**Fluctuations in populations of subsurface methane oxidizers in coordination with changes in electron acceptor availability**

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**Running Title:** Subsurface ANME in South Africa

**Abstract:**
The concentrations of electron donors and acceptors in the terrestrial subsurface biosphere fluctuate due to migration and mixing of subsurface fluids, but the mechanisms and rates at which microbial communities respond to these changes are largely unknown. Subsurface microbial communities exhibit long cellular turnover times and are often considered relatively static—generating just enough ATP for cellular maintenance. Here, we investigated how subsurface populations of $CH_4$ oxidizers respond to changes in electron acceptor availability by monitoring the biological and geochemical composition in a 1,339 meters-below-land-surface (mbls) fluid-filled fracture over the course of both longer (2.5 year) and shorter (2-week) time scales. Using a combination of metagenomic, metatranscriptomic, and metaproteomic analyses, we observe that the $CH_4$ oxidizers within the subsurface microbial community change in coordination with electron acceptor availability over time. We then validate these findings through a series of $^{13}C$-$CH_4$ laboratory incubation experiments, highlighting a connection between composition of subsurface $CH_4$ oxidizing communities and electron acceptor availability.

**Introduction:**
The terrestrial subsurface is an energy-limited environment that is subject to changes in fluid chemistry over time (Onstott *et al.* 2006). Laboratory experiments have shown that when native fluids are supplemented with electron acceptors such as $SO_4^{2-}$, the activity of subsurface communities can be enhanced (Rajala *et al.* 2015). Large disturbances such as $CO_2$ (Morozova *et al.* 2010, 2011) and $H_2$ injection (Bagnoud *et al.* 2016), hydraulic fracking (Daly *et al.* 2016), and drilling (Purkamo *et al.* 2013) have also

been reported to alter natural subsurface communities. The response of microbial
communities to natural fluctuations in their environment, however, is less understood.
In the South African subsurface, increases in the availability of electron acceptors
such as $NO_3^-$ (>10-fold higher) and $SO_4^{2-}$ (>5-fold higher) over a 1.5 year period did not
correspond to changes in the bacterial community (Magnabosco et al. 2014; Simkus et al.
2015). However, 16S SSU rRNA gene amplicon surveys of the archaeal communities
from the same site and sampling points of the aforementioned studies showed a diverse
collection of anaerobic methane oxidizing archaea (ANME) (Young et al. 2017) and
methane oxidizing bacteria (Simkus et al. 2015).
ANME-1 and "Candidatus Methanoperedens nitroreducens", a member of
ANME-2d, are among the best described ANME and couple the oxidation of $CH_4$ with
$SO_4^{2-}$ and $NO_3^-$ reduction, respectively (Haroon et al. 2013; Wegener et al. 2015). Other
ANME-2d have also been reported to couple $CH_4$ oxidation to the reduction of $Mn^{4+}$
and/or $Fe^{3+}$ (Ettwig et al. 2016). With the exception of "Ca. Methylomirabilis oxyfera"
which has been suggested to generate intracellular $O_2$ for $CH_4$ oxidation from two
molecules of NO (Ettwig et al. 2010), bacterial methanotrophs couple $CH_4$ oxidation with
free $O_2$ in the environment. This potential relationship between $CH_4$ oxidizers (MOs) and
electron acceptor availability provides a compelling avenue to explore the response of
subsurface communities to natural changes in subsurface fluid chemistry.
Our study focuses on the subsurface microbial community of a 1,339 meters-
below-land-surface (mbls) fluid-filled fracture (Be326 Bh2). Here, bulk bacterial
phospholipid-derived fatty acid (PLFA) isotopic signatures have been shown to be
consistent with the accumulation of $^{13}C$-dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) impacted by
the microbial oxidation of $CH_4$ (Simkus et al. 2015) but the organisms responsible for
$CH_4$ oxidation have not been well characterized (Magnabosco et al. 2014; Simkus et al.
2015; Young et al. 2017). To better describe the membership of native MO communities,
their methane oxidizing genes, and their response to changes in fluid chemistry over time,
we combined metagenomics, metatranscriptomics, and metaproteomics analyses with
geochemical monitoring of Be326 Bh2's in situ fracture fluids over both 2.5 year and 2
week timescales. We also performed activity assays on the fracture fluids using $^{13}C$-
labeled $CH_4$ together with different electron acceptors to track anaerobic methane
oxidizing activity in both short- and long-term incubations.
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**Materials and Methods:**
Be326 Bh2 was accessed through a 57-m, horizontally drilled borehole that was
drilled in 2007 and sealed with a high-pressure steel valve. The borehole is located on the
26 level of shaft 3 in the Beatrix Gold Mine (28.232288 S, 26.794365 E; Welkom, South
Africa). Annual samples were collected during field trips in 2011, 2012, and 2013 and
weekly samples were collected during the 2013 field trip with three time points
designated as $T_0$, $T_1$, and $T_2$ with $T_0$ corresponding to the first day of the 2013 study and
$T_2$ corresponding to the last day of the 2013 study.
***Sampling***
Sampling procedures have been outlined previously (Magnabosco et al. 2014). To
sample, a sterile (combusted and autoclaved) stainless steel manifold with attached valves
was attached to the Be326 borehole. A high-pressure steel valve was opened, allowing
water to flow freely at ~4-6 L min$^{-1}$ for at least 10 minutes. This manifold allows for the

attachment of airtight Teflon tubing and filters for sampling and chemical analysis. For
the 2011, 2012, and 2013 samples, pre-autoclaved 0.1-μm Memtrex NY filters (MNY-91-
1-AAS; General Electric Co., Minnetonka, MN USA) were left on the borehole for 6, 15,
and 14 days, respectively. For the $T_0$, $T_1$, and $T_2$ samples, 0.2-μm Memtrex NY Capsule
(CMNY) filters (General Electric Co., Minnetonka, MN USA) were left on the borehole
for 2 hours with a flow rate of 500 mL per minute (equivalent to approximately 60 L
filtered per time point) in 2013. The total volumes of water filtered for each time point in
the 2.5-year study were 4,875 L, 12,604 L, and 6,635 L in 2011, 2012 and 2013,
respectively.
Unfiltered water samples for direct cell counts were collected on the first day of
the 2011, 2012, and 2013 studies and fixed with sterile formaldehyde (final concentration
4% v/v). Cell counts were obtained at the University of the Free State where samples
were filtered through a sterile 0.22μm Millipore GTTP-type membrane filter, stained
with DAPI, and visualized using fluorescence microscopy.

***Geochemical Measurements***
Temperature, pH, and $E_h$ were measured at the borehole using handheld probes
(HANNA instruments, Woonsocket, RI). Gas samples ($H_2$, $O_2$, $CH_4$) were collected and
analyzed by gas chromatography (Peak Performer 1 series, Peak Laboratories, USA)
(Simkus *et al.* 2015). Oxygen was also measured at the borehole using a CHEMET kit
(Chemetrics Inc.; Calverton, VA). $NO_3^-$ and $SO_4^{2-}$ were measured using an ion
chromatograph coupled to an electrospray ionization-quadruple mass spectrometer (MS)
(Dionex IC25 and Thermo Scientific MSQ, USA). $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^2H$ were measured as
previously described (Simkus *et al.* 2015).

***Preservation of Biomolecules and extraction***
Filters were treated with an RNA preserve solution and stored in a -80°C freezer.
The RNA preserve is a custom made solution of 20 mM EDTA, 0.3 M sodium citrate,
and 4.3 M ammonium $SO_4^{2-}$ (pH 5.2). The solution was autoclaved prior to sample
application. Total protein, together with total DNA and RNA, was extracted using 2X
CTAB lysis buffer and phenol/chloroform (pH=6.5-6.9), and re-suspended in 1 TE-buffer
(Tris-EDTA, pH = 8) and stored in 1.5-mL Eppendorf tubes at −20°C. Extraction of
biomolecules is further described elsewhere (Lau *et al.* 2014, 2016).

***Amplicon Sequencing and Annotation***
The V6 region of archaeal 16S rDNA molecules from the 2011 and 2012 time
points was amplified using 958F (AATTGGANTCAACGCCGG) and 1048R
(CGRCRGCCATGYACCWC) primers. The V4-V5 region of archaeal 16S rDNA
molecules from all time points was amplified using the 517F
(GCCTAAAGCATCCGTAGC; GCCTAAARCGTYCGTAGC;
GTCTAAAGGGTCYGTAGC; GCTTAAAGNGTYCGTAGC;
GTCTAAARCGYYCGTAGC) and 958R (CCGGCGTTGANTCCAATT) primers. For
both amplicon datasets, forward primers included 5-nt multiplexing barcodes and a
reverse 6-nt index. Triplicate PCR amplifications were performed in 33-μL reaction
volumes with an amplification cocktail containing 10.0 U Platinum Taq Hi-Fidelity
Polymerase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA), 1X Hi-Fidelity buffer, 200 μM dNTP PurePeak
DNA polymerase mix (ThermoFisher), 2 mM $MgSO_4$ and 0.3 μM of each primer. We
added approximately 10-25 ng template DNA to each PCR and ran a control without
template DNA for each primer pair. Amplification conditions were: initial 94°C, 3

minute denaturation step; 25 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 60°C for 45 s, and 72°C for 60 s;
and a final 2 minute extension at 72°C. The triplicate PCR reactions were pooled after
amplification and purified using Qiagen MinElute plates followed by clean up, PicoGreen
quantitation and Sage PippinPrep size selection. 101-nt paired-end sequencing was
performed on an Illumina HiSeq 1000 at the Marine Biological Laboratory (Woods Hole,
MA USA). Only reads that were identical in the overlapping regions of the forward and
reverse reads were included for annotation. In the case of V6 data, this filter necessitates
an exact match across both the forward and reverse read. Sequences that met the given
quality criteria were annotated using GAST (Huse *et al.* 2008) and a GAST-formatted
reference set.
***Mapping of Metatranscriptomic Data to V6 Amplicons***
Quality filtered RNA reads were mapped to the GAST-annotated V6 amplicons of
Be326 Bh2 (Magnabosco *et al.* 2014; Young *et al.* 2017) using BLASTn (percent identity
>97%; alignment length > 55 nucleotides (nt)). Reads that mapped positively to V6
sequences were assigned a consensus taxonomy based on the top three BLASTn hits.
***Generation of Metagenomic and Metatranscriptomic Datasets***
DNA samples from 2011 and 2012 were sequenced at the National Center for
Genome Resources (Santa Fe, NM). The 2011 and 2012 metagenomic libraries were
prepared from 500 ng of DNA using the KAPA High Throughput Library Preparation Kit
(KAPA Biosystems), an insert size of approximately 280 bp, and followed by 8 PCR
cycles. Paired-end sequencing ($2 \times 100$ nt) was performed on an Illumina HiSeq 2000.
DNA from 2013 was sequenced at Lewis Sigler Institute for Integrative Genomics
(Princeton, NJ USA) using an Illumina HiSeq 2500. The metagenomic library was
prepared using the TruSeq Rapid SBS Kit, size selected for 380-400 nt, and sequenced
using paired-end sequencing ($2 \times 215$ nt).
RNA samples from 2011, 2012, 2013, $T_0$, $T_1$, and $T_2$ were sequenced at Lewis
Sigler Institute for Integrative Genomics (Princeton, NJ USA) on an Illumina HiSeq 2500
platform. Here, metatranscriptomic libraries were prepared using the Ovation RNA-Seq
v2 System (NuGEN; San Carlos, CA USA), which involved 15-18 cycles of PCR. The
2011 and 2012 RNA samples were sequenced using 141-nt single-end sequencing while
the 2013, $T_0$, $T_1$, and $T_2$ RNA samples were sequenced using 200-nt single-end reads.
***Targeted Assembly and Tree Building***
Reads were quality filtered and assembled using a targeted assembly pipeline
(https://github.com/cmagnabosco/OmicPipelines). In summary, this pipeline involved
quality filtering reads using default settings on the fastx toolkit
(http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit/), targeted assembly of *mcrA* GENEs, protein
prediction, alignment of reads to a set of well curated McrA peptides, and the
construction of a phylogenic tree from the predicted proteins (PhyML (Guindon *et al.*
2010), Best of nearest-neighbor-interchange and subtree-pruning-regrafting, 8 rate
categories, -b 100). This procedure was also repeated for the assembly of *mmo* genes
using a MMO peptide database.
Assembled genes of 200 nt or longer were trimmed to include only the coding
region of verified *mcrA* and *mmo* genes. This dataset was used as the reference database
(Supplementary Data 2) to map quality-filtered DNA and RNA reads using Bowtie2 (--
very-sensitive-local). The coverage was calculated as: (number of reads mapped $\times$
average read length)/length of the reference sequence. For correlation analyses, coverage

was normalized by dividing by the total number of reads in the dataset. Pearson
correlation coefficients ($r$) were computed in Excel using the CORREL function.

***Protein Identification from UPLC-MS/MS Data***
Ultra performance liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometer (UPLC-
MS/MS) data were analyzed in aggregate using the SEQUEST HT search engine in
ProteomeDiscoverer v1.4 (ThermoFisher Scientific) using a custom database containing
the translated genes from the targeted assembly and published McrA, pMoA, MmoX and
AmoA (Supplementary Data 4). Search parameters included trypsin digestion with up to
one missed cleavage, methionine oxidation and cysteine carbamidomethylation. A
peptide-level false discovery rate (FDR) of 5% was achieved by using the Percolator
node in ProteomeDiscoverer, which utilizes the frequency of matching against a reversed
database as a rigorous model of the probability of error in the forward matches at given
score thresholds. Proteins identified by matches to one unique peptide per run were
tallied.

***Activity assays***
During the 2012 and 2013 sampling points, water samples were collected into
150-mL serum vials ("biovials") and stored at 4°C. Two days prior to sampling, 100 μL
of MilliQ water was added to a 150-mL serum vial that had undergone combustion in an
oven at 450°C overnight to deactivate spores. The serum vial was then sealed with a
butyl rubber stopper that was cleaned by boiling in 0.1 M NaOH solution for 1 hour,
rinsed and left to soak in MilliQ water until use. The serum vials were then crimped and
left overnight. The next day, the serum vials were purged and pressurized with filtered
$N_2$. The vials were then autoclaved and bubble-wrapped for transport underground. A
needle was attached to the end of sterile teflon tubing that was attached to the manifold.
Water was allowed to flow to rinse the attachment and needle. After 2 minutes of rinsing,
the needle was inserted into the biovial and a second needle was added for pressure relief.
Water was allowed to flow into the biovial until the relief needle overflowed. Extensive
care was taken to ensure that no visible gas bubble remained in the biovial post-sampling.
Two sets of enrichment experiments were performed to monitor the response of
the biovial communities to methane and a variety of electron acceptors. Experiment 1
contained samples from 2012 and 2013. Samples were incubated in triplicate with $^{13}$C-
$CH_4$ and $SO_4^{2-}$ (20 mM) or $^{13}$C-$CH_4$ and $NO_3^-$ (20 mM) for 207 and 185 days,
respectively. A control incubation with $^{13}$C-$CH_4$ and no electron acceptors was monitored
for 207 days to measure endogenous $^{13}CO_2$ production (Control A). Experiment 2
included samples from 2012 and 2013 that were incubated in triplicate with $^{13}$C-$CH_4$ and
$SO_4^{2-}$ (20 mM), $NO_3^-$ (20 mM) or $O_2$ (5% v/v). A killed (paraformaldehyde, 4% v/v)
control without electron acceptors (Control 1) and a live control without electron acceptor
or donor were included (Control 2). All samples of Experiment 2 were incubated and
monitored over a 43-day period.
The samples for all experiments were prepared in 14-mL serum vials sealed with
butyl rubber stoppers and aluminum caps. Prior to sample addition, vials were made
anoxic by exchanging headspace gas with $N_2$ for 10 cycles and left pressurized (0.5 bar
overpressure). 10 mL aliquots of fracture fluid were then added to the vials in an anoxic
chamber and amended with the treatments described above. When $^{13}$C-$CH_4$ was added,
$N_2$ was added to a pressure of 130 kPa and 99.99% $^{13}$C-$CH_4$ gas (Campro Scientific,
Veenendaal, The Netherlands) was added to a final pressure of 180 kPa. Oxygen was

added afterwards, when applicable. All electron acceptor solutions were sterile and
anoxic. The serum bottles were statically incubated at 37°C in the dark.
$NO_3^-$ and $SO_4^{2-}$ were analysed using an ion chromatography system equipped with
an Ionpac AS9-SC column and an ED 40 electrochemical detector (Dionex, Sunnyvale,
CA). The system was operated at a column temperature of 35°C, and a flow rate of 1.2 ml
$min^{-1}$. Eluent consisted of a carbonate/bicarbonate solution (1.8 and 1.7 mM respectively)
in deionized water. Headspace gas composition was measured on a gas chromatograph-
mass spectrometer (GC-MS) composed of a Trace GC Ultra (Thermo Fisher Scientific,
Waltham, MA) equipped with a Rt-QPLOT column (Restek, Bellefonte, PA), and a DSQ
MS (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Helium was used as a carrier gas with a flow rate of 120
ml $min^{-1}$ and a split ratio of 60. The inlet temperature was 80°C; the column temperature
was set at 40°C and the ion source temperature was 200°C. $CH_4$ and $CO_2$ in the
headspace were quantified from the peak areas in the gas chromatographs. The fractions
of $^{13}CO_2$, $^{13}CH_4$ and $^{12}CH_4$ were derived from the mass spectrum (Shigematsu $et\ al.$
2004). Validation of the method was done using standards with known mixture of $^{13}CO_2$
and $^{12}CO_2$. The concentrations of total $CO_2$, total $CH_4$, and $^{13}CO_2$ were calculated
following the method of Timmers $et\ al.$ (2015). The pressure of the serum vials was
determined using a portable membrane pressure unit (GMH 3150, Greisinger electronic
GmbH, Regenstauf, Germany). The pH was checked by a standard pH electrode (QiS,
Oosterhout, The Netherlands).
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**Results and Discussion:**
*A changing fluid chemistry over time*
Over a period of 2.5 years, water isotope analysis revealed large changes in the
fracture fluid's $\delta^2H$ and $\delta^{18}O$ isotopic signatures (Fig. 1; purple squares). These changes
are inconsistent with contamination with service water in the mine and, instead, indicate
mixing of different fracture waters within the system.  In 2011, the $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^2H$ values
were on the global meteoric water line (GMWL) and are indicative of paleometeoric
water. This isotopic signature is consistent with other fluids located approximately 1,000
to 1,500 mbls in the Witwatersrand Formation (South Africa) (Fig. 1; green triangles)
(Onstott $et\ al.$ 2006; Sherwood Lollar $et\ al.$ 2007). In 2012 and 2013, the $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^2H$
signatures of the fluids moved away from the GMWL, indicating mixing with more
ancient fluids (Frape $et\ al.$ 1984). A few meters away, Be326 Bh1 (a borehole located in
the same mine and depth as the Be326 borehole of this study) exhibited a similar trend in
$\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^2H$ signatures over time—shifting away from the GMWL in 2012 and 2013
(Fig. 1; red diamonds). The displacements between the 2011/2012 and 2012/2013 $\delta^{18}O$
and $\delta^2H$ signatures of the two boreholes are in opposite directions—a pattern that would
not be expected if the native fracture fluids were mixing with the mine's service water
during this period. Measurements of the fracture fluid's $\delta^2H$ and $\delta^{18}O$ isotopic signatures
over the 2-week study were not obtained.
Geophysico-chemical measurements were made for both the 2.5-year and 2-week
time series (Table 1). Temperature, pH, and $CH_4$ concentrations were relatively
unchanged in both of the time series but the degree to which $E_h$, $SO_4^{2-}$, $NO_3^-$, and $H_2$
concentrations changed was much greater over the 2.5 years (Table 1a). Within the 2.5-
year time series, the fracture fluids shifted from a more reduced state ($2011_{Eh}$ = -98 mV,
$2011_{[H2]}$ = 130 nM) with limited electron acceptor availability ($2011_{[Sulph.]}$ = 137μM,

$2011_{[Nitr.]} = 0.4$ μM) to a more oxidized state ($2013_{Eh} = 21\pm28$ mV, $2013_{[H2]} = 25$ nM)
with much greater electron acceptor availability ($2013_{[Sulph.]} = 479$ μM, $2013_{[Nitr.]} = 4.5$
μM). The 2-week time series did not exhibit as large of a shift in electron acceptor
availability as the 2.5-year time series and maintained a positive $E_h$ throughout (Table
1b).

**Microbial community of Be326**

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The microbial communities of the 2011 and 2012 time points have been reported
to be dominated by bacteria (98.5%) (Simkus *et al.* 2015) with the majority being related
to Proteobacteria (Magnabosco *et al.* 2014). In order to investigate the community
composition of the less numerous archaea, 16S rDNA amplicon sequencing of the
archaeal V4-V5 hypervariable region was performed across all time points (Fig. 2a). For
the long-term study (2011, 2012, 2013), the archaeal community shifted from an ANME-
1- and Methanomicrobia-dominated community in 2011 to a Miscellaneous
Crenarchaeotic Group-dominated community in 2012 and a Halobacteria-dominated
community in 2013. For the short-term study ($T_0$, $T_1$, $T_2$), there were no noticeable
changes between $T_1$ and $T_2$. A slight increase in Halobacteria and a decrease in ANME-1
with respect to $T_1$ and $T_2$ were observed in the $T_0$ time point. There is a noticeable
difference between the $T_0$, $T_1$, $T_2$ samples community profiles and the 2013 community
profile, despite being collected over the same two-week period. However, the filters used
in the $T_x$ and 2013 filtrations have varied pore sizes, geometries, and casings and should
not be directly compared.
Around 1% of V4-V5 amplicons were related to "*Ca.* M. nitroreducens" in all
time points except for the 2011 dataset that contained only 2 archaeal amplicons relating
to "*Ca.* M. nitroreducens" (Supplementary Data 1). These relative abundances of "*Ca.* M.
nitroreducens" are lower than what was reported using archaeal V6 primers on 2011 and
2012 samples. With archaeal V6 primers, "*Ca.* M. nitroreducens" accounts for 1.5% of
the archaeal community in 2011 and 10.6% of the archaeal community in 2012, while
ANME-1 accounts for ~10% of the archaeal community at each time point (Young *et al.*,
2017; Supplementary Fig. S1). Despite differences in the relative abundances of taxa
based on the primers used, community membership does not appear to be significantly
different between the 2 primer sets.
In order to estimate the relative activity of each taxonomic group,
metatranscriptomic data from each sample were mapped to a database of Be326 Bh2 16S
rDNA V6 bacterial (Magnabosco *et al.* 2014) and archaeal (Young *et al.* 2017)
sequences. The V6 sequences were selected over the V4-V5 sequences due to their
shorter length and stringent quality filtering procedure (see Materials & Methods).
Proteobacteria within the family Rhodocyclaceae dominated all of the RNA datasets
except for the 2011 dataset that was dominated by Hydrogenophilaceae. The number of
bacterial and archaeal species (unique hits within the 16S rDNA V6 database) observed
in the metatransciptomic data ranged from 204 in 2013's $T_0$ time point to 414 in the 2012
sample (Table 2). MO archaea and bacteria account for only a small percentage of the V6
rRNA sequences identified in the metatranscriptomic data (0.3-3%). Notably, the number
of species observed in each metatranscriptome's V6 rRNA pool was not correlated to the
number of reads generated for each metatranscriptome ($R^2 < 0.01$); however, the number
of species observed in each metatranscriptome is almost 10 times less than the number of

$OTU_{0.97}$ obtained from the bacterial 16S rDNA V6  dataset (2,478 in 2011 and 3,987 in
2012) (Magnabosco *et al.* 2014).
***A detectable shift in the MO community over time***
As the organisms responsible for $CH_4$ oxidation in Be326 were present at
relatively low abundances, a targeted assembly pipeline
(https://github.com/cmagnabosco/OmicPipelines) that employs the PRICE assembler
(Ruby, Bellare and DeRisi 2013) was implemented to assemble methyl-coenzyme M
reductase (*mcrA*)—the gene for the first step in the anaerobic oxidation of methane
(AOM) (Thauer 2011) or the last step in methanogenesis—and a suite of $CH_4$
monooxygenases (*mmo*) that are known to play a role in aerobic oxidation of methane
(McDonald *et al.* 2008) from the metagenomic and metratranscriptomic datasets.
Notably, *mcrA* was selected as an indicator for ANME presence because its phylogeny is
congruent with MO phylogeny.
Following targeted assembly and annotation, two complete *mcrA* genes related to
ANME-1 and "*Ca.* M. nitroreducens", an ANME-2d, were assembled. Only one
complete *mmo* gene closely related to *Methylococcus capsulatus* was recovered from the
metagenomic and metatranscriptomic data (Fig. 2b, Supplementary Data 2). Partial *mcrA*
related to Methanomicrobia and Methanobacteria were also identified in the high-
throughput data (Fig. 2b, Supplementary Data 2), but partially assembled *mmo*-related
genes were omitted in downstream analyses due to the difficulty in distinguishing *mmo*
from homologous ammonia monooxygenases genes  (Holmes *et al.* 1995).
Assembled *mcrA* and *mmo* were translated into peptide sequences
(Supplementary Data 3). Notably, the Be326 "*Ca.* M. nitroreducens"-type McrA was
99% identical to the McrA of the reference "*Ca.* M. nitroreducens" genome
(Supplementary Data 3, 4). Metaproteomic data were searched against the collection of
assembled McrA and MMO and a database of known McrA and MMO peptide sequences
(Supplementary Data 4) to confirm that the transcribed genes were translated into
proteins. The predicted amino acid sequences (Supplementary Data 3) from the
assembled ANME-1, "*Ca.* M. nitroreducens", and *Methylococcus* genes were all
identified within the metaproteomic data (Fig. 3, Supplementary Data 5) which further
confirmed the presence and activity of these groups of organisms.
The abundances (based on coverage) of each MO gene (*mcr,A mmo*) and MO 16S
SSU rRNA gene were calculated using Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) (-very-
sensitive-local) and BLASTn, respectively. These analyses provided evidence that the
dominant members of the MO community in the metagenomes and metatranscriptomes
shifted from ANME-1 to "*Ca.* M. nitroreducens" during the 2.5-year sampling period
(Fig. 2) but remained constant during the 2-week sampling period (Supplementary Table
1). These observations were consistent with the relative changes in geochemistry over
both time scales (Table 1). Notably, "*Ca.* M. nitroreducens" accounted for ≤1% of the
archaeal community, as revealed using archaeal V4-V5 16S rDNA primers (Fig. 1),
which is in contrast to the higher estimates of "*Ca.* M. nitroreducens" found when using
archaeal V6 16S rDNA (Young *et al.*, 2017; Supplementary Fig. S1), metagenomic and
metatranscriptomic data. This discrepancy suggests that "*Ca.* M. nitroreducens"
sequences are recovered at a lower efficiency in archaeal V4-V5 16S SSU rRNA gene
surveys relative to archaeal V6 16S SSU rRNA gene surveys, metagenomic and
metatranscriptomic studies.

When metagenomic MO *mcrA* and *mmo* abundances of the long-term study
(Supplementary Table 2) were correlated to geophysico-chemical measurements, "*Ca*. M.
nitroreducens" was positively correlated to $NO_3^-$ ($R^2=0.99$) and $SO_4^{2-}$ ($R^2=0.98$)
concentrations but negatively correlated to $CH_4$ ($R^2=0.99$) and $H_2$ ($R^2=0.99$)
concentrations. ANME-1 *mcrA* abundances showed an opposite trend and were positively
correlated to $CH_4$ ($R^2=0.96$) and $H_2$ ($R^2=0.97$) concentrations but negatively correlated
$NO_3^-$ ($R^2=0.88$) and $SO_4^{2-}$ ($R^2=0.85$) concentrations (Table 3). Correlation of
metatranscriptomic 16S rRNA and *mcrA* and *mmo* abundances to geophysico-chemical
measurements exhibited similar trends (Supplementary Table 3) and are consistent with a
transition from an ANME-1-dominated MO community to a "*Ca*. M. nitroreducens"-
dominated community. As $NO_3^-$-coupled $CH_4$ oxidation is more energetic than $SO_4^{2-}$-
coupled $CH_4$ oxidation (Caldwell *et al.* 2008), an energetic advantage, presumably,
provides "*Ca*. M. nitroreducens" a competitive advantage against ANME-1 when $NO_3^-$
concentrations are sufficient.
$O_2$ concentrations in 2011 and 2013 were below detection limit (Table 1) but were
detectable in 2012 (0.47 μM). Likely related to the increased availability of $O_2$, aerobic
*Methylococcus*-related *mmo* genes exhibited their highest relative abundances within
metagenomic and metatranscriptomic MO gene profiles during 2012 and a minimal
presence throughout the remainder of the time points (Fig. 2, Supplementary Table 1).
"*Ca*. M. nitroreducens" was the dominant member (73.2±2.8%) of the MOs community
during the 2-week time series (Supplementary Table 1) when fracture fluids contained
high concentrations of $SO_4^{2-}$ (496±36 μM) and $NO_3^-$ (4.8±0.9 μM) along with a positive
$E_h$ (21±28 mV).
The correlations between MO abundances and fluid chemistry suggest that a
relationship between electron acceptor availability and populations of MOs exists. We
therefore wanted to experimentally validate the response of the MOs to changes in
electron acceptor availability. As ANME-1, "*Ca*. M. nitroreducens", and *Methylococcus*
are best described as a $SO_4^{2-}$-dependent ANME (Wegener *et al.* 2015), $NO_3^-$-dependent
ANME (Haroon *et al.* 2013), and aerobic methanotrophs (Kleiveland *et al.* 2012),
respectively, we designed experiments to test whether or not each MO lifestyle would
respond to an increase in the aforementioned electron acceptor.
***Validation of the MO community through $^{13}CH_4$ enrichments***
To better understand the response of the MO community to changes in electron
donor/acceptor balance, two sets of $^{13}$C-$CH_4$ laboratory enrichment experiments were
performed on fracture water collected in 2012 and 2013. The first experiment
(Experiment 1) was a long-term experiment analyzed over 207[*] days and contained
fracture fluid samples from 2012 and 2013 enriched with either $^{13}$C-$CH_4$ and no
additional electron acceptor (endogenous activity control), $^{13}$C-$CH_4$+$SO_4^{2-}$ (to stimulate
$SO_4^{2-}$-dependent AOM), or $^{13}$C-$CH_4$+$NO_3^-$ (to stimulate $NO_3^-$-dependent AOM). A
second set of 2012 and 2013 fracture fluid enrichments (Experiment 2) was analyzed for
43 days. Experiment 2 contained $^{13}$C-$CH_4$ treatments of $^{13}$C-$CH_4$+formaldehyde (4%,
v/v) (killed control) to rule out non-biological sources of $^{13}$C-$CH_4$ production, $^{13}$C-
$CH_4$+$SO_4^{2-}$, $^{13}$C-$CH_4$+$O_2$ (to simulate aerobic methane oxidation), and $^{13}$C-$CH_4$+$NO_3^-$ as
well as an electron acceptor- and donor-free control (methanogenesis control). The

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[*] The long term $^{13}$C-$CH_4$+$NO_3^-$ enrichments were run for 183 days.

methanogenesis control was intended to detect whether or not methanogenesis, and
therefore also trace $CH_4$ oxidation (TMO),was occurring within the samples (Zehnder
and Brock 1979). Due to the limited amount of sample, we were unable to test the
potential occurrence of $Mn^{4+}$-or $Fe^{3+}$-driven methane oxidation.
Unlike the correlations observed between expression data and geochemical
parameters, an increase in the proportion of $^{13}C$-$CO_2$ relative to total $CO_2$ ($\%^{13}C$-$CO_2$) in
the $^{13}CH_4$ enrichments over time provides definitive evidence of $^{13}CH_4$ oxidation under
different conditions. Notably, we chose to express our results as $\%^{13}C$-$CO_2$ rather than
the absolute concentration (molar) of $^{13}C$-$CO_2$ to account for $CO_2$ production from other
substrates. In Experiment 1, the $^{13}C$-$CH_4$+$NO_3^-$ enrichments exhibited the greatest rate of
$\%^{13}C$-$CO_2$ production and, in 2012, the rate of $\%^{13}C$-$CO_2$ production (0.017±0.005 $\%^{13}C$-
$CO_2$ $day^{-1}$) was found to be significantly greater (paired one-tailed Student t-test; $p$=0.02)
than in Control A (0.004±0.001 $\%^{13}C$-$CO_2$ $day^{-1}$) (Fig. 4). No samples from Experiment
2 exhibited an increase in $\%^{13}C$-$CO_2$ production (Supplementary Data 5).
Although ANME-1 were present in the metatranscriptomic and metaproteomic
data during the 2012 and 2013 sampling points, there was not a significant difference in
$\%^{13}C$-$CO_2$ production between Experiment 1's $^{13}C$-$CH_4$+$SO_4^{2-}$ incubations and the
endogenous activity controls (Fig. 4). TMO was probably not responsible for the $^{13}C$-$CO_2$
production in the endogenous activity controls of Experiment 1; only the methanogenesis
control of the 2013 sample showed minor methanogenesis (and thus TMO) activity
(Supplementary Data 5). It is conceivable, however, that $SO_4^{2-}$-dependent AOM occurred
in both the endogenous controls and $^{13}C$-$CH_4$+$SO_4^{2-}$ incubations, as the concentrations of
$SO_4^{2-}$ in the controls ([$SO_4^{2-}{}_{2012}$] = 623 μM; [$SO_4^{2-}{}_{2013}$] = 479 μM) are well within the
lower range of $SO_4^{2-}$ concentrations (100-1200 μM) that have been reported for $SO_4^{2-}$-
coupled AOM (Beal, Claire and House 2011; Segarra *et al.* 2015).  Combined, these
findings suggest that $SO_4^{2-}$-coupled AOM likely occurred in the controls of Experiment 1
and 2.
441
**Conclusions:**
Metagenomic, metatranscriptomic, and metaproteomic data suggest that
community composition, activity, and function are changing in response to natural
fluctuations in fluid chemistry. The observed $CH_4$ oxidation in the controls and
dominance of ANME-1 in the 2011 samples (when $SO_4^{2-}$ concentrations were lowest)
indicate that the *in situ* fluids contain enough $SO_4^{2-}$ to power $SO_4^{2-}$-coupled MO. The
increase in $\%^{13}C$-$CO_2$ production in the $^{13}C$-$CH_4$+$NO_3^-$ enrichments and correlation of
"*Ca.* Methanoperedens" abundances to electron acceptor concentrations *in situ* suggest
that electron acceptor availability plays an important role in MO population dynamics.
Together, these results provide the most conclusive biological evidence to date that $CH_4$
oxidation occurs and is an integral component of the deep terrestrial subsurface carbon
cycle.
454
455    **Data Availability:**
456    Metagenomic and metatranscriptomic data are available at NCBI BioProject
457    PRJNA308990. 16S amplicon data are available under NCBI BioProject PRJNA263371.
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460 **Tables and Figures:**

462 **TABLE 1a. Geophysico-chemical measurements for the long-term study**

|  | **2011** | **2012** | **2013** |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Dates Sampled** | Jan 21-27, 2011 | July 12-27, 2012 | Aug 1-15, 2013 |
| **Temperature (°C)** | 36.9 | 37.3±1.2 | 35.1±0.8 |
| **pH** | 8.83 | 8.55 | 8.17±0.7 |
| **$E_h$ (mV)** | -98 | -27.5±6.4 | 21±28 |
| **$SO_4^{2-}$ (µM)** | 137 | 623 | 479 |
| **$NO_3^-$ (µM)** | 0.4 | 6.0 | 4.5 |
| **$O_2$ (Chemet) (µM)** | b.d. | 0.47 | b.d.* |
| **$H_2$ (nM)** | 130 | 9 | 25 |
| **$CH_4$ (mM)** | 2.0 | 0.9 | 1.1 |

465 b.d. = below detection (<0.31 µM)

466 b.d.* = below detection (<1.6 µM)

468 **Table 1b. Geophysico-chemical measurements for the short-term study**

|  | **$T_0$** | **$T_1$** | **$T_2$** |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Dates Sampled** | Aug 1, 2013 | Aug 8, 2013 | Aug 15, 2013 |
| **Temperature (°C)** | 35.8 | 35.3 | 28.6 |
| **pH** | 8.2 | 8.1 | 7.9 |
| **$E_h$ (mV)** | 9 | 53 | 1 |
| **$SO_4^{2-}$ (µM)** | 531 | 499 | 459 |
| **$NO_3^-$ (µM)** | 5.3 | 5.3 | 3.7 |
| **$O_2$ (Chemet) (µM)** | b.d.* | b.d.* | b.d.* |
| **$H_2$ (nM)** | $5.8 \times 10^{-5}$ | 10.4 | 39.8 |
| **$CH_4$ (mM)** | 0.8 | 1.2 | 1.0 |

470 b.d.* = below detection (<1.6 µM)

**Table 2: Metatranscriptomic species richness observed and estimated by Chao 1 and ACE metrics and cell concentrations measured in the field.**

| | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | $T_0$ | $T_1$ | $T_2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Species (S) Observed** | 302 | 414 | 247 | 222 | 204 | 248 |
| **S.Chao1** | 344±22 | 440±10 | 256±7 | 233±9 | 216±8 | 276±16 |
| **S.ACE** | 317±8 | 450±10 | 253±6 | 233±5 | 212±7 | 260±8 |
| **Cell concentration (×10³ cells mL⁻¹)** | 1.3^- 18.3* | 2.2*- 31^ | 3.2^ | 3.2^ | n.m. | n.m. |

^DAPI-derived cell concentration

*PLFA-derived cell concentration using a conversion factor of $6\times10^4$ cells/pmol PLFA as previously reported in Simkus et al. (2015)

n.m. = not measured

**Table 3:** Correlation ($R^2$) between normalized metagenomic *mcrA* or *mmo* PEG coverage and geochemical parameters. Positive correlations are underlined.

| | | $NO_3^-$ | $SO_4^{2-}$ | $CH_4$ | $E_h$ | pH | $H_2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **2.5-Year Time Series** | "*Ca.* Methanoperedens" | <u>0.99</u> | <u>0.98</u> | 0.99 | <u>0.70</u> | 0.52 | 0.99 |
| | ANME-1 | 0.88 | 0.85 | <u>0.93</u> | 0.90 | <u>0.76</u> | <u>0.95</u> |
| | *Methylococcales* | <u>0.12</u> | <u>0.14</u> | 0.07 | 0.10 | <u>0.25</u> | 0.05 |

**Figure 1. $\delta^2 H_{H2O}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{H2O}$ for Beatrix (Be) Gold Mine fracture fluids.**

This figure plots the $\delta^{18}O$ (x-axis) against the $\delta^2 H$ (y-axis) for each of the three time points (purple squares) in the long-term study of Be326 (2011, 2012, 2013). The black diagonal line represents the global meteoric water line (Craig 1961) (GMWL). The 2011 sample sits on the GMWL, consistent with historic Be datapoints (green triangles) and paleometeoric water (Lippmann *et al.* 2003; Ward *et al.* 2004). The 2012 and 2013 time points are displaced away from the GMWL along trends that have been observed to be consistent with mixing with older, more saline fracture fluids (Ward *et al.* 2004; Sherwood Lollar *et al.* 2007). The dotted blue lines indicate possible mixing patterns. Be326_Bh1 (red diamonds) is a borehole located in the same mine and at the same depth as the borehole sampled in this study. EV=Evander Mine; KL=Kloof. Data for EV, KL, and Adams are adapted from Ward *et al.* (2004).

**Figure 2. Change in the CH₄ oxidizing community and activity over time.**

a) The relative abundance (bar height) of major archaeal groups (colors of bars) identified in the archaeal V4-V5 16S rDNA surveys are shown. b) A phylogenetic tree was constructed using PhyML from a McrA peptide database (Supplementary Data 6) and the predicted proteins from the *mcrA* targeted assembly (designated by a *). The predicted MMO from the targeted assembly is also displayed. The 2×3 blocks represent the relative abundance of each taxon (DNA, left column; RNA, right column) with respect to their CH₄-related protein of interest (McrA or MMO) over time (row 1, 2011; row 2, 2012; row 3; 2013). Notably, Methanobacteria-related McrA PEGs were selected as the outgroup in this presentation of the McrA phylogenetic tree due to Methanobacteria's placement in species tree of Euryarchaeota.

**Figure 3: Peptide mapping to identified McrA and MMO proteins**

**Figure 4: $^{13}C-CO_2$ production after $^{13}C-CH_4$ enrichment.**
The rates of $^{13}C-CO_2$ production ($\%^{13}C-CO_2$ day$^{-1}$) from the 2012 (gray) and 2013 (black)
fluids of Experiment 1 are displayed. The 2012 samples were run in triplicate and the
standard deviations are shown. The star above the 2012 CH4+NO3 bar indicates that the
rate of $^{13}C-CO_2$ production in the $^{13}C-CH4+NO_3^-$ enrichment was significantly greater
($p=0.02$) than the electron acceptor-free control (Control A).
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**Supplement:**
Supplementary Figure S1 – Relative abundance of archaeal 16S SSU rRNA gene v6
amplicons for the 2011 and 2012 time points
Supplementary Table 1 – $CH_4$ oxidizing community with respect to their $CH_4$-related
gene
Supplementary Table 2 – Normalized coverage $CH_4$-related genes abundances
Supplementary Table 3 – Correlation of $CH_4$ oxidizing community activity to fluid
chemistry
Supplementary Data 1 – Archaeal V4-V5 16S rDNA annotations
Supplementary Data 2 – Assembled *mcrA* and *mmo* genes
Supplementary Data 3 – Predicted proteins from assembled *mcrA* and *mmo*
Supplementary Data 4 – Datasets used for protein mapping
Supplementary Data 5 – Protein mapping results
Supplementary Data 6 – Enrichment experiment results
Supplementary Data 7 – McrA protein library used to generate phylogenetic tree

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