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1 A novel mesocosm set-up reveals strong methane emission

2 reduction in submerged peat moss Sphagnum cuspidatum by

tightly associated methanotrophs.

- 4 Running title: Low CH₄ emission by Sphagnum-associated CH₄ oxidizers
- 5

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21 Abstract

22 Wetlands present the largest natural sources of methane (CH₄) and their potential CH₄ emissions 23 greatly vary due to the activity of CH₄-oxidizing bacteria associated with wetland plant species. In this 24 study, the association of CH₄-oxidizing bacteria with submerged Sphagnum peat mosses was studied, 25 followed by the development of a novel mesocosm set-up. This set-up enabled the precise control of 26 CH₄ input and allowed for monitoring the dissolved CH₄ in a *Sphagnum* moss layer while mimicking 27 natural conditions. Two mesocosm set-ups were used in parallel: one containing a Sphagnum moss 28 layer in peat water, and a control only containing peat water. Moss-associated CH₄ oxidizers in the 29 field could reduce net CH₄ emission up to 93%, and in the mesocosm set-up up to 31%. Furthermore, 30 CH₄ oxidation was only associated with Sphagnum, and did not occur in peat water. Especially 31 methanotrophs containing a soluble methane monooxygenase enzyme were significantly enriched 32 during the 32 day mesocosm incubations. Together these findings showed the new mesocosm setup 33 is very suited to study CH₄ cycling in submerged Sphagnum moss community under controlled conditions. Furthermore, the tight associated between *Sphagnum* peat mosses and methanotrophs 34 35 can significantly reduce CH₄ emissions in submerged peatlands.

36

37 Keywords: Methanotrophy, Peatland, *Sphagnum* moss, Methane cycle, mesocosm, climate change,
 38 soluble methane monooxygenase

39 Introduction

40 Methane (CH₄) has a 25 times higher Global Warming Potential (GWP) than carbon dioxide (CO₂; on a 41 100 year time scale) and is the second most important greenhouse gas (GHG), contributing for about 42 16% to global warming [1, 2]. CH₄ in the atmosphere originates from both natural and anthropogenic 43 sources. Wetlands are the largest natural CH₄ source, emitting an estimated 167 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ into the 44 atmosphere [3], indicating an imbalance between CH_4 production and CH_4 consumption by 45 methanotrophs. Climate change has the potential to further stimulate the emission of CH₄ from (especially artic) wetlands [4]. Therefore, it is important to understand sources, sinks and microbial 46 47 transformations of CH₄ in wetland ecosystems.

48 CH_4 cycling in peat ecosystems is affected by peat degradation and subsequent restoration [5–7]. 49 Restored (rewetted) sites appear to emit more CH₄, indicating that restored conditions stimulate 50 methanogenesis, and that methanotrophy cannot keep up. One well-known factor controlling CH₄ 51 cycling in wetlands is the water-table [8, 9]. The CH₄ emission from rewetted peatlands remains low 52 when the water table remains well below the field surface. However, when the water-table rises, CH₄ emission strongly increases [10, 11]. As an example, the Mariapeel peatland in The Netherlands has 53 54 been drained for many years, leading to severe drought. The peatland was rewetted again for 55 restoration purposes, which resulted in a strong decrease of CO₂ emissions that originated from the 56 aerobic oxidation of organic material, whereas the emission of the much stronger greenhouse gas CH₄ 57 emission strongly increased [10]. The CH₄ emission in rewetted peatlands seems to be strongly 58 reduced by development of (aquatic) Sphaqnum mosses, which harbor CH₄-oxidizing microorganisms 59 [6, 10, 12]. It is, however, challenging to study CH₄ dynamics in primary stages of peat development 60 (either restored/natural) without disturbing the site. Furthermore, also abiotic factors such as 61 temperature, water quality and light availability on site cannot be controlled as well as in the 62 laboratory, making experimental work and predictions about peat development and CH₄ cycling at 63 least cumbersome.

64 As mentioned above, CH₄ emissions are caused by an imbalance between CH₄ production and 65 consumption. The CH₄ emitted by peatlands is mainly produced by methanogenic Archaea [13]. In the anaerobic, submerged peat layers that are devoid of electron acceptors other than CO₂, methanogens 66 produce CH_4 from a limited number of substrates and/or in syntrophic interaction with other 67 68 anaerobes that degrade organic carbon (C). However, not all of the CH₄ produced reaches the 69 atmosphere, due to methanotrophs that oxidize CH_4 to CO_2 [14, 15]. The oxidation of CH_4 is performed 70 both aerobically (e-acceptor: O_2) by CH₄-oxidizing bacteria (MOB), and anaerobically (AOM) by 71 Archaea and bacteria (e-acceptors: nitrite, nitrate, metal-oxides, humic acids, and sulfate [16]). Both 72 aerobic and anaerobic CH_4 oxidation contribute to the reduction of CH_4 emissions from peatlands [12, 73 17–19]. Within the MOB the enzyme methane monooxygenase (MMO) is responsible for the oxidation 74 of CH₄ to methanol. The majority of MOB have a copper containing, membrane bound form of MMO 75 (pMMO) [20]. In addition, a small fraction of the MOB also has a soluble form of MMO (iron containing 76 sMMO) [20]. The sMMO seems to be only expressed when copper limitation is experienced and has a 77 less restricted substrate specificity than pMMO [20]. Peatland methanotrophs typically possess both 78 pMMO and sMMO [12, 21–23], which can be targeted via the pmoA and mmoX genes encoding one 79 of the subunits, respectively. Some peatland and marine methanotrophs are unique in that they only 80 possess sMMO [23–27]. Also mmoX transcripts indicate that sMMO is an active enzyme in peatlands 81 [28], although its importance is not yet well understood.

Studies have shown that aerobic CH₄ oxidation is most prominent in submerged *Sphagnum* mosses in a range of peatlands [12, 29, 30]. Furthermore, the association between methanotrophs and *Sphagnum* was shown to be mutually beneficial Raghoebarsing et al. [31]. The methanotrophs convert CH₄ into CO₂, thereby relieving part of the CO₂ limitation that *Sphagnum* mosses experience [32] especially under submerged conditions [12, 31]. The aerobic MOB in return benefit from O₂ produced and shelter provided by the moss [12].

Molecular surveys showed that several CH₄-oxidizing bacteria are present in *Sphagnum* dominated
 peatlands. *Alphaproteobacterial* methanotrophs typically dominate in 16S rRNA gene libraries over

90 the other methanotroph-containing (sub)phyla Gammaproteobacteria and Verrucomicrobia 91 (Methylacidiphilaceae [33–35]. Within the Alphaproteobacteria especially methanotrophs of the 92 family Methylocystaceae (Methylocystis spp.) and the acidophilic methanotrophs of the family 93 Beijerinckiaceae (Methylocella, Methyloferula, Methylocapsa) are often found and several of these 94 have been isolated from peatlands [24–26, 36, 37]. Using Fluorescence in situ Hybridization (FISH) 95 combined with confocal microscopy, Alphaproteobacteria have shown to be localized inside 96 Sphagnum mosses, in the dead hyaline cells [38]. Furthermore, Verrucomicrobia including the class 97 containing CH₄ oxidizers, Methylacidiphilae, can make up 10% of the total microbial community 98 associated with Sphagnum. However, the Methylacidiphilae found with Sphagnum mosses have not 99 yet been coupled to CH₄-oxidizing activity [34, 39, 40]. Their role in peatland C cycling has yet to be 100 confirmed [23, 41-43].

101 The goal of this study was to design and test a new mesocosm set-up where a submerged Sphaqnum 102 community could be mimicked under fully controlled conditions. In this way, the irregularity and 103 variability often encountered in field studies could be excluded. The new set-up was used to study the 104 association between CH₄ oxidizers and a layer of submerged Sphagnum mosses. We hypothesized that 105 the submerged *Sphaqnum* moss layer acts as a biofilter for CH₄, thereby reducing CH₄ emission to the 106 atmosphere. Furthermore, it is expected that the CH₄-oxidizing microorganisms are associated with 107 Sphagnum, rather than the peat water. Monitoring of the CH₄ flux throughout the mesocosm 108 incubation, as well as CH₄ batch assays and molecular analysis of 16S rRNA gene amplicons and qPCR 109 on 16S rRNA, pmoA and mmoX showed that during the 32 days of incubation aerobic methanotrophs 110 were highly active and enriched in the mesocosm.

111 Materials & Methods

112 Sampling site and field measurements

113 The sampling site was located in the Mariapeel (51°24'28.4"N, 5°55'8"E), a peat bog nature 114 conservation area in the south of the Netherlands. This site was visited for measurements and 115 sampling on 09/08/2017. Net diffusive gas fluxes of CO₂ and CH₄ were measured in the field using a 116 fast greenhouse gas analyzer with cavity ringdown spectroscopy (GGA-24EP; Los Gatos Research, USA) 117 connected to a Perspex chamber (15 cm in diameter). The chamber was put on top of the moss layer 118 for 10 min to measure fluxes of CO₂ and CH₄. In total 3 independent measurements were taken within 119 2 m distance from each other. After removal of the peat moss layer measurements were repeated, 120 after an equilibration period of 15 min. Submerged Sphagnum cuspidatum moss and water were 121 collected after the measurements.

Upon arrival in the laboratory, 1 set of mosses was used to determine field activity, and another part was washed using sterile demineralized H_2O . One fraction of water was used to determine field activity, the other fraction was filtered (2 – 5 nm, HF80S dialysis filter, Fresenius Medical Care, Homburg, Germany). All samples were stored at 4 °C (1 week) until the start of the incubation.

126

127 Mesocosm design

128 The mesocosm consists of a glass cylinder with a diameter of 12 cm and a height of 54 cm, to which a separate reservoir is connected (see Supplementary Figs. 1 and S1). The total reservoir volume is 0.5 129 130 L, the connector tube volume is 0.07 L and the total column volume is 6.11 L. The water level in the 131 mesocosms was maintained at 5.09 L, leaving a headspace of 1.02 L in the column. The column headspace was closed throughout the day using a greased lid with sampling port. Several sampling 132 ports (in the reservoir, cylinder headspace and in the cylinder at 10, 20, 30, 35 and 40 cm height) allow 133 134 for sampling of either the gas or water phase. Throughout the mesocosm incubation all sampling ports 135 were closed off using boiled, red butyl rubber stoppers and capped using metal crimp caps.

136

137 Mesocosm incubation

138 The mesocosms were autoclaved prior to use. Two mesocosms were simultaneously incubated for 139 this experiment. A moss mesocosm, containing 100 Sphagnum cuspidatum plants (6 cm length, 120 g 140 fresh weight) in filtered peat water (5.09 L), and a control mesocosm which contained only filtered 141 peat water (5.09 L). Both mesocosms had an acclimatization period of 7 days prior to sampling. 142 The CH₄ was added via the reservoir headspace and dissolved into the water by stirring with a 2 cm 143 magnetic stir bar at 250 rpm. Throughout the week, lids were opened each morning for 1 h to allow 144 aeration, after which they were closed for the rest of the day. The CH₄ supply in the reservoir 145 headspace was replaced daily, directly after aeration, with a mixture of 50ml 99% CH₄ and 5 ml CO₂. 146 The mesocosm experiment was performed twice, each time for 32 days. Incubations were performed 147 at room temperature. The light regime consisted of 16 h daylight (150 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ photosynthetically 148 active radiation at vegetation level) and 8 h of darkness. Light was supplied on top of the mesocosm 149 column, via 120 deep red/white LED lamps (Philips, Green-Power LED, Poland).

150

151 Mesocosm CH₄ fluxes

152 After the acclimatization period the fate of CH₄ was followed through the mesocosm over time (0 - 32 days). To determine the concentration of CH₄ in the headspace or the concentration of dissolved CH₄ 153 154 in water, gas and water samples were collected via the different sampling ports. A volume of 0.5 ml 155 gas or 0.5 ml water was taken and injected into a closed 5.9 ml Exetainer vial (Labco, Lampeter, UK). 156 The concentration of CH₄ in the headspaces of the reservoir and the column were determined by 157 taking samples directly after closing the column in the morning (0 h) and before opening the column 158 for aeration again (23 h). The concentration of dissolved CH₄ throughout the column was determined 159 once a week, by sampling water at 4 different time points during the day (0 h, 3 h, 7 h, 23 h after 160 closing the headspace).

161 The CH₄ concentration in the Exetainers was measured at least 4 h after sampling to allow for 162 equilibration between Exetainer headspace and liquid. The CH₄ concentration was measured using a

163 gas chromatograph with a flame-ionized detector and a Porapak Q column as described by De Jong et164 al. [4].

Net CH₄ flux in the mesocosm was calculated as the change in CH₄ concentration in the headspace of
 the mesocosm column for each day and divided by the surface area (0.01131 m²) of the mesocosm
 column.

168

169 Potential CH₄ oxidation rates

The CH₄ oxidation rates were determined in triplicate in batch incubations prior to and after mesocosm incubation. Prior to the mesocosm incubation, both unwashed and washed moss (3 g fresh weight) as well as unfiltered and filtered porewater (12 ml) were placed into autoclaved 120 ml serum vials and closed with boiled, red-butyl rubber stoppers and metal crimp-caps. Each batch flask received 2 ml 99% CH₄. The CH₄ concentration in the headspace was followed in time as described for mesocosm CH₄ fluxes.

At the end of the mesocosm experiment, potential CH₄ oxidation rates were determined for the mosses from moss mesocosm and for porewater from both the moss and control mesocosm. Samples were incubated as described above. Two sets of each 3 replicates were incubated, where one set was used to determine CH₄ oxidation rates and the other set received the acetylene (6 ml 99.9% (C₂H₂)), an inhibitor of the CH₄ monooxygenase enzyme, which was added after 10 h of incubation. The concentrations of CH₄ were calculated using a calibration curve that was measured daily.

Ultimately, the CH_4 concentrations were plotted over time, from which CH_4 oxidation rates were calculated from the slope of the linear part of the graph.

184

185 Elemental analysis water

Both unfiltered and filtered peat water was sampled and analyzed. The pH was measured and
elemental composition was determined using the auto analyzer and the ICP-OES as explained before
[34]. Dissolved CH₄ in field porewater was determined by injection of 1 ml porewater into a closed

189 Exetainer (5.9 ml), after 6 hours the headspace CH₄ concentration was measured as described above.
190 Data are shown in Supplementary Table S9.

191

192 DNA extraction

DNA extraction was performed by grinding 5 g of mosses (fresh weight) using pestle and mortar and liquid nitrogen, after which DNA was extracted using the DNeasy Powersoil DNA extraction kit following manufacturers protocol (Qiagen Benelux B.V., Venlo, Netherlands). DNA quality was checked by gel electrophoresis (1% agarose gel in TBE buffer) and fluorometrically using the Qbit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher, Carlsbad, CA).

198

199 Amplicon sequencing and analysis

200 Barcoded Amplicon sequencing of the amplified V3-V4 region of the bacterial 16s rRNA gene (primers 201 Bact-341f and Bact 785r [44]) was done using Illumina Miseq, performed by BaseClear B.V. (Leiden, 202 the Netherlands). A total of 326 045 reads was obtained. The reads were quality filtered and analyzed 203 using Mothur (v1.36.1), following the Illumina Standard Operating Procedure (SOP, accessed on May 204 8th 2018, Kozich et al. 2013). Merged reads shorter than 400 bp were discarded, chimeras were 205 removed using the UCHIME algorithm [46] and the remaining sequences were clustered at 97% 206 identity. The resulting OTUs were classified based on the SILVA v132 16s rRNA gene non-redundant 207 database (SSURef_99_v132_SILVA). Next, non-target sequences (Chloroplasts, Mitochondria, 208 unknown, Archaea and Eukaryota) were removed from the dataset. See Supplementary Tables S1 and 209 S2 for full overview of read processing. The output was analyzed with R (version 3.4.0 by the R 210 Development Core Team [47]) and Rstudio v1.1.456 [48] using the packages Phyloseq [49] and vegan 211 [50]. Singletons were removed, and read libraries of all samples were rarefied by random subsampling 212 (seed: 12345) to 6 500 reads per sample (Rarefaction curves are depicted in Supplementary Fig. S2). 213 A PcoA plot (Supplementary Fig. S4) was created using Phyloseq, and based upon Bray-Curtis

dissimilarity matrix on rarefied data. All sequencing data can be accessed in GenBank NCBI BioProject
 PRJNA517391.

216

217 Quantitative PCR

218 Copy numbers of the Bacterial 16S rRNA gene (for all primers see Table S3; Bact 341f - Bact 785r; 219 Klindworth et al. 2013), as well as functional genes pmoA (primers A189f-A682r; Holmes et al. 1995) 220 and *mmoX* (mmoX1-mmoX2; Miguez et al. 1997) were quantified using a qPCR approach. The qPCR 221 reaction mix consisted of PerfeCTA Quanta master mix (Quanta Bio, Beverly, MA) and 0.5 ng sample 222 DNA and 1µl of each primer (10 µM). In negative controls DNA was replaced by sterilized milli-Q water. 223 The qPCR reaction mix was loaded in triplicate into a 96-well optical PCR plates (Bio-Rad Laboratories 224 B.V., Veenendaal, The Netherlands), closed with an optical adhesive cover (Applied Biosystems, Foster 225 City, CA) and reactions were performed with a C1000 Touch thermal cycler equipped with a CFX96 226 Touch[™] Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad Laboratories B.V., Veenendaal, The Netherlands). 227 Standard curves were obtained via 10-fold dilution series of a PGEM T-easy plasmid (Promega, 228 Madison, WI) containing the target gene. The data was analyzed using Bio-Rad CFX Manager version 229 3.0 (Bio-Rad Laboratories B.V., Veenendaal, The Netherlands). Triplicate analysis per samples were 230 averaged prior to statistical analysis.

231

232 Statistics

The CH₄ flux in the field and in the mesocosm, CH₄ oxidation rates in batch and qPCR data were analyzed using R version 3.4.0 by the R Development Core Team [47]. In order to allow for parametrical statistical tests, Shapiro-Wilk's test was used on the residual (stats-package) to test the normality of the data and Levene's test (car-package) was used to test for homogeneity of variance. If assumptions of tests were not met, data was log-transformed (In), which was the case for the field CH₄ flux data. A paired T-test was used to test whether the net CH₄ flux in the field was affected by the presence of moss (moss field / moss removed). Differences between material (moss/peatwater) in the potential

CH₄ oxidation activity prior to mesocosm incubation was tested using a non-parametric Kruskal Wallis
tests. Within each material (moss/peatwater) the effect of treatment (field / washing or filtering) was
tested using an independent T-test.

- 243 Differences between mesocosms (moss / control), material (moss / peat water) and inhibitor (yes/no)
- in the potential CH₄ oxidation activity after mesocosm incubation, were tested using a 3-way Anova,
- followed by a Tukey HSD post-hoc test. Differences in copy number between each moss sample (Moss
- 246 Field/Moss Washed/Moss incubated) within each target gene (16S rRNA/mmoX/pmoA) was analyzed
- using a one-way Anova, followed by a Tukey HSD post-hoc test. Here, the data for 16S rRNA gene and
- 248 *mmoX* gene were log-transformed (In) prior to analysis.
- 249

250 **Results**

251 Field CH₄ flux

To estimate diffusive CH₄ emissions in the field, flux chamber measurements were carried out in plots with submerged *Sphagnum* mosses before and after removal of the moss layer. The CH₄ emission in the field situation with the submerged *Sphagnum* moss layer resulted in a net total of 4.1 ± 2.1 mmol CH₄ m⁻² day⁻¹ (mean ± SEM, n=3; Fig. 2). Removal of the *Sphagnum* moss layer significantly increased the net CH₄ emission (t₍₂₎ = -6.1, p < 0.05) to a total of 60 ± 32 mmol CH₄ m⁻² day⁻¹ (Fig. 2).

257

258 Methane oxidation activity prior to mesocosm incubation

The CH₄ oxidation rates associated with the *Sphagnum* moss and peat water were determined prior to the incubation in the mesocosm, using batch assays (Fig. 3). *Sphagnum* mosses showed much higher CH₄ oxidation rates (average rate mosses $143 \pm 17 \mu$ mol g DW⁻¹ day⁻¹, Fig. 3) compared to peat water, which had virtually no activity (0.05 ± 0.06 µmol g DW⁻¹ day⁻¹; $\chi^2 = 7.5$, p < 0.01, Supplementary Fig. S5). Washing of the *Sphagnum* mosses was reduced the CH₄ oxidation rate 121 µmol g DW⁻¹ day⁻¹; $t_{(2)}$ = 1.5, p > 0.05).

266 Mesocosm incubation

267 Two parallel mesocosm incubations were performed, one including a Sphagnum layer and one without. The net CH₄ flux in the mesocosm showed a similar pattern for both mesocosms until day 8 268 269 of the incubation (Fig. 4). After 8 days, the moss mesocosm headspace always showed a lower CH₄ 270 concentration than the control mesocosm with only peat water. Furthermore, the emission from the 271 Sphagnum moss mesocosm gradually decreased over the 32 day of the incubation, which is a strong 272 indication of increasing CH₄ oxidation activity. The variation in Fig. 4 is partly due to the daily manual 273 refreshment of CH₄ and air. The experiment was repeated for a second time, and the replicate 274 incubation showed a similar pattern, with lower CH_4 emission with the presence of Sphagnum moss 275 layer (Supplementary Fig. S8 and Tables S7 and S8).

276

277 Methane oxidation activity after mesocosm incubation

278 After 32 days of incubation in the mesocosms, the CH₄ oxidation activity was determined in batch for 279 each element of both mesocosms (water and/or moss). The CH₄ oxidation activity was on average 189 280 μ mol CH₄ g⁻¹ DW day⁻¹ (Table 1) in mosses. Even after mesocosm incubation the peat water showed 281 no CH₄ oxidation activity (R^2 <0.9; see Table 1 and Figs. S6 and S7), indicating that the water is not a 282 favorable place for MOB. In the presence of acetylene, CH₄ oxidation associated with the mosses was 283 almost completely inhibited ($F_{(1,4)}$ = 981.3, p < 0.001), indicating that the CH₄ oxidation rate is entirely 284 associated with methanotrophic microorganisms in or at the moss. Compared to the start of the 285 incubation, the CH₄ oxidation activity associated with mosses had increased by 155% (from 121 to 189 286 μ mol g DW⁻¹ day⁻¹; Table 1 and Fig. 3).

287

288 qPCR

To quantify the microbial community, both qPCR and amplicon sequencing of 16S rRNA genes were performed. Quantification of the bacteria (16S rRNA gene; Fig. 5) showed that bacterial copy numbers differed between all stages ($F_{(2,6)}$ =34.3, p<0.001). Substantial amounts (98%) of presumably epiphytes

were washed away (Tukey HSD p<0.001). At the end of the incubations the copy numbers were back
to about 97% of the original value (Tukey HSD p<0.05).

294 Quantification of methanotrophic microorganisms by mmoX gene and pmoA gene amplification 295 showed a similar trend (mmoX F_(2.6)=40.7, p<0.001; pmoA F_(2.6)=27.1, p<0.001; Fig. 5). The pmoA-296 containing methanotrophs were overall less abundant than *mmoX*-containing methanotrophs (resp. 297 10^5 vs. 10^{10} copies). The washing step greatly reduced the abundance of the *mmoX*-containing 298 methanotrophs from 10¹⁰ to 10² copies (Tukey HSD p<0.001), whereas *pmoA*-containing 299 methanotrophs were much less affected (remained around 10^5 copies; Tukey HSD p>0.05). Upon mesocosm incubation mmoX copies increased from 10^2 to 10^8 (Tukey HSD p<0.001), while pmoA-300 301 containing methanotrophs marginally increased from 10^5 to 10^6 copies (Tukey HSD p<0.01).

302

303 *Microbial community (16S rRNA gene)*

The microbial community associated with the mosses was studied by 16S rRNA gene sequencing of the V3-V4 region. Comparison of the moss microbial community in the field, after washing and after incubation in the mesocosm shows a gradual change in microbial community. However, the main classes remained present throughout the incubation. Furthermore, mesocosm incubation increased diversity of the microbial community (Shannon and Chao 1 index, Table S4).

309 Looking at microbial community composition depicted as relative abundances in Fig. 6A, the 310 Proteobacteria were the overall dominant phylum. Relative abundance of Proteobacteria was not 311 affected by washing, but decreased during incubation in our mesocosm set-up. For the Verrucomicrobiae the relative abundance was lower after washing and increased after incubation. 312 Especially the relative abundance of *Pedosphaerales* and *Opitutales* increased upon incubation 313 314 (Supplementary Table S5). When focusing on the methanotrophic community, the relative abundance 315 of Verrucomicrobial Methylacidiphilales increased by incubation (Fig. 6B). Other methanotrophic 316 species whose relative abundance increased upon incubation are Methylomonas spp. and 317 Methylocystis spp. (Fig. 6B). Only acidophilic Methylocystis isolates, M. bryophila and M. heyeri [53,

318 54], are known to contain both sMMO and pMMO, whereas neutrophilic *Methylocystis* and
319 *Methylocella* species isolated so far only contain pMMO.

320

321 Discussion

322 Mesocosm approach

323 Studying and sampling the Sphagnum microbiome in the field is challenging, because the microbial 324 community associated with the moss is influenced by many biotic and abiotic factors that are not 325 controlled for. After many field campaigns we set out to circumvent these challenges and fluctuations. 326 Therefore, we designed a novel mesocosm set up to mimic submerged Sphagnum moss ecosystem 327 and operated it under controlled laboratory conditions to shed light on the association between 328 aerobic CH₄ oxidizers and a submerged *Sphagnum cuspidatum* community. We hypothesized that the 329 submerged Sphagnum moss layer acts as a biofilter for CH₄ and expected that the CH₄-oxidizing 330 community was mainly associated with Sphagnum moss. Indeed, in this controlled mesocosm set-up, 331 we were able to mimic a significant reduction (31%) in CH₄ emissions as was also observed in the field 332 (Figs. 4 and S8). This CH₄ removal was only associated with the mosses and not found in the peat water.

333

The novel mesocosm set-up allowed for enrichment of both methanotrophic activity and their abundance. Potential CH₄ oxidation batch assays revealed a significant increase in methanotrophic activity after mesocosm incubation (from 121 ± 4 to $189 \pm 6 \mu$ mol CH₄ g⁻¹ DW day⁻¹, resp. Fig. 3 & Table 1). Similarly, qPCR of functional methanotrophic genes (*mmoX* and *pmoA*), indicated that significant numbers of CH₄-oxidizing bacteria were present in and on the moss and that their numbers increased over the course of the incubation.

340

341 Peat mosses strongly facilitate CH₄-oxidizing activity

Washing of the moss and filtering of the peat water had little effect on CH₄ oxidation activity and
 community composition, which underlines the tight association between CH₄ oxidizers and *Sphagnum*

344 mosses. Yet, qPCR revealed that bacterial copy numbers decreased by washing of the moss. The 345 number of sMMO-containing methanotrophs decreased most significantly during washing, indicating that these methanotrophs might only be loosely attached epiphytes on the Sphagnum mosses. 346 However, they showed the highest increase $(10^2 \text{ to } 10^8 \text{ copies/g FW})$ upon mesocosm incubation, 347 348 equaling growth of up to 20 generations in 32 days. The transcription of mmoX gene and activity of 349 sMMO-containing methanotrophs has previously been reported in peatlands [55–57]. The increase in sMMO copy number during incubation suggests that sMMO-containing methanotrophs are 350 351 environmentally relevant in acidic peatland ecosystems, especially in submerged conditions, but their 352 importance and contribution needs further study. Surprisingly, the pMMO-containing methanotrophs 353 were initially less abundant than sMMO-containing methanotrophs, but seemed more tightly 354 associated to the moss as washing had no effect on the copy numbers. There was hardly any increase 355 in abundance upon incubation. Lack of copper might explain why pMMO containing methanotrophs 356 did not thrive in the mesocosm incubation [20]. Ultimately, the enrichment of sMMO-containing 357 methanotrophs upon mesocosm incubation shows that this set-up can be used to further study the 358 functioning of sMMO methanotrophs in Sphaqnum mosses as their ecology is far less understood than 359 that of canonical pMMO containing methanotrophs.

360

361 Microbial community composition

The *Sphagnum*-associated microbial community in all samples of this study showed high similarity to previous *Sphagnum*-associated 16S rRNA gene libraries [34, 38, 39]. Similar dominant community members were found in this study, with dominant phyla being the *Proteobacteria* (*Alpha-* and *Gammaproteobacteria*), *Cyanobacteria* (*Oxyphotobacteria*) and *Acidobacteria* and a relatively high abundance of *Verrucomicrobia*. Upon mesocosm incubation the microbial diversity increased, potentially due to the limited amount of nutrients present compared to field conditions. The relative abundance of *Verrucomicrobia* and *Planctomycetes* increased, whereas the relative abundance of the

369 *Proteobacteria* decreased. Which processes control the changes in the moss-associated microbial
 370 community is topic for further study.

371

372 Strong natural CH₄ filter

373 The reduction of CH₄ emission by the *Sphagnum*-methanotroph interaction in the studied mesocosm 374 set-up is large (31%), compared to other high CH₄ producing moss-dominated ecosystems. In other 375 ecosystems CH₄ oxidation also mitigates CH₄ emission. For example, in the arctic tundra [28] 5% of the 376 total CH₄ emission is mitigated, whereas in hollows in *Sphagnum*-dominated peatland [58] measured 377 CH₄ production and oxidation rates and calculated that nearly 99% of the CH₄ emission was mitigated 378 by CH₄-oxidizing microorganisms. For free-floating wetland plants, it was shown that up to 70% of the 379 CH₄ emission may be oxidized by the combination of decreased flux rates and high CH₄-oxidizing 380 activity [59].

381 Yet, the CH₄ activity in the mesocosm set-up it is lower than the reduction found in the field. This is 382 likely to be caused by the peat moss density, which was much higher in the field, where the moss layer 383 was more than 50 cm deep. Although the stabilization of the net CH₄ flux in both mesocosms occurred 384 relatively quickly (8 days) and considerable CH₄ mitigation was measured after 32 days of incubation, 385 we believe that the CH₄ mitigation by the moss associated methanotrophs in the mesocosm will most 386 probably increase even further by prolonging the incubation time and increased amount of Sphagnum 387 mosses. Additionally, the mesocosm set-up could be improved by replacing the manual addition of 388 CH₄ and air of the mesocosm with a continuous supply system. In a continuous bioreactor set-up, the 389 system is even more stable, and variation is further reduced. The high reduction in CH₄ emission in 390 submerged Sphagnum emphasizes that the methanotrophs associated with Sphagnum are important 391 in CH₄ cycling in peatlands [12, 28–30], as they strongly regulate CH₄ emission from Sphagnum 392 dominated peatlands.

393

394 Implications for degraded peatlands

395 The large organic matter stocks in peatlands are a great potential source for CO₂ when these peatlands 396 are drained. Restoration measures aimed at preventing further oxidation and degradation of these drained peatlands, often involve hydrological measures (rewetting), resulting in inundation of large 397 398 surface areas. After rewetting, anaerobic degradation of organic matter will result in high CH₄ 399 production rates. As shown above, methanotrophs are tightly associated to Sphagnum mosses. 400 Presence of this consortium in restored peatlands can thereby strongly mitigate CH₄ emissions. Since 401 the presence and abundance of *Sphagnum* in peatlands is affected by peatland degradation as well 402 [60, 61], care should be taken to restore and facilitate *Sphagnum* mosses in restored peatlands.

403

404 Conclusion

405 Sphagnum mosses have many key roles in peat ecosystems [62], and this study shows that their 406 microbiome and specifically the methanotrophs associated with Sphagnum are crucial to keep CH₄ 407 emissions from Sphagnum-dominated peatlands low. Peatland restoration practices involving 408 rewetting, should therefore aim to stimulate Sphagnum growth simultaneously, in order to keep CH₄ 409 emissions at bay. The presented mesocosm set-up can be used to further study the effect of various 410 climate change relevant factors (such as temperature, pH, fertilization) on CH₄ cycling in submerged 411 Sphagnum moss ecosystems. Studying the influence of climate change on the Sphagnum-412 methanotroph interaction and CH₄ balance is crucial to get a better understanding of the potential 413 positive feedback loop that reside in peatlands.

414

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421 Availability of data and materials

422 All sequencing data has been deposited in the NCBI SRA database, project number PRJNA517391.

423

424 Competing interests

425 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

426

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594	Table 1 Potential CH_4 oxidation rate in batch, after mesocosm incubation. Moss and peat water
595	samples from each mesocosm were incubated in batch, with or without acetylene. Different italic
596	letters indicate statistical differences between PMO rates, tested by 3-way Anova.
597	
598	Fig. 1 Schematic set up of mesocosm incubation with in A. control mesocosms containing only filtered
599	peat water (blue) and in B. the moss mesocosms, containing sphagnum moss layer (green) in filtered
600	peat water.
601	
602	Fig. 2 Net CH ₄ flux (mmol CH ₄ m ⁻² day ⁻¹) measured in the field with <i>Sphagnum</i> moss layer present
603	(green, n=3) and after moss removal (blue, n=3). Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean.
604	
605	Fig. 3 Potential CH ₄ oxidation rate in batch, associated with field Sphagnum mosses (light green, μ mol
606	CH ₄ g ⁻¹ DW day ⁻¹) or washed Sphagnum mosses (darker colors) and rates in peat water unfiltered or
607	filtered. Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean (n=3).
608	
609	Fig. 4 Net CH ₄ flux (mmol CH ₄ m ⁻² day ⁻¹) from the mesocosms with <i>Sphagnum</i> moss (green) and the
610	control mesocosm with only peat water (blue) measured in the headspace over time (days). Each dot
611	represents the mean of 2 technical replicates.
612	
613	Fig. 5 Copy numbers of bacteria 16S rRNA, pmoA and mmoX genes obtained via qPCR. Error bars
614	indicate the standard error of the mean (n=3).
615	
616	Fig. 6 A Phylogenetic classification of the bacterial community based on 16S rRNA gene amplification
617	and sequencing. Taxonomic groups with a relative abundance <1% are depicted as "Other". In B

618 specific relative abundances (RA in %) of methanotrophic bacteria in the bacterial 16s rRNA

619 community profile are shown.

620 **Tables**

- 621 Table 1 Potential CH₄ oxidation rate in batch, after mesocosm incubation. Moss and peat water samples from
- 622 each mesocosm were incubated in batch, with or without acetylene. Different italic letters indicate statistical
- 623 differences between PMO rates, tested by 3-way Anova.
- 624

Material	Mesocosm	Treatment	Potential methane oxidation rate			
			(µmol CH₄ g⁻¹ DW day⁻¹)	SEM	R²	n
Moss	Moss		189 <i>a</i>	6	0.98	3
Moss	Moss	+ acetylene	2.0 b	2	0.30	3
Material	Mesocosm	Treatment	Potential methane oxidation rate			
			(µmol CH₄ ml⁻¹ day⁻¹)	SEM	R ²	n
Water	Moss		0.02 a	0.02	0.17	3
Water	Moss	+ acetylene	0.03 a	0.01	0.51	3
Water	Peatwater only		0.09 b	0.01	0.86	3
Water	Peatwater only	+ acetylene	0.05 b	0.01	0.67	3

625

637

626 Figures



mesocosms containing only filtered peat water (blue) and in **B.** the moss mesocosms, containing sphagnum moss layer (green) in filtered peat water.





Fig. 4 Net CH_4 flux (mmol CH_4 m⁻² day⁻¹) from the mesocosms with *Sphagnum* moss (green) and the control mesocosm with only peat water (blue) measured in the headspace over time (days). Each dot represents the mean of 2 technical replicates.



Fig. 5 Copy numbers of bacteria 16S rRNA, *pmoA* and *mmoX* genes obtained via qPCR. Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean.

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Α

100 -					Relative abundance (%)		nce (%)	
				ISS		Moss	Moss	Moss
				Acidobacteriia		Field	Washed	incubated
				Actinobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria; Methylococcales;			
75-				Bacteroidia	Crenothrix	0.08	0.02	0.02
				Chlamydiiae	Methylobacter	0	0.02	0
3				Holophagae	Methylomonas	0.80	4.80	10.65
3				Oxyphotobacteria	Methylovulum	0	0	0.03
50 -				Parcubacteria	Methylococcaceae; unclassified	0	0	0.14
				Phycisphaerae	Methylomonaceae;unclassified	0.29	0.42	3.40
				Planctomycetacia	unclassified	0.11	0.02	0.08
				Alphaproteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria; Rhizobiales; Beijerinckiad	ceae		
25 -				Deltaproteobacteria 9	Methylobacterium	0.02	0	0.06
				Gammaproteobacteria	Methylocystis	3.00	2.11	4.32
				Verrucomicrobiae	Methylovirgula	0.74	0.58	0.18
				Other	Verrucomicrobiae; Methylacidiphilales; Methyla	acidiphila.ce	ae	
o -					Methylacidiphilales	0.75	0.29	1.62
	Moss	Moss	Moss					
	Field	Washed	Incubated					

RA (%) 15 10

> 5 2 1

> 0

В

Fig. 6 A Phylogenetic classification of the bacterial community based on 16S rRNA gene amplification and sequencing. Taxonomic groups with a relative abundance <1% are depicted as "Other". In **B** specific relative abundances (RA in %) of methanotrophic bacteria in the bacterial 16s rRNA community profile are shown.