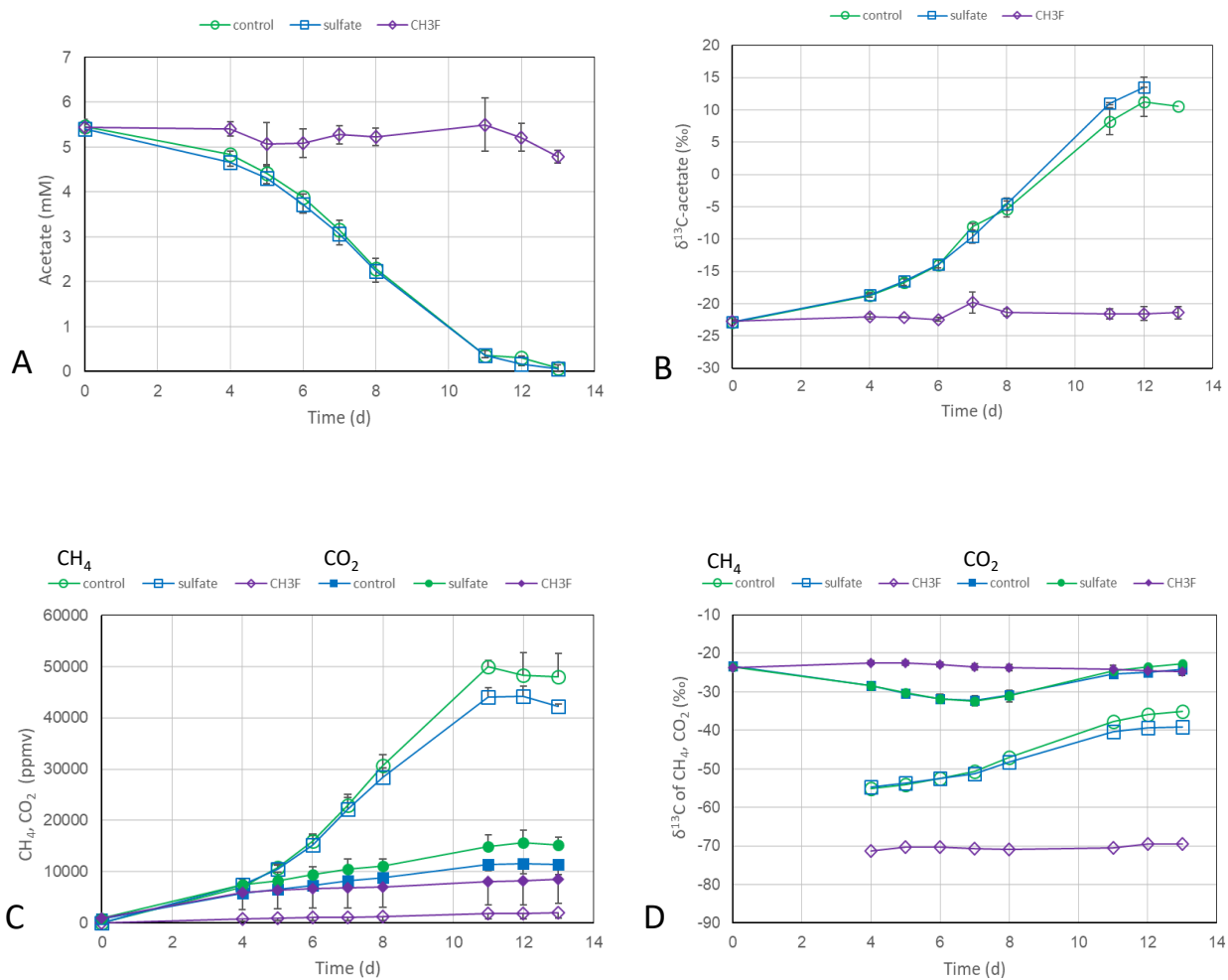


Fig. 1

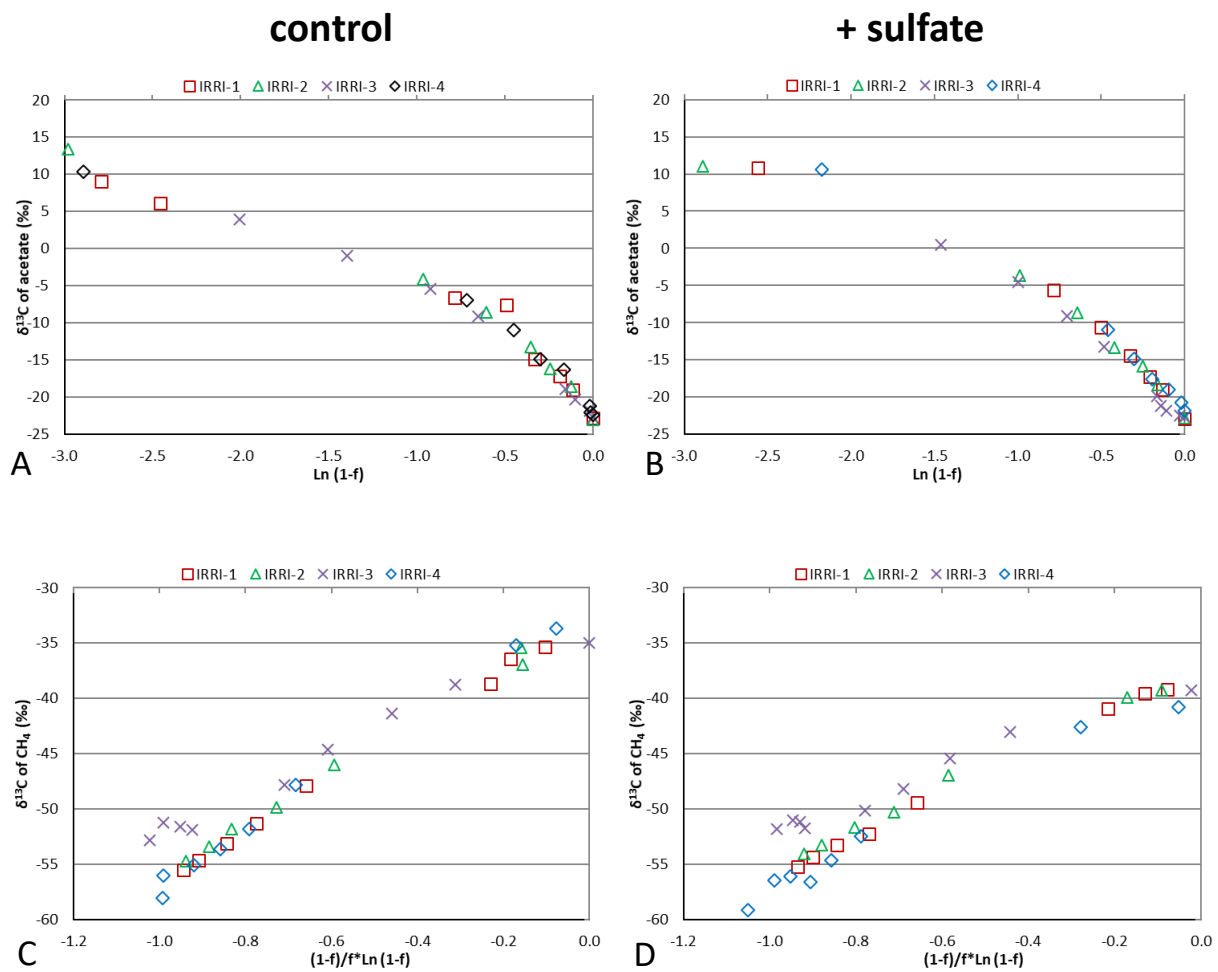


Fig. 2

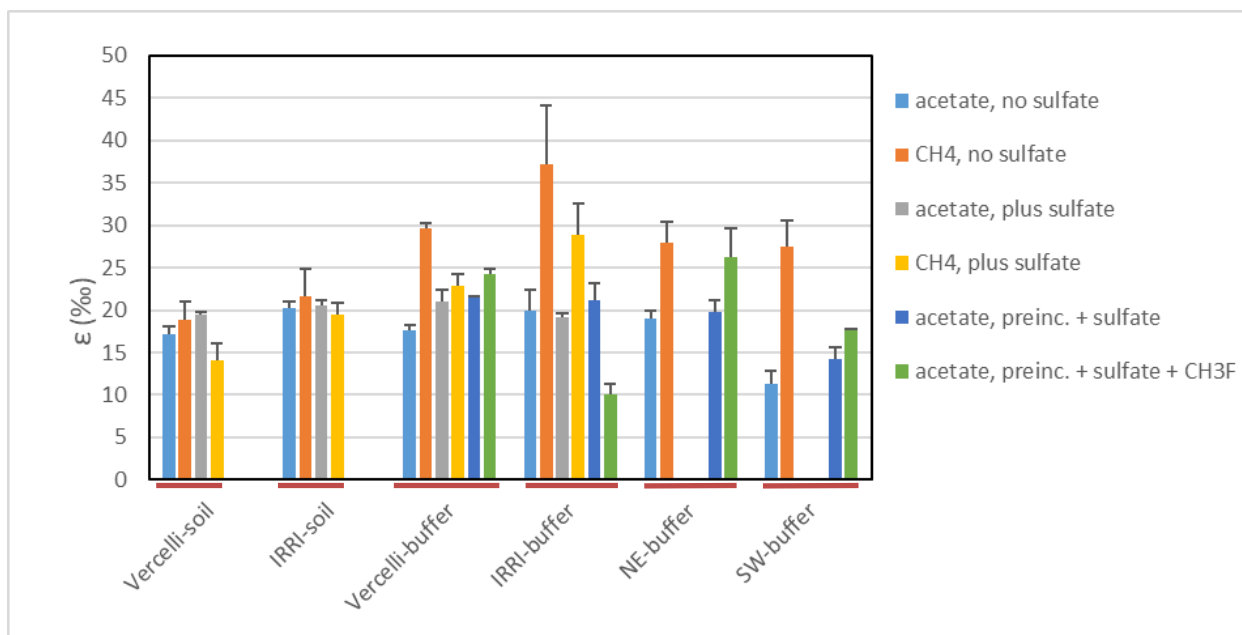


Fig. 3



## Vercelli, 2nd experiment

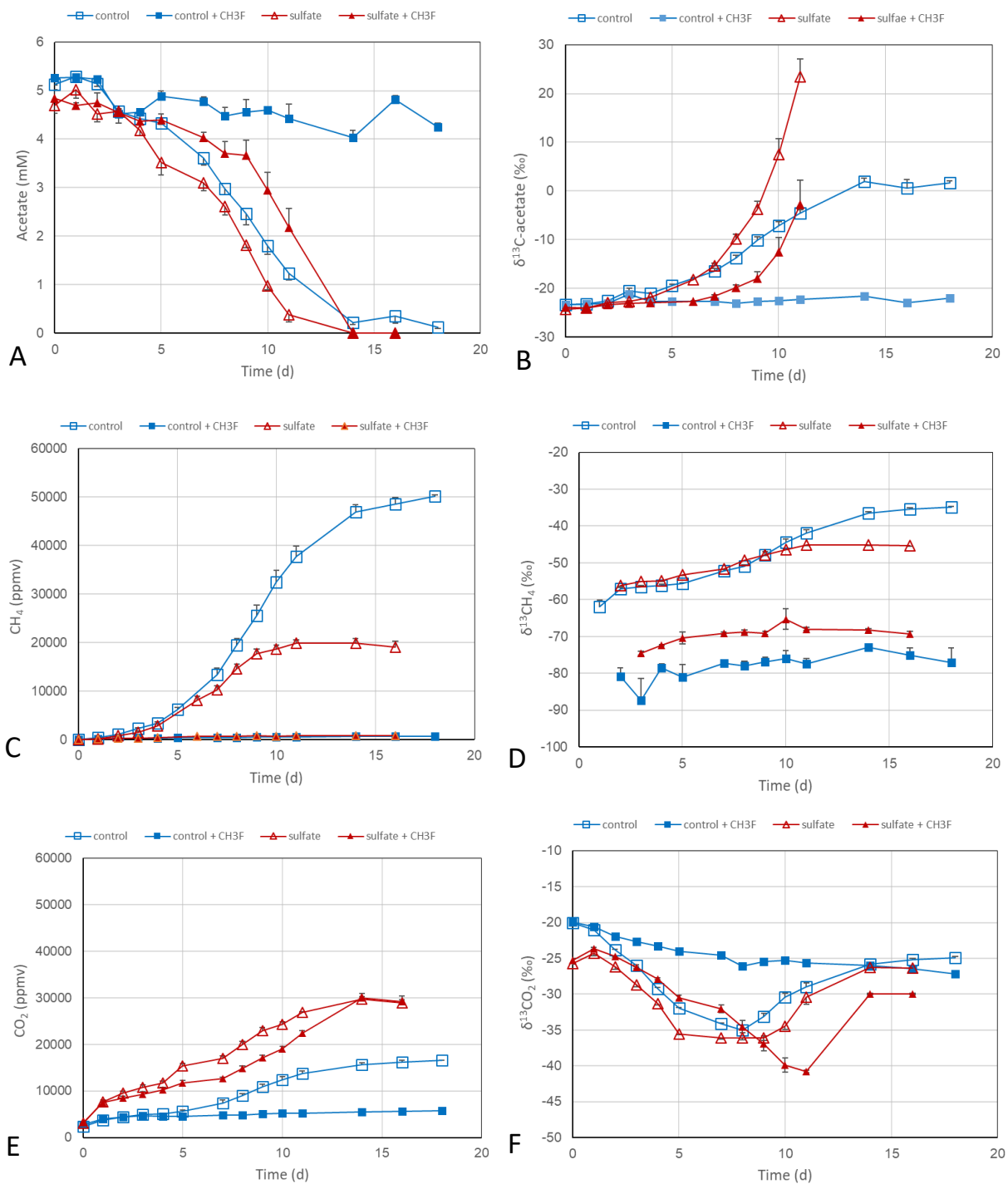


Fig. 4

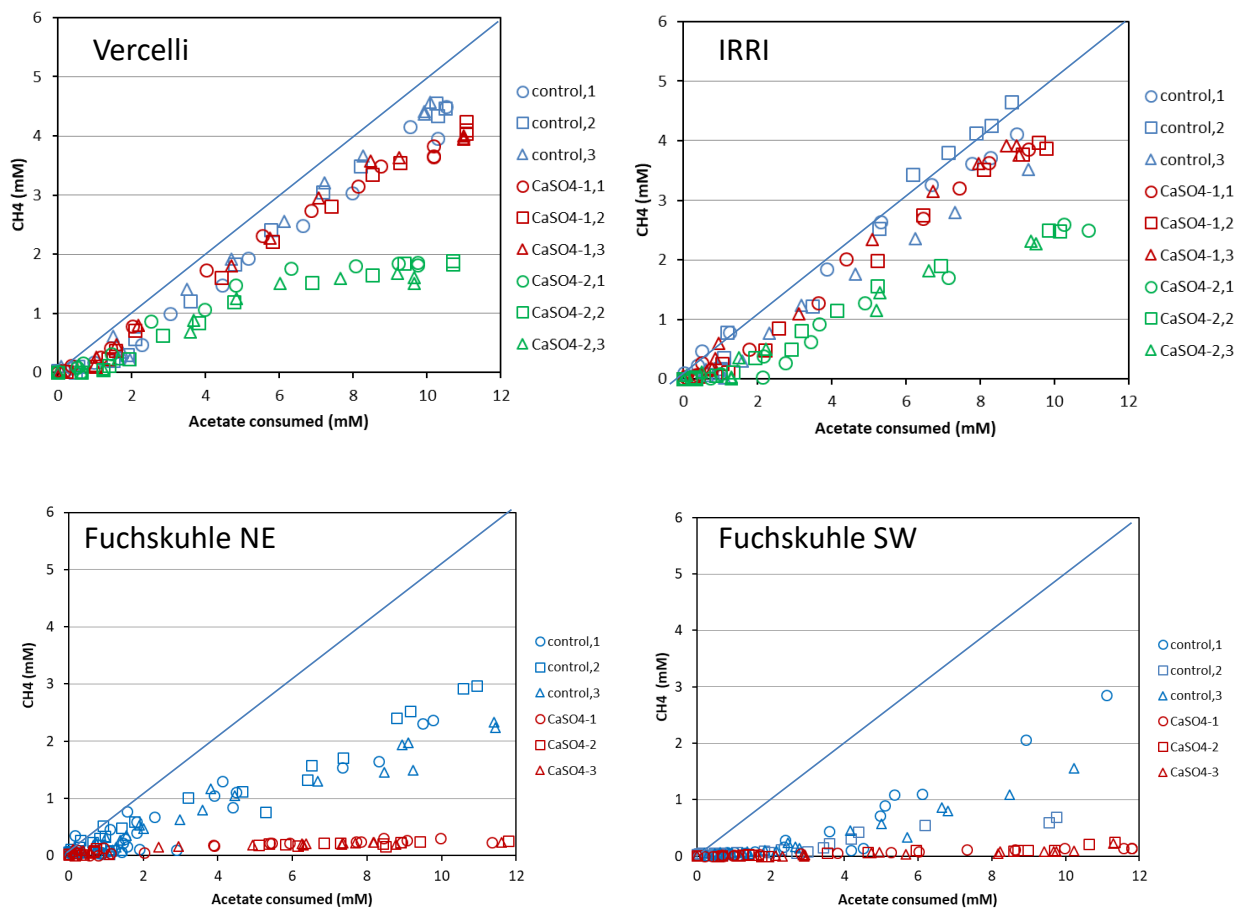


Fig. 5

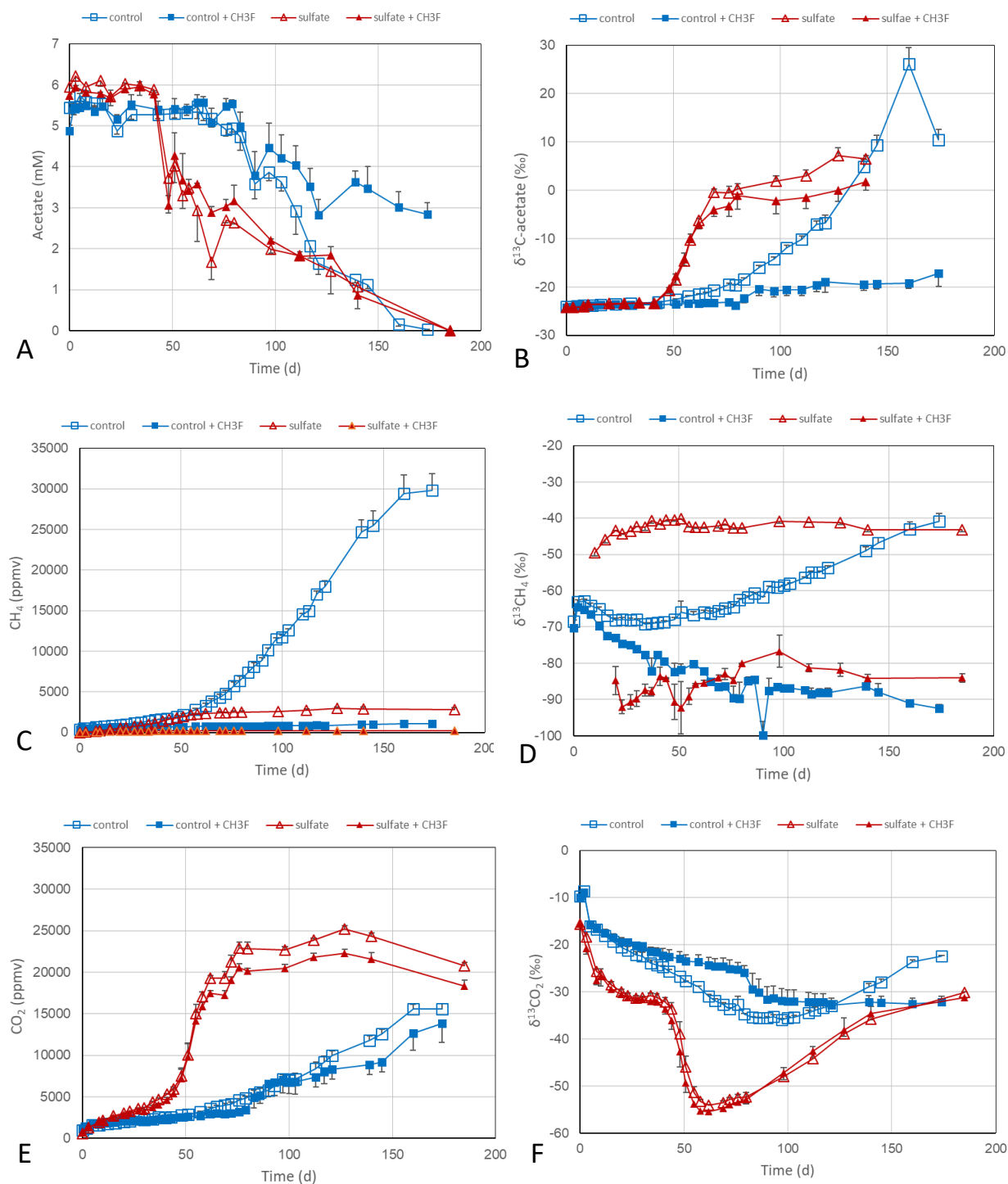


Fig. 6

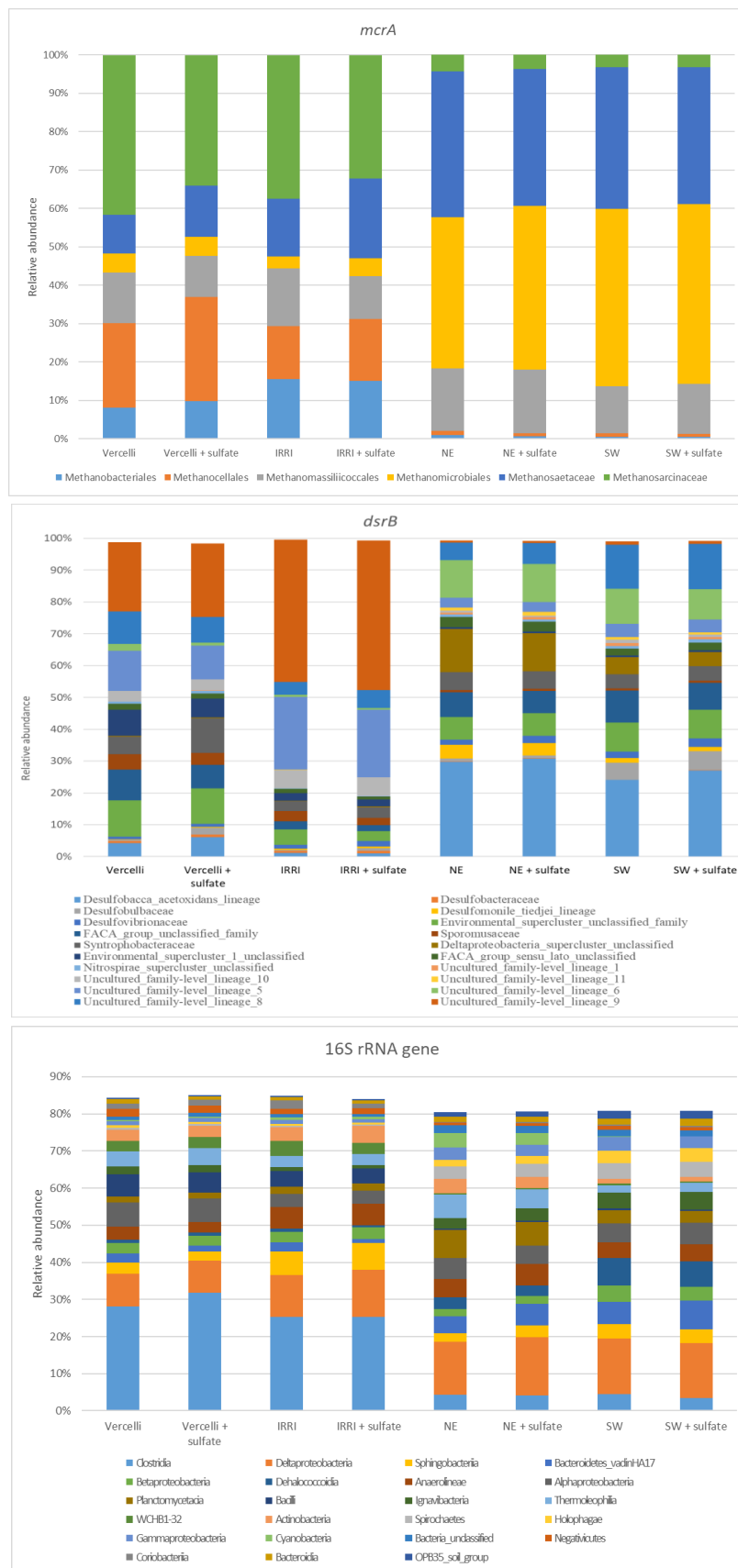


Fig. 7