



Title	Seasonal Changes in Organic Matter Mineralization in a Sublittoral Sediment and Temperature-Driven Decoupling of Key Processes
Author(s)	Tabuchi, Keiichi; Kojima, Hisaya; Fukui, Manabu
Citation	Microbial Ecology, 60(3), 551-560 https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-010-9659-9
Issue Date	2010-10
Doc URL	http://hdl.handle.net/2115/47188
Rights	The original publication is available at www.springerlink.com
Type	article (author version)
File Information	ME60-3_551-560.pdf



[Instructions for use](#)

Seasonal changes in organic matter mineralization in a sublittoral sediment and temperature-driven decoupling of key processes

Keiichi Tabuchi¹, Hisaya Kojima^{2*}, and Manabu Fukui^{1,2}

1. Department of Biological Sciences, Graduate School of Science, Tokyo Metropolitan University, Tokyo, Japan

2. The Institute of Low Temperature Science, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan

Running head: Decoupling of key processes in anaerobic mineralization of organic matter

*Corresponding author.

E-mail: kojimah@pop.lowtem.hokudai.ac.jp

Fax: +81-11-706-5460

1 **Abstract**

2 Seasonal changes in the mineralization of organic compounds in sediments were
3 investigated in temperate, sublittoral zone sediments (Tokyo Bay, Japan). The total
4 mineralization rate and sulfate reduction rate showed large seasonal variations over the
5 year, and although the fluctuations in both rates correlated with temperature, the latter
6 was irregularly high in May. The concentration of organic carbon dissolved in
7 interstitial water was specifically high in April. A culture-based experiment was also
8 conducted under temperatures corresponding to the seasonal changes. In the culture
9 incubated at a temperature corresponding to April (13°C), hydrolysis and fermentation
10 proceeded, but terminal oxidation was hindered, thereby resulting in acetate
11 accumulation. At a temperature corresponding to May (22°C), acetate oxidation coupled
12 with sulfate reduction was observed. The temperature-related differences were also
13 reflected in the bacterial community structure in the cultures analyzed by DGGE. In the
14 culture incubated at the lower temperature, sulfate-reducing bacteria of incomplete
15 oxidizers was detected, while sequence found in the culture incubated at the higher
16 temperature was related to complete oxidizers. These results suggest that complete and
17 incomplete oxidizing sulfate-reducing bacteria act as distinct functional groups,
18 responding to temperature in different ways, particularly in environments characterized
19 by large temperature fluctuations.

20

21 **Introduction**

22 In the global carbon cycle, organic carbon sedimented and buried in aquatic

1 environments plays a significant role as a major sink of carbon [7, 8]. Whether the
2 sedimented organic carbon is recycled or remains buried permanently largely depends
3 on microbial activity. With regard to marine systems, sedimentation mainly occurs in
4 coastal areas including tidal flats and sublittoral zones which are one of the most
5 productive marine ecosystems. In addition to active on-site primary production of
6 organic matter, sublittoral zones receive the organic matter transported from terrestrial
7 ecosystems. Thus, sublittoral sediments are exposed to a high input of organic
8 compounds of both autochthonous and allochthonous origin.

9 Due to the limited availability of oxygen, degradation of the organic matter deposited
10 in marine sediments mainly proceeds anaerobically [2, 5]. Under anaerobic conditions,
11 high molecular weight organic matter is not mineralized at once, but is gradually
12 degraded via hydrolysis, fermentation, and terminal oxidization of the low molecular
13 weight organic compounds generated. These sequential processes are mediated by
14 microorganisms specialized for each step. Therefore, the organic carbon mineralization
15 rate in tidal flats might be affected by the activities of various microorganisms that
16 respond to environmental changes in different ways. In a previous study, too high or too
17 low temperatures were shown to induce decoupling of the key phases in anaerobic
18 mineralization in marine sediments [30]. The imbalance was explained to result from
19 the differences between the thermal responses of organisms responsible for terminal
20 mineralization and other preceding processes [30]. This finding is very important for a
21 comprehensive understanding of organic compound degradation in aquatic sediments,
22 which is significant to the global carbon budget. The universality of this laboratory

1 phenomenon, however, has not been completely verified yet by sufficient field
2 observations or other additional experiments.

3 In the present study, we investigated the seasonal changes in the mineralization of
4 organic compounds in a temperate sublittoral zone. In marine sediments, the terminal
5 step of mineralization is mainly undertaken by sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) [5, 11,
6 13, 17]. Hence, we monitored the total mineralization rate along with the sulfate
7 reduction rate (SRR) throughout the year. In addition, a culture-based experiment was
8 conducted in order to test a hypothesis to explain the observed seasonal fluctuations as
9 consequences of the differences in the temperature characteristics of functional bacterial
10 groups.

11

12 **Methods**

13

14 **Study site and sampling**

15 The study site (39°39.0'N, 139°55.5'E) was situated in Sanban-ze on the north
16 coast of Tokyo Bay, Japan. The routine water depth at the study site was approximately
17 1 m, and sediments appeared above the water level only a few times a year. At the study
18 site, accumulation of macroalgae was observed during summer. Monthly sampling was
19 conducted from October 1999 to October 2000. Samples of the sediment core were
20 manually obtained using acrylic tubes (inner diameter, 4.6 cm; length, 30 cm). The
21 tubes containing the sediment core samples were sealed with rubber stoppers and
22 transported to the laboratory in an ice-cooled box. All sediment core samples were

1 obtained during low tide on days of spring tide.

2 **Measurements of physicochemical properties**

3 On return to the laboratory (within a few hours after sampling), the sediment cores
4 were sectioned (the top 2 cm of the sediment and 3-cm layers below it). The basic
5 characteristics of the sediments, such as water content and loss-on-ignition, were
6 determined. The sectioned sediment samples were weighed and then dried at 95°C for
7 24 h. The dried samples were weighed and then baked at 550°C for 2 h. The water
8 content and loss-on-ignition were calculated from the decrease in weight after drying
9 and baking, respectively. For chemical analyses, the interstitial water samples obtained
10 by centrifugation of the sectioned sediment samples were used. The interstitial water
11 samples obtained were filtered using a 0.22- μ m filter and were stored at -20°C till
12 chemical analyses. The concentrations of sulfate and chloride were determined using an
13 ion chromatograph (DX-120; Dionex, Sunnyvale, CA) equipped with a column for
14 anion analyses (AS4A; Dionex). To remove the interference caused by the excess
15 chloride, the samples were diluted (1:400) prior to analysis. The dissolved organic
16 carbon (DOC) concentrations were determined using a total organic carbon analyzer
17 (TOC-5000; Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). Before analysis, the samples were acidified by
18 the addition of HCl and were then purged with dinitrogen gas to remove the inorganic
19 carbon.

20

21 **Total mineralization rate**

22 The total mineralization rate was determined from the incubation experiment as

1 described previously [11]. Undisturbed sediment cores were incubated under dark
2 conditions at *in situ* temperature. Prior to incubation, the overlying water was replaced
3 with filter-sterilized water to exclude the effect of planktonic organisms. After
4 incubation for 20 h, the dissolved inorganic carbon concentrations in the overlying
5 water and interstitial water were determined using an infrared gas analyzer. The total
6 mineralization rate in each layer was calculated from the increase in inorganic carbon
7 during incubation, and the change in the inorganic carbon content in the overlying water
8 was assumed to be attributable to the mineralization in the surface layer of the sediment.

9

10 **Sulfate reduction rate**

11 The sulfate reduction rate for each layer of sediment was measured using a
12 radiotracer as described previously [10, 27]. Briefly, a carrier-free solution of $\text{Na}_2^{35}\text{SO}_4$
13 was injected into each portion of the sediment. After incubation for 20 h at *in situ*
14 temperature, the reduced inorganic sulfur compounds were converted into H_2S by
15 chromium reduction and then volatilized by HCl . The generated H_2S was trapped using
16 paper impregnated with zinc acetate solution in order to measure radioactivity. The
17 sulfate reduction rate was calculated from the incubation time, amount of $^{35}\text{S}^{2-}$
18 generated, sulfate content in the sediment, and isotope fractionation factor.

19

20 **Extracellular enzyme activity**

21 The activity of β -glucosidase, the major extracellular enzyme hydrolyzing high
22 molecular weight organic polymers, was determined using fluorogenic substrates. The

1 assay method was modified from that described in previous studies [2, 4, 14]. A slurry
2 of the sediment was prepared by mixing 1.2 ml of the weighed sediment with 7.2 ml of
3 filtered seawater. Stock solution of 4-methylumbelliferyl β -D-glucoside was added to
4 the sediment slurry to obtain a final concentration of 50 μ M. The stock solution was
5 prepared by dissolving the substrate in ethylene glycol monomethyl ether. After
6 incubation for 10 min to 20 min at *in situ* temperature, the reaction was stopped by
7 addition of NaOH solution (final concentration, 90 mM). The sediment particles and
8 suspended substances were removed by centrifugation and subsequent filtration. The
9 fluophor in the supernatant was quantified by measuring the fluorescence (excitation,
10 365 nm; emission, 455 nm) using a fluorescence spectrophotometer (Hitachi 650-10;
11 Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan). The calibration curve was obtained from a
12 4-methylumbelliferone (MFU) solution of a known concentration. The hydrolysis rate
13 was calculated from the incubation time and the difference in the fluophor content
14 between the incubated samples and controls (no incubation).

15

16 **Enrichment culture experiment**

17 An enrichment culture experiment was conducted to examine the effect of
18 temperature on mineralization under sulfate-reducing conditions. Throughout the
19 experiment, bicarbonate-buffered and sulfide-reduced medium was used as the basal
20 medium [31]. The medium contained the following constituents (l^{-1}): 20.0 g NaCl; 4 g
21 Na_2SO_4 ; 0.2 g KH_2PO_4 ; 0.25 g NH_4Cl ; 3.0 g $MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$; 0.5 g KCl; 0.15 g
22 $CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$; 1 ml trace element solution; 1 ml selenite-tungstate solution; 1 ml vitamin

1 mixture solution; 1 ml vitamin B₁₂ solution; 30 ml of 1 M NaHCO₃ solution; and 1.5 ml
2 of 1 M Na₂S solution [31]. To simulate winter conditions, the first enrichment culture
3 was incubated at a low temperature. In a 250-ml flat bottle, 5 ml of the sediment
4 obtained in May 2000 was inoculated in 220 ml of the medium with 0.5 g cellobiose
5 added as the carbon source. The headspace was filled with an N₂/CO₂ mixture (80:20),
6 and the sealed bottle was incubated at 7°C for 2 months. From the subsequent resultant
7 culture, a second set of enrichment cultures were incubated at 4 different temperatures
8 corresponding to seasonal fluctuations. The first enrichment culture was transferred to a
9 new medium and incubated at 7°C, 13°C, 22°C, and 29°C. These temperatures were
10 selected based on field observations (see below for detail). Each enrichment culture in
11 the second set was prepared in 500-ml flat bottles containing 440 ml of the basal
12 medium, 1 g cellobiose, and 10 ml of the first enrichment culture as an inoculum.

13 During incubation at the 4 temperatures, the changes in the concentrations of sulfide,
14 DOC, and organic acids were monitored. The concentration of dissolved sulfide was
15 determined by a colorimetric method [6], and DOC was quantified as described above.
16 Organic acids (volatile fatty acids, VFAs) were analyzed using a high-performance
17 liquid chromatography system. A column (SCR-101H; Shimadzu) was used for
18 separation during organic acid analysis, and the column temperature was maintained at
19 50°C. Perchloric acid solution (pH 2.0) was used as an aqueous mobile phase at a flow
20 rate of 1 ml·min⁻¹. The absorbance at 210 nm was measured using a UV detector
21 (Hitachi L-4000).

22

1 **Denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) analysis of the enrichment**
2 **cultures**

3 The bacterial community structure in the cultures incubated at different
4 temperatures was analyzed by DGGE. Cells were harvested from a 10-ml aliquot of
5 each culture by centrifugation. Each culture was sampled 3 times in order to monitor the
6 changes in the community structure throughout the incubation period. Total DNA was
7 extracted using a method described previously [32]. The 16S rRNA gene fragments
8 were amplified using the primers 341F-GC/907R under PCR conditions as described
9 previously [21]. DGGE and subsequent sequencing of the major bands were performed
10 as described previously [16]. Sequence-specific separation was performed using a
11 1.5-mm-thick 6% (w/v) polyacrylamide gel (acrylamide:bisacrylamide = 37.5:1). The
12 denaturation gradient ranged from 20% to 60% (100% corresponding to 40% (v/v)
13 formamide and 7 M urea), and the electrophoresis was conducted at 60°C for 240 min at
14 a constant voltage of 200 V. The sequence of each DGGE band was subjected to the
15 RDP Classifier [28] from the Ribosomal Database Project-II Release 10
16 (<http://rdp.cme.msu.edu/index.jsp>). Based on the phylogenetic affiliation inferred with
17 the default settings, the noticeable bands were selected for further detailed analysis. The
18 sequences of these bands and the related sequences retrieved from the database were
19 aligned by using the program, ClustalX [26]. MEGA3 was used to calculate the genetic
20 distances using Kimura's 2-parameter model and to construct the phylogenetic tree by
21 the minimum evolution method [18]. The robustness of the tree obtained was examined
22 by bootstrap testing of 1000 replicates.

1

2 **Nucleotide sequence accession numbers**

3 The nucleotide sequences obtained in this study were assigned the
4 DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank accession numbers AB534762–AB534772.

5

6

7 **Results**

8

9 **Characteristics of the sediments**

10 During the study period, the recorded temperatures of bottom water ranged
11 from 6.5°C to 32.8°C. At all sampling times, the temperature of the bottom water was
12 virtually identical to that of the sediment surface. The chloride concentration in the
13 bottom water ranged from 360 mM to 550 mM (Table 1).

14 At the study site, the upper portion of the sediment was mainly composed of silt and
15 clay, but fine sand was predominant in those portions of the sediment that were deeper
16 than 15 cm. The water content and loss-on-ignition did not show any obvious
17 tendencies (Table 2). The sulfate concentration in the interstitial water varied depending
18 on the sampling date; however, there was no significant vertical change in any of the
19 core samples (Table 3). Even in the deep layers of the sediment, the sulfate
20 concentrations were equivalent to those in the overlying water. As an exceptional case,
21 in one of the core samples, i.e., the one obtained in October 2000, the sulfate
22 concentration decreased with depth and was almost depleted over an 8- to 11-cm layer.

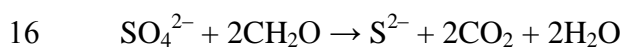
1 The changes in the DOC concentration are summarized in Table 4. In April 2000,
2 outstanding accumulation of DOC was observed, and a high DOC concentration was
3 also observed in May.

4

5 **Microbial activity**

6 The total mineralization rate showed large seasonal variations, but exhibited
7 similar vertical profile independent of the sampling date (Fig. 1). On all sampling dates,
8 the highest rate was observed in the 0- to 2-cm layer. The SRR also varied seasonally,
9 but the vertical profiles showed no constant depth-related trend (Fig. 2). These
10 depth-related changes could not be explained by any of the factors, including water
11 content, loss-on-ignition, sulfate concentration, or DOC.

12 In Fig. 3, the cumulative total mineralization and sulfate reduction rates are
13 shown in relation to temperature. For each sampling date, SRRs measured over 5 layers
14 (from the surface to a depth of 14 cm) were added and then converted into the
15 respective CO₂ production rates using the equation



17 To evaluate the contribution of SRR, the total mineralization rates are also shown as
18 a sum of values from the corresponding layers. As clearly shown in Fig. 3, the
19 highest SRR measured in May 2000 was distinctly greater than the SRR expected
20 from the temperature-related trend. In that month, the estimated contribution of
21 sulfate reduction to the total mineralization reached 67%. All cumulative SRRs other
22 than this showed a strong positive correlation with temperature ($r^2 = 0.962$; $p <$

1 0.00001; n = 9).

2 The seasonal variations in the potential activity of β -glucosidase are shown in
3 Fig. 4 as MFU production rates. Higher β -glucosidase activity was observed in the
4 upper layers of the sediment, particularly during spring and summer. The highest
5 β -glucosidase activity, i.e., $1.61 \mu\text{mol MUF}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}\text{h}^{-1}$, was observed in May 2000 in the
6 0- to 2-cm layer. In the deeper layers, the β -glucosidase activity was consistently low
7 ($0.04\text{--}0.41 \mu\text{mol MUF}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}\text{h}^{-1}$) irrespective of the sampling date. These results
8 indicated that active hydrolysis of organic polymers by extracellular enzymes was
9 restricted to portions near the sediment surface, as demonstrated in previous studies in
10 other localities [4, 20, 22].

11

12 **Culture experiment**

13 Changes in the concentration of sulfide, DOC, and VFAs in the cultures incubated at
14 the 4 temperatures are shown in Fig. 5. In all cultures, only formate and acetate were
15 detected as the major VFAs. In the culture incubated at 7°C , the decrease in DOC and
16 sulfide production stopped after incubation for 10 d, despite the remaining sulfate.
17 Formate accumulated in the early phase and then decreased rapidly, but acetate
18 increased consistently during the monitoring. In case of the culture incubated at 13°C ,
19 the pattern of changes in DOC and sulfide concentrations was similar to that in the
20 culture incubated at 7°C ; however, the concentration of VFA appeared to peak earlier.
21 In the culture incubated at 22°C , sulfide increased throughout the experiment and DOC
22 decreased accordingly. The pattern of changes in the VFAs was similar to that in case of

1 the culture incubated at 13°C, but significant acetate consumption was observed in the
2 latter stage. In the culture incubated at 29°C, active sulfide production was observed till
3 depletion of sulfate in the medium. The decline in DOC was terminated along with
4 stoppage of sulfide production. With regard to VFAs, formate was detected only on the
5 first day, and acetate was consumed rapidly after accumulation in the first 5 days. For
6 all cultures, the sulfide concentrations were monitored till day 47; however, no change
7 was observed after day 30.

8 The bacterial community structure in the cultures was analyzed by DGGE. In
9 all 4 cultures, shifts in the bacterial community structure were observed along the
10 incubation period (Fig. 6). Temperature-related differences were also observed, despite
11 the similarities between the bacterial community structure in the cultures incubated at
12 lower temperatures (7°C and 13°C). The phylogenetic affiliations of the DGGE bands
13 are summarized in Table. 5. Among the 11 sequenced bands, 4 were revealed to
14 originate from SRBs belonging to the class Deltaproteobacteria (Fig. 7). One of these
15 bands, i.e., TK3, was detected from the cultures incubated at lower temperatures (7°C
16 and 13°C). In contrast, bands TK10 and TK12 were observed only in the cultures
17 incubated at 22°C and 29°C. The other SRB band (TK13) was specific to the culture
18 incubated at the highest temperature. Based on the phylogenetic analysis, the organism
19 corresponding to the band TK12 was inferred to be a complete oxidizer, characterized
20 by the ability to utilize acetate as an electron donor for growth. The other bands of SRB
21 appeared to originate from incomplete oxidizers, which cannot grow on acetate.

22

1 **Discussion**

2

3 On August 30, 2000, an anomalously high total mineralization rate was observed
4 (Figs. 1 and 3) in sublittoral zone sediments from Sanban-Ze, Tokyo Bay, Japan. At the
5 study site, macroalgae of the family Cladophoraceae had flourished at the beginning of
6 that month, but had been discolored and had begun to decay by the end of that month.
7 Thus, a massive supply of organic compounds of algal origin might have induced the
8 anomalous mineralization. By excluding this sampling data, significant correlations
9 were detected between temperature and the total mineralization in the tests performed
10 on individual layers. These significant correlations ($p < 0.05$; $n = 9$) were observed in all
11 layers, except the 0- to 2-cm layer. The predominant effect of temperature on total
12 mineralization has been demonstrated in previous studies [11, 19], and the importance
13 of organic substrate availability has also been shown [1, 29]. The inconsistency in the
14 temperature-activity relationships in the surface layer may be explained by the
15 variations in the supply of organic matter from the sediment surface.

16 Seasonal changes in the SRR significantly correlated with temperature fluctuations,
17 except in May 2000, when the highest activity was observed (Fig. 3). This irregular
18 SRR appeared to be related to the accumulation of DOC in spring, although the highest
19 DOC concentration was observed in April (Table 4). As a unified explanation for DOC
20 accumulation and the subsequent drastic increase in SRR, the following hypotheses
21 were formulated and tested in the culture-based experiment. (i) During winter, all
22 microbial activity was suppressed, leading to accumulation of undissolved organic

1 material. (ii) In early spring, hydrolysis and/or fermentation were activated, but not
2 terminal mineralization by SRB, thus resulting in the accumulation of DOC. (iii) With
3 increasing temperature, the SRB community became active, and the accumulated DOC
4 facilitated the irregularly high SRR. (iv) After depletion of the accumulated DOC, the
5 SRR was controlled by temperature. The cultures were incubated at different
6 temperatures to correspond to these presumed stages. Analysis of the cultures showed
7 differences between the cellobiose mineralization processes in the cultures incubated at
8 lower temperatures (7°C /13°C) and those incubated at higher temperatures (22°C
9 /29°C). In the cultures incubated at lower temperatures, DOC consumption and sulfide
10 production slowed, despite the remaining sulfate. When sulfide production stopped,
11 approximately 20 mM acetate remained, corresponding to ca. 80% of the DOC left
12 unutilized (each acetate molecule contains 2 carbon atoms). These results indicated that
13 hydrolysis and fermentation had proceeded at the lower temperatures, whereas terminal
14 oxidation of acetate was hindered. Sulfate reduction observed in the early phase would
15 have been conducted by incomplete oxidizers by utilizing formate or another substrate.
16 In contrast, in the culture incubated at 22°C, the sulfide content increased consistently,
17 and considerable acetate consumption was observed. These results suggest that the
18 threshold temperature for the activation of complete-oxidizing sulfate reducers within
19 these sediments was between 13°C and 22°C, corresponding to the temperatures of
20 April and May, respectively, at the study site. Therefore, the results of the culture
21 experiment were consistent with our field observations. Although the hypotheses were
22 partially supported, the difference between 7°C (corresponding to February) and 13°C

1 was not as significant as presumed. The high concentration of DOC observed in April
2 might have resulted from DOC accumulation during the prolonged winter, rather than
3 from the elevation in the activity in early spring. The seasonal variations in the supply
4 of organic matter under actual field conditions must also be taken into account.

5 Significant differences were also observed in the bacterial community structure
6 between the cultures incubated at 13°C and 22°C as revealed by DGGE analysis. Since
7 only a limited number of bands could be identified, relationships between bacterial
8 community compositions and degradation processes are still unclear. However, the
9 results of the phylogenetic analysis of the sequenced bands did not conflict with the
10 interpretation described above. The SRB detected in the culture experiment incubated at
11 lower temperatures (band TK3) was related to sequences belonging to incomplete
12 oxidizers, and sequence related to complete oxidizers was detected in cultures incubated
13 at higher temperatures (band TK12).

14 The results of the culture experiment in the present study are consistent with
15 the results of a previous experiment on sediment slurries that examined temperature
16 responses [30]. In that study, the rate of hydrolysis/fermentation exceeded the terminal
17 oxidation rate at low temperatures. In the present study, sulfate reduction occurred even
18 at the lower temperatures, but was not coupled with acetate oxidation. In studies that
19 recognize anaerobic degradation of organic matter as a multistep process, sulfate
20 reduction has generally been regarded as the terminal mineralization step. As shown in
21 the culture experiment, however, sulfate reduction can be accompanied with acetate
22 production when it is mediated by incomplete oxidizers [31]. The results of the present

1 study also suggested that the contributions of complete- and incomplete-oxidizing
2 sulfate reducers to the total SRR can vary depending on the temperature.

3 The results of the present study predict the predominance of incomplete
4 oxidizers over complete oxidizers in low-temperature environments. However, this
5 result may not always be consistent with the results of previous studies, particularly
6 those conducted in permanently cold marine sediments. In such studies, complete
7 oxidizers have been detected as the major members of the SRB community [23, 24],
8 although the predominance of incomplete oxidizers has been reported from another site
9 [15, 25]. Further, it has also been suggested that complete mineralization of organic
10 matter can proceed without decoupling of the key steps [9]. The phenomenon observed
11 in the present study might be specific to environments characterized by large
12 temperature fluctuations and high organic carbon inputs

13

14

15 **Acknowledgement**

16 We are grateful to Susumu Takii for valuable discussion.

17

1 **References**

2

3 1. Arnosti C, Segemann J, Jørgensen BB, Thamdrup B (1998) Temperature dependence
4 of microbial degradation of organic matter in marine sediments: polysaccharide
5 hydrolysis, oxygen consumption and sulfate reduction. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 165: 59-70

6

7 2. Belanger C, Brigitte-Destosières KL (1997) Microbial extracellular enzyme activity in
8 marine sediments: extreme pH to terminate reaction and sample storage. *Aqua Microb*
9 *Ecol* 13: 187-196

10

11 3. Berner RA (1978) Sulfate reduction and the rate of deposition of marine sediments.
12 *Earth Planet Sci Lett* 37: 492-498

13

14 4. Boschker HTS, Cappenberg TE (1994) A sensitive method using
15 4-methylumbelliferyl-D-cellobiose as a substrate to measure (1,4)- β -glucanase activity
16 in sediments. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 60: 3592-3596

17

18 5. Canfield DE, Fossing H, Jørgensen BB, Glud R, Gundersen J, Ramsing NB,
19 Thamdrup B, Hansen JW, Nielsen LP, Hall POJ (1993) Pathways of organic carbon
20 oxidation in three continental margin sediments. *Mar Geol* 113: 27-40

21

22 6. Cline JD (1969) Spectrophotometric determination of hydrogen sulfide in natural
23 waters. *Limnol Oceanogr* 14: 454-458

24

25 7. Dean WE, Gorham E (2009) Magnitude and significance of carbon burial in lakes,
26 reservoirs, and peatlands. *Geology* 26:535–538

27

28 8. Emerson S, Hedges JI (1988) Processes controlling the organic carbon content of
29 open ocean sediments. *Paleoceanography* 3:621-634

30

31 9. Finke N, Vandieken V, Jørgensen BB. (2007) Acetate, lactate, propionate, and
32 isobutyrate as electron donors for iron and sulfate reduction in Arctic marine sediments,

- 1 Svalbard. FEMS Microbiol Ecol 59:10-22
2
- 3 10. Fukui M, Takii S (1990) Seasonal variations of population density and activity of
4 sulfate-reducing bacteria in offshore and reed sediments of a hypertrophic freshwater
5 lake. Jpn J Limnol 51: 63–71
6
- 7 11. Howes BL, Decay JWH, King GM (1984) Carbon flow through oxygen and sulfate
8 reduction pathways in salt marsh sediments. Limnol Oceanogr 29: 1037-1051
9
- 10 12. Isaksen MF, Jørgensen BB (1996) Adaptation of psychrophilic and psychrophilic
11 sulfate-reducing bacteria to permanently cold marine environments. Appl Environ
12 Microbiol 62: 408-414
13
- 14 13. Jørgensen BB (1982) Mineralization of organic matter in the sea bed-the role of
15 sulphate reduction. Nature 296: 643-645
16
- 17 14. King GM (1986) Characterization of β -Glucosidase activity in intertidal marine
18 sediments. Appl Environ Microbiol 51: 373-380
19
- 20 15. Knoblauch C, Jørgensen BB, Harder J (1999) Community size and metabolic rates
21 of psychrophilic sulfate-reducing bacteria in Arctic marine sediments. Appl Environ
22 Microbiol 65: 4230-4233
23
- 24 16. Koizumi Y, Kojima H, Fukui M (2003) Characterization of depth-related microbial
25 community structure in lake sediment by denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis of
26 amplified 16S rDNA and reversely transcribed 16S rRNA fragments. FEMS Microbiol
27 Ecol 46: 147-157
28
- 29 17. Kostka, JE, Thamdrup B, Gulg RN, Canfield DE (1999) Rates and pathways of
30 carbon oxidation in permanently cold Arctic sediments. Marine ecology progress series
31 180: 7-21
32
- 33 18. Kumar S, Tamura K, Nei M (2004) MEGA3: Integrated software for Molecular

- 1 Evolutionary Genetics Analysis and sequence alignment. *Briefings in Bioinformatics*
2 5:150-163
3
- 4 19. Liikanen A, Murtoniemi T, Tanskanen H, Vaisanen T, Martikainen PJ (2002) Effects
5 of temperature and oxygen availability on greenhouse gas and nutrient dynamics in
6 sediment of a eutrophic mid-boreal lake. *Biogeochemistry* 59: 269-286
7
- 8 20. Meyer-Reil, L-A (1986) Measurement of hydrolytic activity and incorporation of
9 dissolved organic substrates by microorganisms in marine sediments. *Marine ecology*
10 *progress series* 31: 143-149
11
- 12 21. Muyzer G, De Waals EC, Uitterlinden AG (1993) Profiling of complex microbial
13 populations by denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis analysis of polymerase chain
14 reaction-amplified gene coding for 16S rRNA. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 59: 695-700
15
- 16 22. Poremba K, Hoppe H-G (1995) Spatial variation of benthic microbial production
17 and hydrolytic enzymatic activity down the continental slope of the Celtic Sea. *Marine*
18 *ecology progress series* 118: 237-245
19
- 20 23. Ravenschlag K, Sahn K, Knoblqugh C, Jørgensen BB, Amann R (2000)
21 Community structure, cellular rRNA content, and activity of sulfate-reducing bacteria in
22 marine Arctic sediments. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 66: 3592-3602
23
- 24 24. Robador A, Brüchert V, Jørgensen BB. (2009) The impact of temperature change on
25 the activity and community composition of sulfate-reducing bacteria in arctic versus
26 temperate marine sediments. *Environ Microbiol* 11:1692-1703
27
- 28 25. Sahn K, Knoblaugh C, Amann R (1999) Phylogenic affiliation and quantification of
29 psychrophilic sulfate-reducing isolates in marine Arctic sediments. *Appl Environ*
30 *Microbiol* 65: 3976-3981
31
- 32 26. Thompson JD, Gibson TJ, Plewniak F, Jeanmougin F, Higgins DG (1997) The
33 ClustalX windows interface: flexible strategies for multiple sequence alignment aided

- 1 by quality analysis tools. *Nucleic Acids Res* 24:4876-4882
- 2
- 3 27. Ulrich GA, Krumholz LR, Suflita JM (1997) A rapid and simple method for
- 4 estimating sulfate reduction activity and quantifying inorganic sulfides. *Appl Environ*
- 5 *Microbiol* 63: 1627-1630
- 6
- 7 28. Wang Q, Garrity GM, Tiedje JM, Cole JR. (2007) Naïve Bayesian Classifier for
- 8 Rapid Assignment of rRNA Sequences into the New Bacterial Taxonomy. *Appl Environ*
- 9 *Microbiol* 73: 5261-5267
- 10
- 11 29. Westrich JT, Berner RA (1988) The effect of temperature on rates of sulfate
- 12 reduction in marine sediments. *Geomicrobiol J* 6: 99-117
- 13
- 14 30. Weston NB, Joye SB (2005) Temperature–driven decoupling of key phases of
- 15 organic matter degradation in marine sediments. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 102:
- 16 17036-17040
- 17
- 18 31. Widdel F, Bak F (1992) Gram-negative mesophilic sulfate-reducing bacteria. *The*
- 19 *Prokaryotes*, 2nd ed., vol. 4. New York, Springer-Verlag: 3352-3378.
- 20
- 21 32. Wilson K (1990) Miniprep of bacterial genomic DNA, In: Ausubel EM, Brent R,
- 22 Kingston RE, Moore DD, Seidman JG, Smith JA, Struhl K (Eds.), *Short Protocols in*
- 23 *Molecular Biology*, 2nd ed. John Wiley and Sons, New York, p. 2.4.1-2.
- 24
- 25

1 **Figure legends**

2

3 Fig. 1. Total mineralization rate determined from incubation of undisturbed cores. Error
4 bars indicate standard deviation. In 5 Feb and 30 Aug, measurements were conducted
5 with single core.

6

7 Fig. 2. Sulfate reduction rate determined with the radiotracer methods. Error bars
8 indicate standard deviation.

9

10 Fig. 3. Relationships between temperature and mineralization rate. Both total
11 mineralization (open circle) and contribution of sulfate reduction (solid circle) are
12 shown as cumulative rates calculated from measurement values of five layers (from
13 surface to 14 cm depth).

14

15 Fig. 4. Vertical profiles of β -glucosidase activity.

16

17 Fig. 5. Changes in sulfide, DOC, and VFAs concentrations in enrich cultures of
18 differing temperatures.

19

20 Fig. 6. DGGE band patterns of the enrichment cultures incubated at different
21 temperatures. Numbers on the lanes indicate incubation time (day).

22

23 Fig. 7. Minimum evolution tree showing the phylogenetic affiliations of DGGE bands
24 identified as sulfate reducers. Numbers on nodes are percentage values of 1000
25 bootstrap resamplings (values greater than 50 are shown).

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

Table 1. Characteristics of overlying water

	1999		2000								
	29 Oct	24 Nov	22 Dec	5 Feb	6 Mar	7 Apr	6 May	3 Jun	1 Aug	30 Aug	14 Oct
Temperature (°C)	18.3	14.5	7.4	6.5	8.1	13.5	22.0	25.8	32.3	32.8	20.3
Dissolved oxygen (g O ₂ /l)	6.07	4.92	8.80	11.33	10.54	- ^a	-	-	-	-	-
Chloride (mM)	533	512	543	484	444	493	443	452	364	-	476

a) -, not determined

1
2
3

Table 2. Water content and loss-on-ignition of sediment

	Depth (cm)	1999			2000							
		29 Oct	24 Nov	22 Dec	5 Feb	6 Mar	7 Apr	6 May	3 Jun	1 Aug	30 Aug	14 Oct
Water content (g/cm ³)	0-2	0.53	0.69	0.67	0.65	0.73	0.74	0.68	0.65	0.66	0.59	0.62
	2-5	0.55	0.57	0.66	0.63	0.57	0.60	0.61	0.53	0.61	0.60	0.66
	5-8	0.56	0.56	0.53	0.62	0.53	0.53	0.53	0.52	0.60	0.52	0.71
	8-11	0.53	0.55	0.52	0.57	0.52	0.56	0.55	0.50	0.53	0.52	0.68
	11-14	0.41	0.57	0.50	0.55	0.51	0.51	0.54	0.53	0.50	0.47	0.63
	14-17	0.42	0.46	0.48	0.54	0.48	0.49	0.52	0.50	0.51	0.50	0.70
Loss-on-ignition (%)	0-2	4.86	4.84	4.99	5.12	5.59	4.79	4.46	4.42	4.88	4.73	4.10
	2-5	4.51	4.34	6.19	5.05	4.01	3.89	4.07	3.22	5.01	5.27	4.84
	5-8	4.59	3.58	3.64	4.93	3.10	3.26	3.06	3.41	5.24	3.96	6.86
	8-11	4.73	3.57	3.12	4.01	3.44	4.02	3.80	3.35	3.89	3.95	6.96
	11-14	3.51	3.66	3.08	3.81	3.29	3.13	3.47	4.43	2.97	2.95	5.71
	14-17	2.69	2.87	3.05	3.73	2.55	2.60	3.23	3.03	2.50	3.20	7.77

4
5

1 Table 3. Sulfate concentration in interstitial water (mM)

2

Sediment depth (cm)	1999			2000							
	29 Oct	24 Nov	22 Dec	5 Feb	6 Mar	7 Apr	6 May	3 Jun	1 Aug	30 Aug	14 Oct
0-2	21.2	24.5	24.7	25.4	24.3	24.6	25.8	23.0	17.1	- ^a	21.9
2-5	21.1	18.4	25.6	26.0	26.0	26.8	26.2	23.2	16.2	-	9.7
5-8	23.6	20.8	25.5	25.3	27.3	27.6	25.3	22.5	17.3	-	2.0
8-11	25.1	22.4	25.8	26.9	26.7	27.0	25.5	21.7	17.9	-	0.6
11-14	24.3	23.1	22.1	25.4	27.0	27.0	26.2	21.5	18.8	-	0.4
14-17	23.0	20.6	21.8	26.4	30.5	26.2	26.3	22.0	19.1	-	4.7

3

4 a) -, not determined

5

1

2 Table 4. Vertical and seasonal variations in DOC concentration (mg carbon per liter)

Sediment depth (cm)	1999		2000						
	29 Oct	24 Nov	22 Dec	5 Feb	6 Mar	7 Apr	6 May	3 Jun	1 Aug
Overlaying water	- ^a	3.0	3.6	5.8	-	3.1	5.8	3.2	3.0
0-2	-	-	18.4	24.0	-	38.7	31.2	31.0	22.9
2-5		-	35.2	27.0	-	130.5	58.1	16.8	18.6
5-8	14.6	-	23.7	27.5	44.9	107.9	61.9	35.9	14.5
8-11		-	27.9	53.0	45.2	172.2	64.5	31.3	14.6
11-14	29.0	-	23.6	26.4		51.0	48.1	20.7	13.2
14-17	19.5	-	23.2	37.2	26.5	22.6	36.9	22.4	19.4

3 a) -, not determined

1 Table 5. Phylogenetic affiliations of DGGE bands deduced by RDP Classifier

2

DGGE bans	phylum	class	order	family	genus	acc. number
TK1	<i>Bacteroidetes</i>	<i>Bacteroidetes</i>	<i>Bacteroidales</i>			AB534763
TK3	<i>Proteobacteria</i>	<i>Deltaproteobacteria</i>	<i>Desulfobacterales</i>	<i>Desulfobulbaceae</i>	<i>Desulfotalea</i>	AB534764
TK4	<i>Bacteroidetes</i>	<i>Bacteroidetes</i>	<i>Bacteroidales</i>			AB534772
TK5	<i>Proteobacteria</i>	<i>Gammaproteobacteria</i>	<i>Alteromonadales</i>	<i>Psychromonadaceae</i>	<i>Psychromonas</i>	AB534765
TK6	<i>Bacteroidetes</i>					AB534766
TK8	<i>Bacteroidetes</i>	<i>Flavobacteria</i>	<i>Flavobacteriales</i>	<i>Cryomorphaceae</i>	<i>Owenweeksia</i>	AB534767
TK9	<i>Bacteroidetes</i>	<i>Bacteroidetes</i>	<i>Bacteroidales</i>	<i>Bacteroidaceae</i>	<i>Bacteroides</i>	AB534768
TK10	<i>Proteobacteria</i>	<i>Deltaproteobacteria</i>	<i>Desulfobacterales</i>	<i>Desulfobulbaceae</i>	<i>Desulforhopalus</i>	AB534769
TK11	<i>Tenericutes</i>	<i>Mollicutes</i>	<i>Anaeroplasmatales</i>	<i>Anaeroplasmataceae</i>	<i>Asteroleplasma</i>	AB534770
TK12	<i>Proteobacteria</i>	<i>Deltaproteobacteria</i>	<i>Desulfobacterales</i>	<i>Desulfobacteraceae</i>	<i>Desulfobacter</i>	AB534762
TK13	<i>Proteobacteria</i>	<i>Deltaproteobacteria</i>	<i>Desulfovibrionales</i>			AB534771

3

4

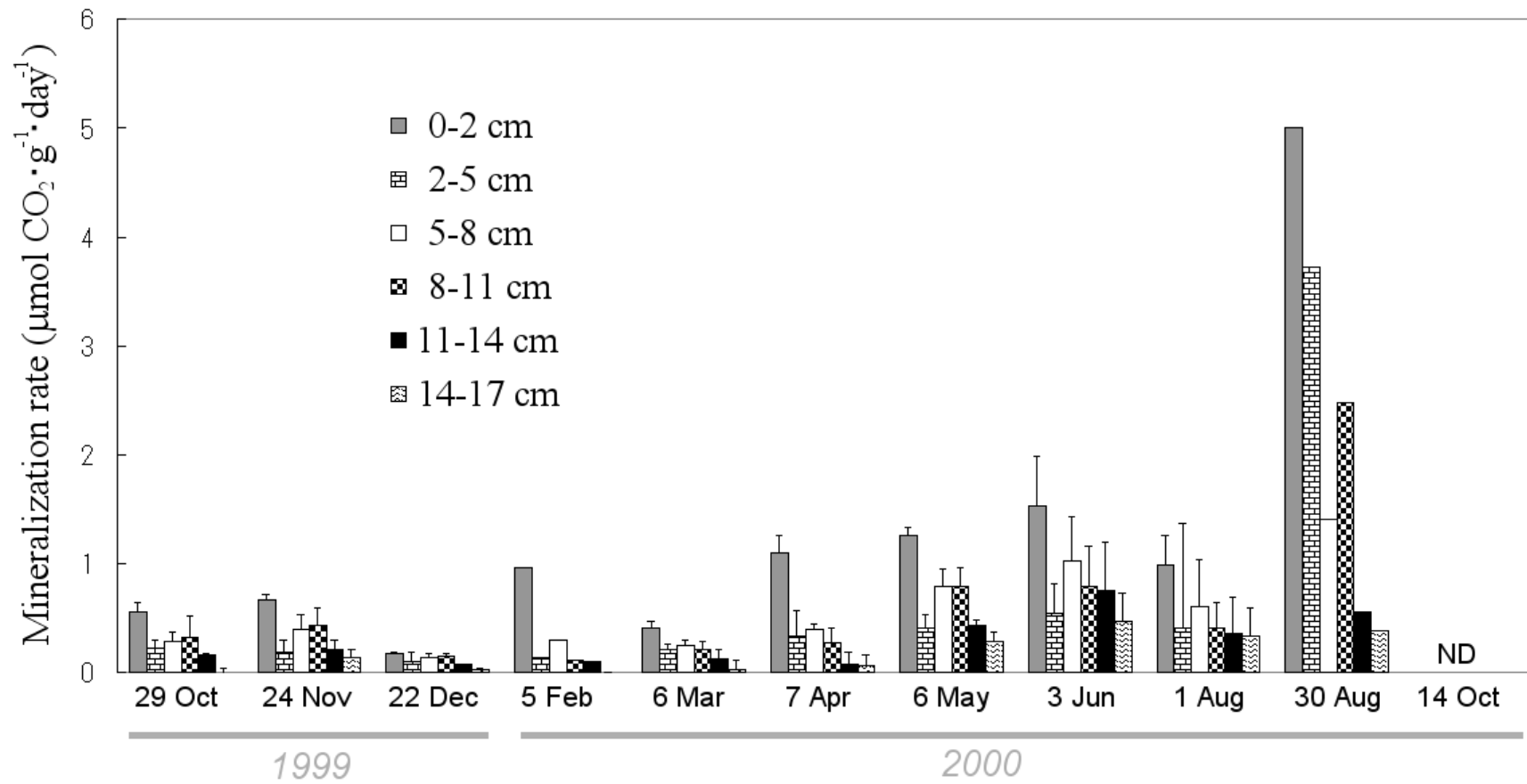


Fig. 1

1
2
3

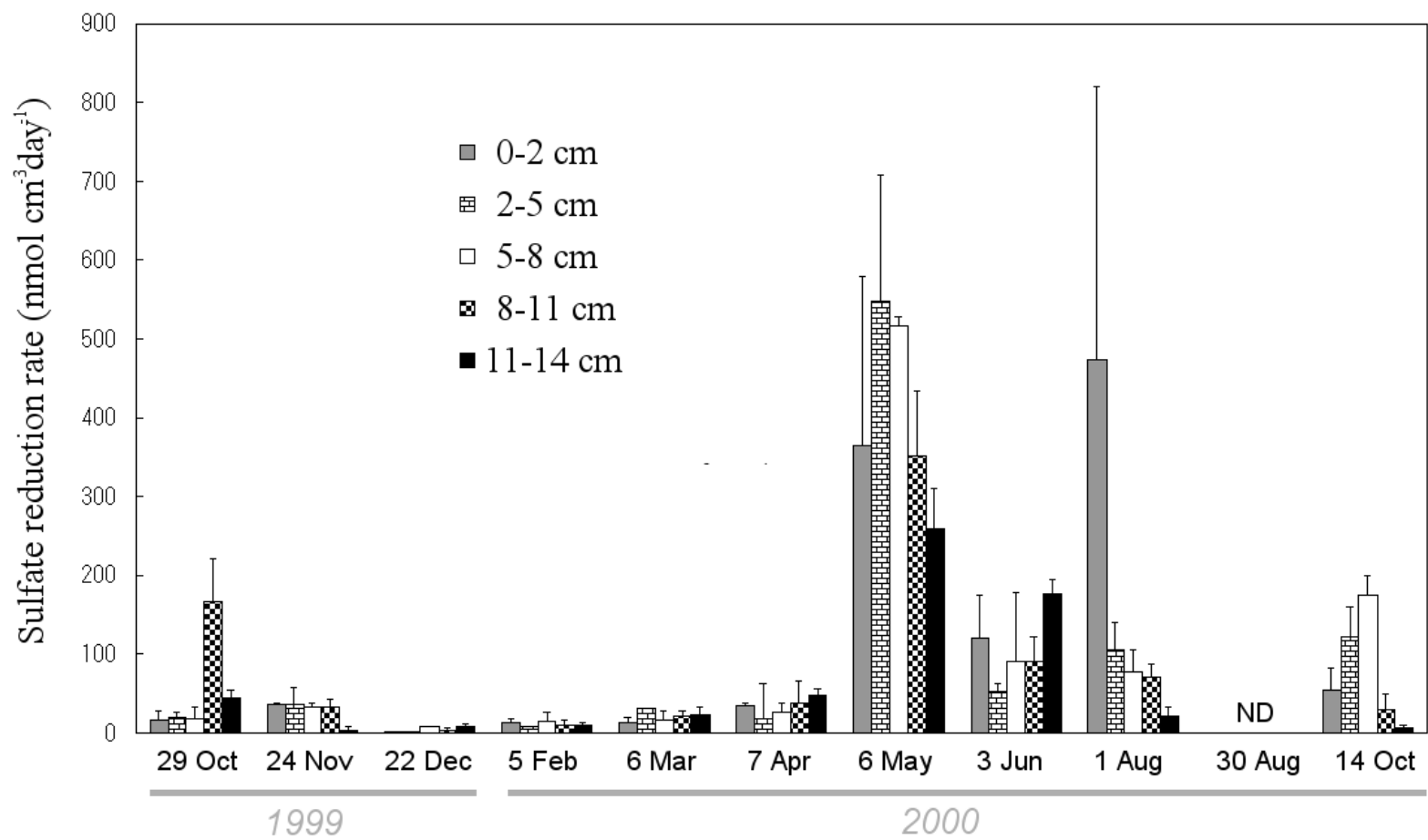


Fig. 2

1
2
3

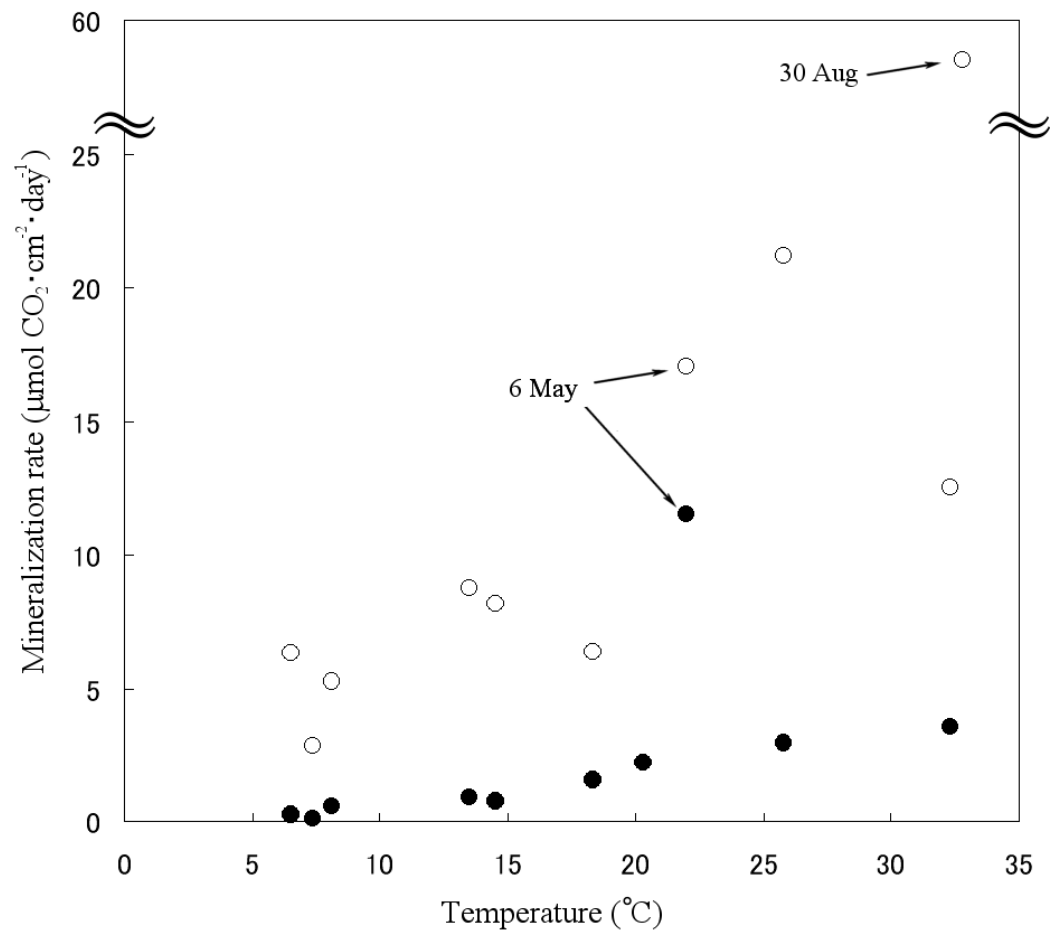


Fig. 3

1
2
3
4

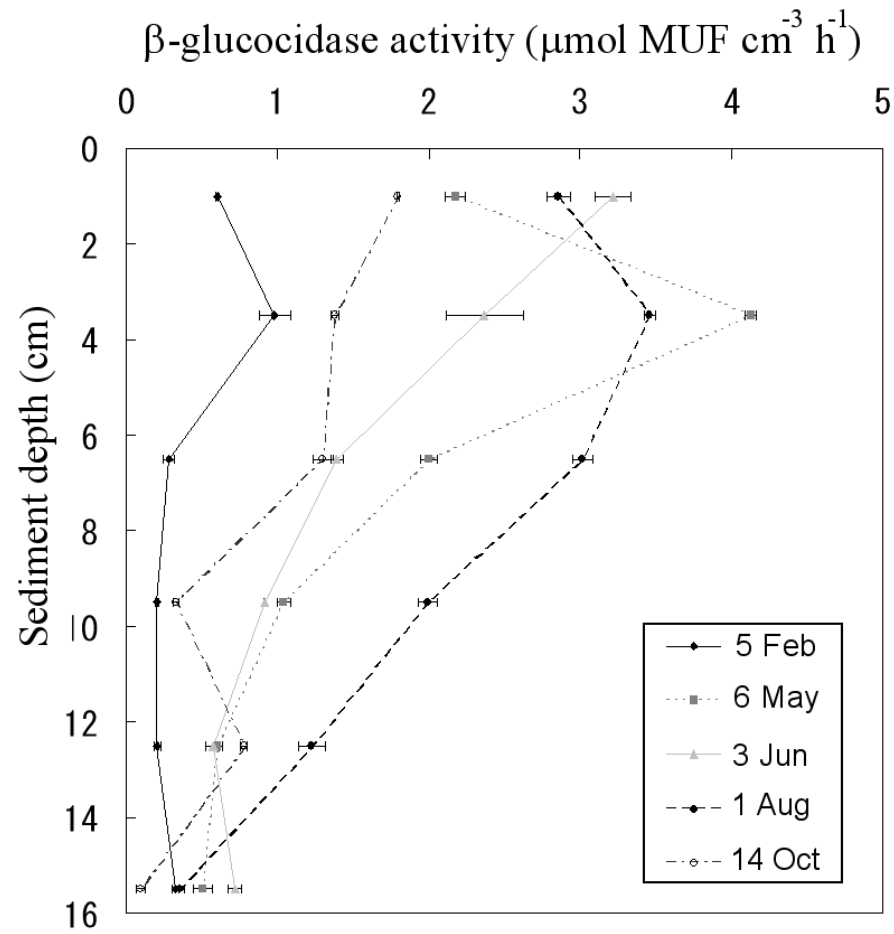


Fig. 4

1
2
3

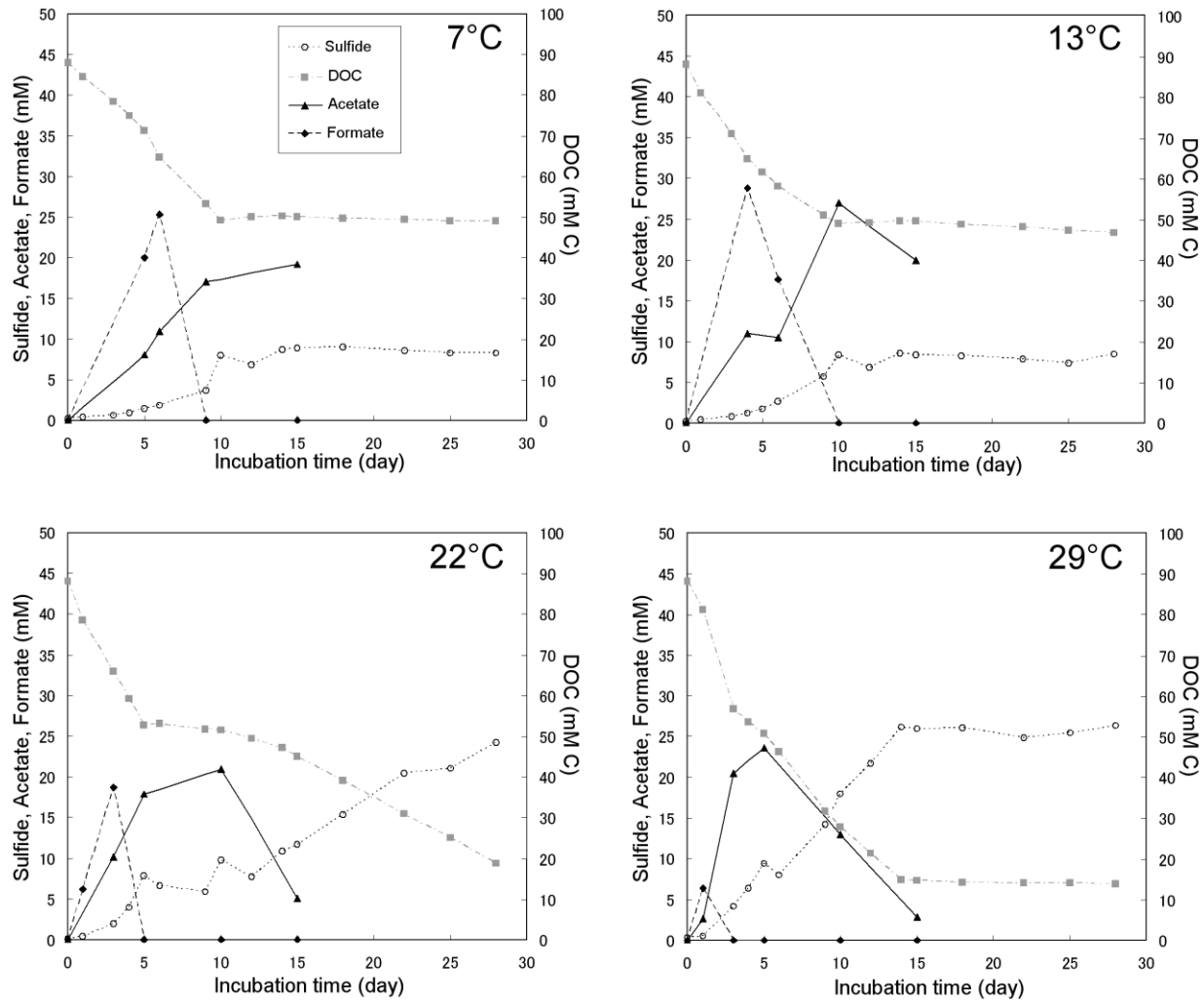


Fig. 5

1
2

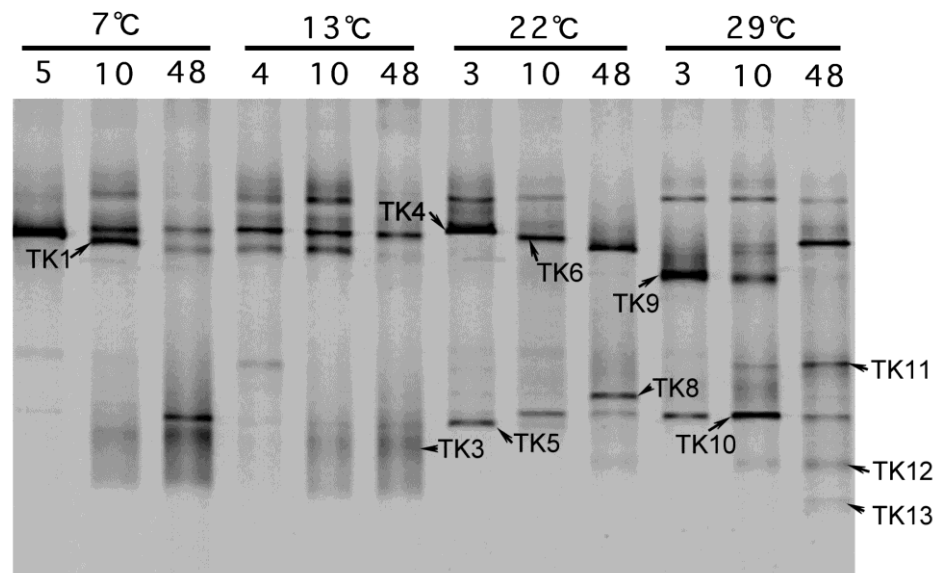
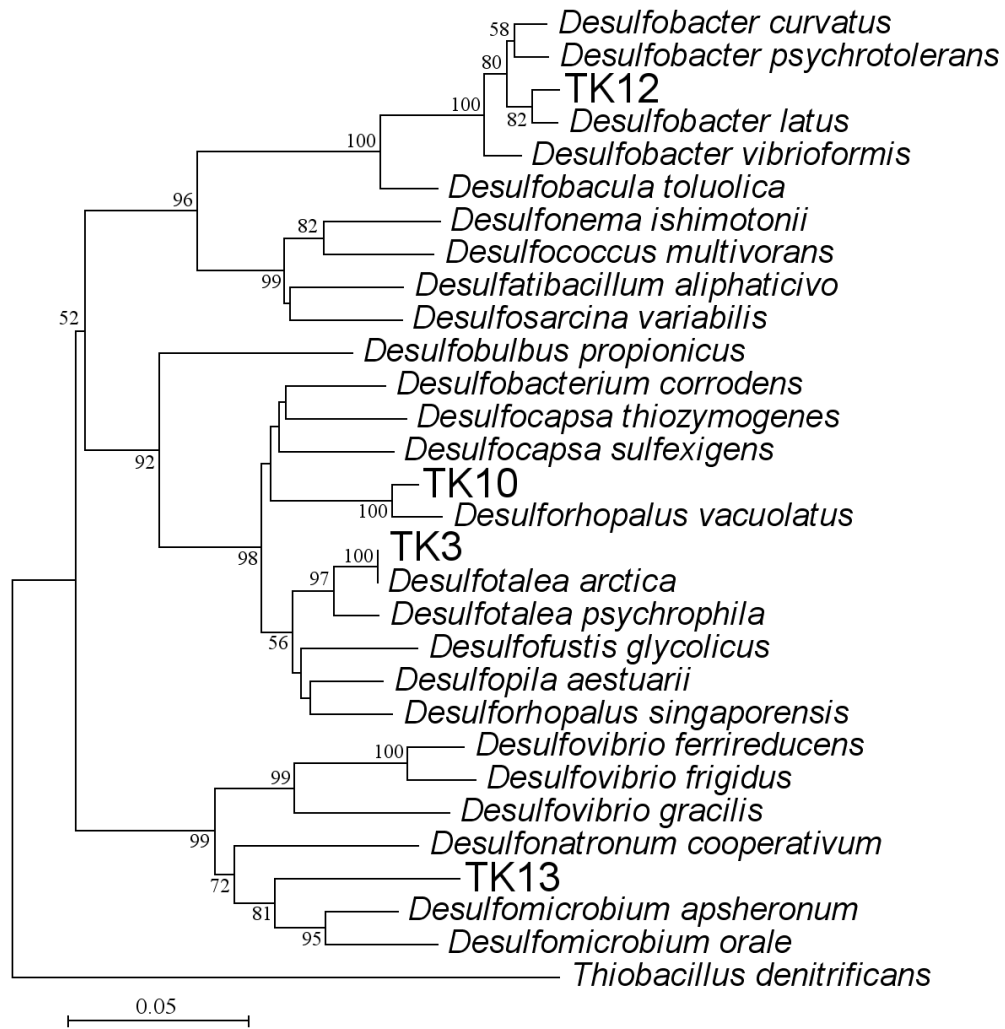


Fig. 6

1
2
3
4



1
2

Fig. 7