



Submitted Manuscript: Confidential

6 May 2015

Exploring deep microbial life in coal-bearing sediment down to ~2.5 km below the ocean floor

Fumio Inagaki,^{1,2*} Kai-Uwe Hinrichs,^{3*} Yusuke Kubo,^{4,5} Marshall W. Bowles,³ Verena B. Heuer,³ Wei-Li Hong,^{6,a} Tatsuhiko Hoshino,^{1,2} Akira Ijiri,^{1,2} Hiroyuki Imachi,^{2,7} Motoo Ito,^{1,2} Masanori Kaneko,^{2,8} Mark A. Lever,^{9,b} Yu-Shih Lin,^{3,c} Barbara A. Methé,¹⁰ Sumito Morita,¹¹ Yuki Morono,^{1,2} Wataru Tanikawa,^{1,2} Monika Bihan,¹⁰ Stephen A. Bowden,¹² Marcus Elvert,³ Clemens Glombitza,⁹ Doris Gross,¹³ Guy J. Harrington,¹⁴ Tomoyuki Hori,¹⁵ Kelvin Li,¹⁰ David Limmer,^{12,d} Chang-Hong Liu,¹⁶ Masafumi Murayama,¹⁷ Naohiko Ohkouchi,^{2,8} Shuhei Ono,¹⁸ Young-Soo Park,^{19,8} Stephen C. Phillips,²⁰ Xavier Prieto-Mollar,³ Marcella Purkey,²¹ Natascha Riedinger,^{22,e} Yoshinori Sanada,^{4,5} Justine Sauvage,²³ Glen Snyder,^{24,f} Rita Susilawati,²⁵ Yoshinori Takano,^{2,8} Eiji Tasumi,⁷ Takeshi Terada,²⁶ Hitoshi Tomaru,²⁷ Elizabeth Trembath-Reichert,²⁸ David T. Wang,¹⁸ Yasuhiro Yamada^{5,29}

¹Kochi Institute for Core Sample Research, Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology (JAMSTEC), Nankoku, Kochi 783-8502, Japan.

²Research and Development Center for Marine Resources, JAMSTEC, Yokosuka 237-0061, Japan.

³MARUM Center for Marine Environmental Sciences, University of Bremen, D-28359 Bremen, Germany.

⁴Center for Deep-Earth Exploration, JAMSTEC, Yokohama 236-0061, Japan.

⁵Research and Development Center for Ocean Drilling Science, JAMSTEC, Yokohama 236-0001, Japan.

⁶College of Earth, Ocean, and Atmospheric Sciences, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR 97331, U.S.A.

⁷Department of Subsurface Geobiological Analysis and Research, JAMSTEC, Yokosuka 237-0061, Japan.

⁸Department of Biogeochemistry, JAMSTEC, Yokosuka 237-0061, Japan.

⁹Center for Geomicrobiology, Department of Bioscience, Aarhus University, DK-8000 Aarhus C, Denmark.

¹⁰Department of Environmental Genomics, J. Craig Venter Institute, Rockville MD 20850, U.S.A.

¹¹Geological Survey of Japan, AIST, Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305-8567, Japan.

¹²Department of Geology and Petroleum Geology, School of Geosciences, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen AB2A 3UE, United Kingdom.

¹³Department of Applied Geosciences and Geophysics, Montanuniversität, 8700 Leoben, Austria.

¹⁴Earth Sciences, School of Geography Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, B15 2TT, United Kingdom.

¹⁵Research Institute for Environmental Management Technology, National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology (AIST), Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305-8569, Japan.

¹⁶The State Key Laboratory of Pharmaceutical Biotechnology, School of Life Science, Nanjing University, Nanjing, Jiangsu 210093, China.

¹⁷Center for Advanced Marine Core Research, Kochi University, Nankoku, Kochi 783-8502, Japan.

¹⁸Department of Earth, Atmospheric and Planetary Sciences, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139, U.S.A.

¹⁹Petroleum and Marine Resources Research Division, Korea Institute of Geoscience and Mineral Resources (KIGAM), Yuseong-gu, Daejeon 305-350, Korea.

²⁰Department of Earth Sciences, University of New Hampshire, Durham, NH 03824, U.S.A.

²¹Department of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Lincoln, NE 68588, U.S.A.

²²Department of Earth Sciences, University of California Riverside, Riverside, CA 92521, U.S.A.

²³Graduate School of Oceanography, University of Rhode Island, Narragansett, RI 02882, U.S.A.

²⁴Department of Earth Science, Rice University, Houston, TX77005, U.S.A.

²⁵School of Earth Science, University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD 4072, Australia.

²⁶Marine Works Japan Ltd., Yokosuka 237-0063, Japan.

²⁷Department of Earth Sciences, Graduate School of Science, Chiba University, Chiba 263-8522, Japan.

²⁸Geological and Planetary Sciences, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA 91125, U.S.A.

²⁹Department of Urban Management, Graduate School of Engineering, Kyoto University, Kyoto 615-8540, Japan.

*Correspondence to:

Fumio Inagaki (inagaki@jamstec.go.jp) and Kai-Uwe Hinrichs (khinrichs@uni-bremen.de).

[§]Deceased

Present address:

^aCAGE - Centre for Arctic Gas Hydrate, Environment and Climate, Department of Geology, UiT The Arctic University of Norway, N-9037 Tromsø, Norway.

^bDepartment of Environmental Systems Science, ETH Zurich, 8092 Zurich, Switzerland.

^cDepartment of Oceanography, National Sun Yat-Sen University, Kaohsiung 80424, Taiwan.

^dAdrok Ltd., Edinburgh, Scotland, EH6 5NX, United Kingdom.

^eBoone Pickens School of Geology, 105 Noble Research Center, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078-3031, U.S.A.

[†]Gas Hydrate Research Laboratory, Meiji University, Tokyo 101-8301, Japan.

1 **Abstract:** Microbial populations inhabit deeply buried marine sediments, but the extent of this
2 vast ecosystem is poorly constrained. Here we provide evidence for the existence of microbial
3 communities in sediment associated with lignite coalbeds at ~1.9 to 2.5 km below the seafloor in
4 the Pacific Ocean off Japan. Microbial methanogenesis is indicated by isotopic data of methane
5 and carbon dioxide, methanogenic biomarkers, cultivation and gas composition results. Rigorous
6 protocols aimed at minimizing and correcting for sample contamination resulted in indigenous
7 biomass estimates as low as ~10 cells cm⁻³ or less in the ~40 to 60°C warm sediments, while
8 coal-bearing sediment layers had elevated cell concentrations. This ultra-deep microbial
9 community is taxonomically distinct from typical shallower deep-biosphere communities found
10 at this and other marine locations.

11
12 **One Sentence Summary:** Microbial life is barely detectable in ~1.5- to 2.5-km deeply buried
13 sediment laden with biogenic methane but stimulated in coal-bearing horizons.

14
15 **Main Text:** Microbial life has been found in marine sediments buried up to 1,922 meters below
16 the seafloor (mbsf) (1), with cell numbers decreasing logarithmically with increasing burial
17 depth (2). However, the extent of the deep subseafloor biosphere and factors limiting or
18 stimulating life at its lower boundaries remain largely unknown, partly due to the technological
19 challenges associated with obtaining pristine scientific samples from great burial depths.
20 Biodegradation of heavy oils points to the potential existence of microbial life in fossil fuel
21 reservoirs of down to ~4 km depth [e.g., (3, 4)]; however, retrieval of microbiological samples
22 from these hydrocarbon reservoirs was long beyond the technical capabilities of the scientific
23 ocean drilling program.

24 We studied the microbial communities associated with deep subseafloor coalbeds that are
25 widespread along the Western Pacific continental margins (5). During Integrated Ocean Drilling
26 Program (IODP) Expedition 337 in 2012, we drilled and recovered sediments of marine and
27 transitional environments down to 2,466 mbsf using the riser-drilling vessel *Chikyu* at Site
28 C0020 in the northwestern Pacific margin (41°10.5983'N, 142°12.0328'E, 1,180 m water depth;
29 fig. S1) (6). The site is located in the forearc basin offshore of the Shimokita Peninsula, Japan,
30 where organic matter-rich sediments were deposited in coastal environments in the late
31 Paleogene before the depositional environment turned marine in the course of subsidence (5).
32 The series of ~1.9 to 2.5 km deeply buried lignite coalbeds are 0.3 to 7 m thick (6). Due to the
33 relatively low geothermal temperature gradient of 24°C km⁻¹ at this site (6), the deepest horizons
34 are well within the temperature limits of microbial life (i.e., <60°C).

35 We detected intact microbial cells throughout the entire drilled sediment core down to the
36 deepest sample at 2,458 mbsf. Cell concentrations decreased with depth, but in an unexpected
37 fashion. In the “shallow subseafloor” above 365 mbsf, which was recovered during the *Chikyu*
38 cruise CK06-06 from the top portion of the borehole in 2006 (6, 7), concentrations decreased
39 steadily with depth from ~10⁹ to ~10⁷ cells cm⁻³ (8) and exceeded predictions based on the global
40 regression line from previous surveys of cell concentrations at ocean margins (2) (Fig. 1A, table
41 S1). By contrast, cellular concentrations in the “deep subseafloor” below ~1.5 km typically
42 ranged from ~10² to 10³ cells cm⁻³, with local peaks in coal-bearing horizons (Fig. 1A).

43 These low cell concentrations required implementation of a rigorous contamination
44 control in order to characterize the indigenous deep coalbed biosphere. To minimize and quantify
45 the potential contamination of sediment samples introduced during drilling, we investigated
46 whole round core sections by X-ray computed tomography, took microbiological samples from
47 the center part of undisturbed core intervals, and monitored the intrusion of drill fluids into the
48 core by perfluorocarbon tracer assays (6, 7). As additional validation, we analyzed and
49 sequenced the V1 to V3 region of 16S rRNA genes in all sediment samples (7) obtained by riser
50 drilling in parallel to control samples consisting of drill mud and lab experimental blanks, to
51 differentiate indigenous microbial communities from contaminant cells (fig. S2) (7). We applied
52 a novel probabilistic approach incorporating taxon variability across samples to identify the
53 likelihood that each taxon would be consistently sampled either exclusively or mutually from the
54 control and sediment sample sets (7). In this way, we determined not only which taxa were found
55 exclusively in the sediment sample sets (“most conservative”) (figs. S2 to S4, table S1), but also
56 cases of potentially indigenous taxa, which were inconsistently identified with low abundance in
57 the contaminant samples, but consistently found with significant abundance in the sediment
58 samples (“most ~~likely~~probable”) (figs. S5 and S6, table S1). From this, we derived correction
59 factors (table S1) to the raw cell concentrations to estimate the corresponding populations sizes.
60 We used the results of both taxonomy-based sequence filtration and the probability-based
61 relationship analysis for 16S rRNA gene sequences to estimate the “most conservative” and
62 “most probable” indigenous cell concentrations, respectively (Fig. 1A, table S1) (7). These
63 estimated population densities are drastically lower than predicted by the slope of the global
64 regression line (2) and are even lower than previously reported values from one of the most
65 oligotrophic seafloor settings on Earth, the South Pacific Gyre (9).

66 Despite the very low cell numbers, geochemical data indicate microbial activity even in
67 the deepest sediment horizons sampled. Carbon isotopic compositions of methane ($\delta^{13}\text{C-CH}_4$)
68 and ratios of methane over ethane (C_1/C_2) (Fig. 1B and C), both continuously monitored in
69 circulating mud gas during riser drilling (6), testify to microbial methanogenesis as the
70 predominant source of methane (cf. 10) throughout the entire drilled sedimentary sequence.
71 Positive inflections of C_1/C_2 ratios between 1,700 and 2,000 mbsf suggest that biological
72 methanogenesis is stimulated in coal-bearing horizons (Fig. 1C), where contamination-corrected
73 cell concentrations reach $\sim 10^2$ to 10^4 cm^{-3} (Fig. 1A), as well as in the overlying 200 m of
74 sediment. Hydrogen isotopic compositions of methane ($\delta\text{D-CH}_4$) range from -200‰ to -150‰
75 (Fig. 1B), consistent with its production by hydrogenotrophic CO_2 reduction (10). Local
76 increases in $\delta^{13}\text{C-CO}_2$ in coal-bearing horizons are further evidence for the CO_2 pool being
77 isotopically fractionated by microbial methanogenesis (Fig. 1C). Moreover, *in situ* production of
78 methane is supported by the abundance of $^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{D}$, a rare doubly substituted isotopologue of
79 methane, in formation fluids sampled in two discrete coalbed horizons (Fig. 1B, table S2) (6,7).
80 These analyses returned low $\Delta^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{D}$ -based temperatures of 70_{-9}^{+9} and 70_{-21}^{+24} °C (table S2), thus
81 arguing against substantial contributions of more deeply sourced, thermogenic methane, which
82 would be expected to carry clumped-isotope temperatures $>150^\circ\text{C}$ (11). In addition, we detected
83 coenzyme F_{430} in core samples, providing direct biomarker evidence for the activity of
84 methanogenesis in ~ 2 km-deep coalbeds (Fig. 2A, table S3) (12, 13). Coenzyme F_{430} is a key
85 prosthetic group of methyl-coenzyme M reductase that catalyzes the last step of methanogenesis;
86 its concentrations in deep sediments are \sim two orders of magnitude lower than in shallow

Commented [KH1]: Probable?

87 sediments (table S3), indicating the presence of a small but persistent community of
88 methanogens in deep coal-bearing layers.

89 In a continuous-flow bioreactor (cf. 14) at near *in situ* temperature (40°C), we
90 successfully enriched methanogenic communities from ~2 km-deep coalbed samples that
91 produced up to ~0.6 μM of methane after 35 days (Fig. 2B to 2G). Analysis of methyl-coenzyme
92 M reductase genes (*mcrA*) indicated growth of hydrogenotrophic methanogens closely related to
93 *Methanobacterium subterraneum* and *Methanobacterium formicicum* (fig. S7). These species
94 have previously been detected in terrestrial coalbeds (15) and in shallower, methane hydrate-
95 bearing sediments at Site C0020 (14). Using nano-scale secondary ion-mass spectrometry (7,
96 16), we detected the incorporation of ¹³C-labeled bicarbonate into cellular biomass (Fig. 2E to
97 G). Collectively, these microbiological and geochemical findings indicate that microbial
98 communities are stimulated by the presence of coalbeds and that hydrogenotrophic methanogens
99 act as terminal remineralizers.

100 Despite the geochemical and biomarker-based evidence for the activity of methanogenic
101 archaea, we were not able to amplify archaeal 16S rRNA and *mcrA* genes by polymerase chain
102 reaction (PCR) from the sediment core samples (7), except for two genes related to
103 *Methanococcus maripaludis* and *Methanosarcina barkeri* (fig. S7). Archaeal 16S rRNA genes
104 were neither quantifiable by digital PCR (17) nor stably amplifiable using multiple primer sets,
105 indicating that this deep subseafloor microbial ecosystem harbors substantially lower proportions
106 of Archaea than shallower sediments at this and other ocean margin sites (18). The difficulty to
107 detect methanogenic archaea using multiple molecular assays is not unexpected given their
108 generally low relative abundance of <1%, even in methane-laden subseafloor sediments (19).

109 Taxonomic distribution of the most conservative indigenous communities based on 16S
110 rRNA gene sequences show that bacterial communities in “deep subseafloor” habitats (1,278 to
111 2,458 mbsf) differ profoundly from “shallow subseafloor” communities (0-364 mbsf) (Fig. 3,
112 table S4, figs. S3 and S4). For example, lower proportions of sequence reads affiliated with the
113 phyla Chloroflexi or ‘Atribacteria’ [candidate division JS1 (20, 21)], both globally abundant
114 groups in subseafloor sediments at ocean margins (22, 23), were detected in the deep layers (Fig.
115 3A, table S4, fig. S3). The sequence assemblage in deep layers is mostly represented by
116 heterotrophic bacteria with close relatives commonly found in forest soils or organic-rich
117 freshwater environments (Fig. 3A, table S4, fig. S4); however, the strong difference in
118 composition and distribution between the deep assemblage and subsurface soil ecosystems (e.g.,
119 ref. 24) suggests that the conditions in the deep habitats have selected for this residual population
120 (e.g., Gemmatimonadetes, Synergistetes: fig. S8). (7). Beta-diversity analyses indicate the
121 existence of bacterial communities that statistically differ from those found in shallow and deep
122 sedimentary habitats. Clustering and Bray-Curtis dissimilarity analyses (Fig. 3B) as well as
123 multidimensional scaling analysis (fig. S9) based on family/genus-level classification show that
124 there are distinguishable clusters aligned with distinct depositional settings: deep-sea
125 diatomaceous sediment, lacustrine or shallow marine sediment, and wetland or peat-derived
126 coaly sediment (Fig. 3B).

127 Our combined microbial and geochemical dataset provides an opportunity to examine the
128 factors that limit microbial life below ~1.5 kmbsf. The concentration of dissolved hydrogen (H₂),
129 a key intermediate in the anaerobic degradation of organic matter, is an important gauge of the
130 bioenergetic status of anaerobic microbial ecosystems (25, 26). At Site C0020, the uniformly
131 high H₂ concentrations of ~1 to ~500 μM in sediments below 1.5 km (fig. S10, table S5) result in

132 Gibbs free energy yields of hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis that are much more negative than
133 those previously documented from energy-rich surface environments (fig. S11, tables S6 and S7;
134 ref. 25). These high H₂ concentrations suggest very low H₂ turnover rates, and might be the
135 direct consequence of low population densities of microorganisms with low viabilities and
136 consequently low cell-specific energy turnover. Under these circumstances the coupling between
137 substrate production and substrate uptake may be severely delayed resulting in long residence
138 times and accumulation of H₂ to high concentrations in sediment porewater. Despite the high H₂
139 concentrations, a range of organotrophic reactions involving the breakdown of cellular building
140 blocks and other intermediates are likely to be thermodynamically favorable, and explain the
141 presence of alive and active microbial populations (fig. S11).

142 In addition to energy from organotrophic reactions, an important factor controlling the
143 viability and size of microbial communities buried more deeply than 1.5 km could be the
144 increase in energy expended on the repair of biomolecules. Abiotic amino acid racemization and
145 DNA depurination are biomolecule-damaging reactions, the rates of which increase
146 exponentially with temperature (27) (fig. S12). Substantial increases in both modeled amino acid
147 racemization and DNA depurination rates with depth at Site C0020 coincide with a dramatic
148 drop in cell numbers. The increased energetic cost of biomolecule repair could result in a higher
149 cell-specific energy demand in the ultra-deep habitats at Site C0020 and explain why microbial
150 abundance is only a small fraction of the size predicted by the global regression line.

References and Notes:

1. M.-C. Ciobanu *et al.*, *ISME J.* **8**, 1370 (2014).
2. R. J. Parkes, B. A. Cragg, P. Wellsbury, *Hydrogeol J.* **8**, 11 (2000).
3. I. M. Head, D. M. Jones, S. R. Larter, *Nature* **426**, 344 (2003).
4. D. M. Jones *et al.*, *Nature* **451**, 176 (2008).
5. A. I. Konyukhov, *Lithol. Miner. Resour.* **45**, 465 (2010).
6. F. Inagaki, K.-U. Hinrichs, Y. Kubo, the Expedition 337 Scientists, *Proceedings of the Integrated Ocean Drilling Program* (IODP, Tokyo, 2013), vol. 337; 10.2204/iodp.proc.337.103.2013.
7. Materials and methods are available as supplementary materials on *Science Online*.
8. Y. Morono, T. Terada, N. Masui, F. Inagaki, *ISME J.* **3**, 503 (2009).
9. S. D'Hondt *et al.*, *Nat. Geosci.* **8**, 299 (2015).
10. M. J. Whiticar, *Chem. Geol.* **161**, 291 (1999).
11. D. A. Stolper *et al.*, *Science* **344**, 1500 (2014).
12. M. Kaneko *et al.*, *Anal. Chem.* **86**, 3633 (2014).
13. Y. Takano *et al.*, *Org. Geochem.* **58**, 137 (2013).
14. H. Imachi *et al.*, *ISME J.* **5**, 1751 (2011).
15. D. Strapoc *et al.*, *Annu. Rev. Earth Planet. Sci.* **39**, 617 (2011).

Commented [KH2]: Revision checklist: Titles can be included in references. These will display online. There should be only one reference list placed at the end of the main text.

16. Y. Morono *et al.*, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **108**, 18295 (2011).
17. T. Hoshino, F. Inagaki, *Syst. Appl. Microbiol.* **35**, 390 (2012).
18. J. S. Lipp, Y. Morono, F. Inagaki, K.-U. Hinrichs, *Nature* **454**, 991 (2008).
19. F. S. Colwell *et al.*, *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **74**, 3444 (2008).
20. G. Webster, R. J. Parkes, J. C. Fry, A. J. Weightman, *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **70**, 5708 (2004).
21. J. A. Dodsworth *et al.*, *Nat. Commun.* **4**, 1854 (2013).
22. F. Inagaki *et al.*, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **103**, 2815 (2006).
23. A. P. Teske, *Geomicrobiol. J.* **23**, 357 (2006).
24. J. A. Siles, C. T. Rachid, I. Sampedro, I. Garcia-Romera, J. M. Tiedje, *PLoS ONE* **24**, e103035 (2014).
25. T. M. Hoehler, M. J. Alperin, D. B. Albert, C. S. Martens, *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **62**, 1745 (1998).
26. B. Schink, *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.*, **61**, 262 (1997).
27. P. B. Price, T. Sowers, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **101**, 4631 (2004).

Acknowledgments: The authors are grateful to the Integrated Ocean Drilling Program (IODP) and the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan (MEXT) for providing an opportunity to explore the deep coalbed biosphere off Shimokita during Expedition 337. We thank all crews, drilling team members, lab technicians and scientists on the drilling vessel *Chikyu* for supporting core sampling and onboard measurements during the *Chikyu* shakedown cruise CK06-06 and the IODP Expedition 337. The authors wish to thank J. A. McKenzie and K. H. Nealson for useful discussions during project design, S. Fukunaga, S. Hashimoto, A. Imajo, Y. Saito, S. Tanaka and N. Xiao for assistance in microbiological analyses, and D. Gruen for technical assistance during clumped isotope analysis. This work was supported in part by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) Strategic Fund for Strengthening Leading-Edge Research and Development (to F.I. and JAMSTEC), the JSPS Funding Program for Next Generation World-Leading Researchers (NEXT Program, no. GR102 to F.I.), the JSPS Grants-in-Aid for Science Research (no. 26251041 to F.I., no. 24770033 to T.H., no. 24687011 to H. I., no. 26287142 to M.I., and no. 24651018 and 24687004 to Y.M.), the European Research Council (Advanced Grant no. 247153 to K.-U.H.), and the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft through project HI 616/16 (to K.-U.H.) and through MARUM - Cluster of Excellence 309. All shipboard and shore-based data presented in this manuscript are archived and publicly available on-line in either the IODP Expedition 337 Proceedings (6) through the J-CORES (<http://sio7.jamstec.go.jp/j-cores.data/337/C0020A/>), or the PANGAEA database (www.pangaea.de, doi:###), respectively. This is a contribution to the Deep Carbon Observatory (DCO).

Supplementary Materials:

Materials and Methods

Figures S1-S12

Tables S1-S7

References (28-79)

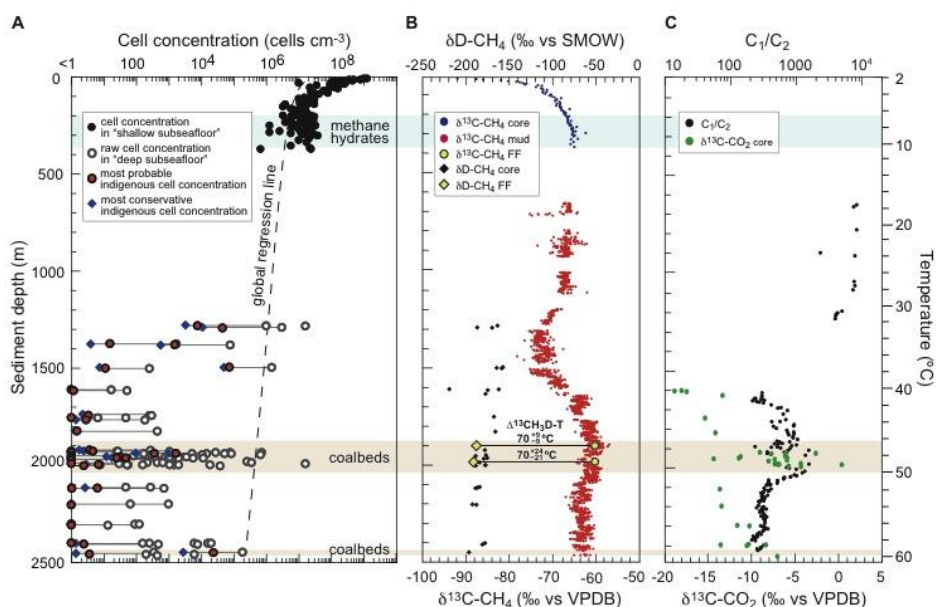


Fig. 1. Depth profiles of microbial cell counts and geochemical data at Site C0020. (A) microbial cell concentrations, (B) $\delta^{13}C$ and δD of methane, and (C) C_1/C_2 ratios and $\delta^{13}C$ of CO_2 . (A) For cell concentrations in “deep subseafloor”, raw data of fluorescence image-based cell counts (8), the most conservative indigenous cell concentrations estimated based on the taxonomic classification (7), and the most probable indigenous cell concentrations based on the probability-relationship set analysis (7) are shown (cf. table S1). Based on raw cell concentrations and the proportion of 16S rRNA gene sequence reads most conservatively identified as members of the indigenous population (7; table S1), the minimal estimate of *in situ* microbial cell numbers per sample was estimated as follows: $n' = a/b \cdot n$, where n' = indigenous cell count, n = raw cell count, a = number of sequences remaining after removal of potential contaminant sequence reads, and b = total number of reads sequenced. The correction factor a/b is the proportion of sequences estimated to be indigenous. The minimal quantification limit for raw cell counts was 1.43×10^2 cells cm^{-3} ; i.e., the upper 95% confidence interval of negative background. All $\delta^{13}C$ and δD in (B) and (C) are in ‰ versus Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) and Standard Mean Ocean Water (SMOW), respectively. The $\Delta^{13}CH_3D-T$ values designate the apparent equilibrium temperatures derived from measurements of methane’s clumped isotopologue $^{13}CH_3D$ (table S2) in discrete formation fluid (FF) samples (6, 7). Temperature is based on the temperature gradient of $24.0^\circ C km^{-1}$ determined by downhole logging (6).

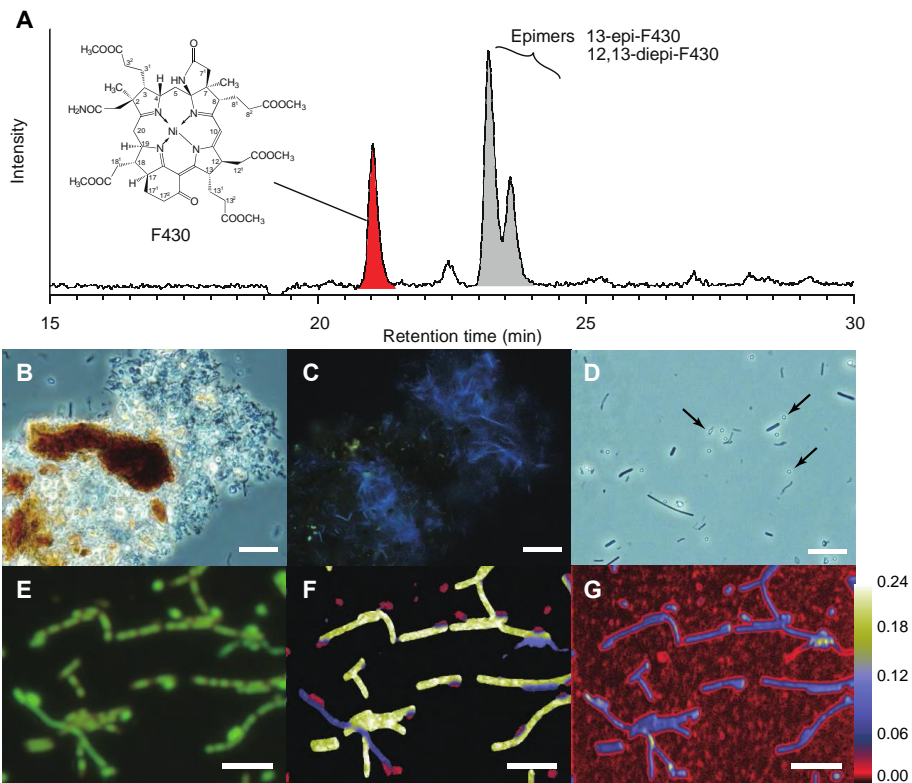


Fig. 2. Geochemical and microbiological indications for methanogenic microbial communities in ~2-km-deep seafloor coalbeds. (A) A representative chromatogram of the diagnostic methanogen biomarker intact F₄₃₀ and its epimers from a coal sample (Core 18R-2, 1,946 mbsf; table S3). (B-D) Photomicrographs of an enrichment culture from ~2-km-deep coalbed samples using a continuous-flow bioreactor (7). (B) Phase-contrast micrograph of microbial cells attached to mineral particles. (C) Fluorescent micrograph of the same field of (B) shows growth of methanogens that produce auto-fluorescence derived from coenzyme F₄₂₀. (D) Phase-contrast micrograph shows spherical spore-like particles indicated by arrows. (E-G) Nano-scale secondary ion-mass spectrometry (NanoSIMS) analysis of cells in the reactor enrichment culture incubated with ¹³C-labeled bicarbonate (7). (E) Fluorescent micrograph of SYBR Green I-stained cells. (F and G) NanoSIMS ion image of (F) ¹³C/¹²C and (G) ¹²C, color gradient indicates relative ¹³C abundance expressed as ¹³C/¹²C. Bar length is 10 μm.

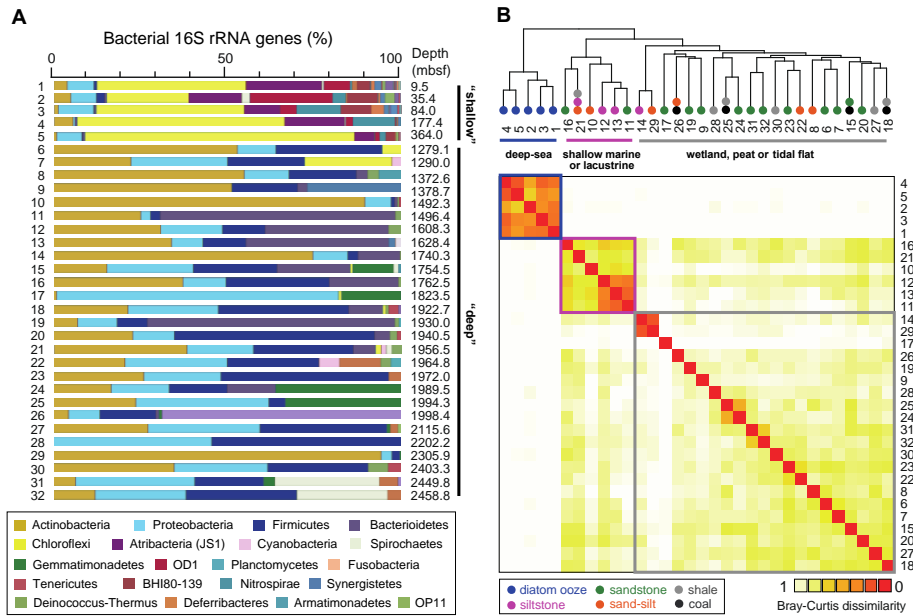


Fig. 3. Taxonomic distribution of the most conservative indigenous bacterial communities in sediments at Site C0020. (A) Phylum/class-level taxonomic composition of bacterial 16S rRNA gene-tagged sequences (i.e., V1-V3 region) in “shallow subseafloor” (no. 1 to 5, 9.5-364 mbsf from the *Chikyu* cruise CK06-06) and “deep subseafloor” (no. 6 to 32, 1279.1-2458.8 mbsf from the IODP Expedition 333) sediment samples (7). (B) Cluster and Bray-Curtis dissimilarity analysis of bacterial community structure based on the family/genus-level classification of the same sequence assemblages used in (A). Color dots and lines represent lithological characteristics and depositional environment of each sample horizon, respectively (7).