Contribution of methanol to the production of methane and its ¹³C-isotopic signature in anoxic rice field soil

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Abstract. Conversion of methanol to CH₄ has a large isotope effect so that a small contribution of methanol-dependent CH₄ production may decrease the δ^{13} CH₄ of total CH₄ production. Therefore, we investigated the role of methanol for CH₄ production. Methanol was not detectable above 10 μM in anoxic methanogenic rice field soil. Nevertheless, addition of ^{13}C -labeled methanol (99%) enriched) resulted in immediate accumulation of ¹³CH₄. Addition of 0.1 µM ¹³C-methanol resulted in increase of the δ^{13} CH₄ from -47 to $-6\frac{6}{10}$ within 2 h, followed by a slow decrease. Addition of 1 μ M ¹³C-methanol increased δ ¹³CH₄ to +500 % within 4 h, whereas 10 μ M increased δ ¹³CH₄ to +2500% and continued to increase. These results indicate that the methanol concentrations in situ, which diluted the 13 C-methanol added, were $\leq 0.1~\mu\text{M}$ and that the turnover of methanol contributed only about 2% to total CH₄ production at 0.1 µM. However, contribution increased up to 5 and 17% when 1 and 10 μ M methanol were added, respectively. Anoxic rice soil that was incubated at different temperatures between 10 and 37 °C exhibited maximally 2-6% methanoldependent methanogenesis about 1-2 h after addition of 1 μ M ¹³C-methanol. Only at 50 °C, contribution of methanol to CH₄ production reached a maximum of 10%. After longer (7-10 h) incubation, however, contribution generally was only 2-4%. Methanol accumulated in the soil when CH₄ production was inhibited by chloroform. However, the accumulated methanol accounted for only up to 0.7 and 1.2% of total CH₄ production at 37 and 50 °C, respectively. Collectively, our results show that methanol-dependent methanogenesis was operating in anoxic rice field soil but contributed only marginally to total CH4 production and the isotope effect observed at both low and high temperature.

Introduction

In anoxic sediments and soil, methanol is produced during the anaerobic decomposition of pectin (Schink and Zeikus 1982). Pectin, which is a common constituent of plant and algal cells, is a polymer of galacturonic acid that is methoxylated at the carboxy groups to a varying extent. This methoxy group is released as methanol during anaerobic microbial degradation (Schink and Zeikus 1980). Therefore, methanol can be expected to be a common metabolite in anoxic soils and sediments. There are only few investigations of methanogenic methanol turnover in anoxic environments (Winfrey et al. 1977; Oremland et al. 1982; King et al. 1983; Lovley and Klug 1983; Nüsslein and Conrad

2000). All these studies indicate only a marginal importance of methanol as methanogenic substrate, generally contributing less than 5–10% to total methanogenesis. In marine sediments, methanol is a non-competitive substrate of methanogenesis, i.e. it supports CH₄ production despite the simultaneously occurring sulfate reduction that successfully competes for the other methanogenic substrates (i.e. H₂ and acetate) (Oremland et al. 1982; Oremland 1988). Even in this environment, however, methanol was found to be a far less important methanogenic substrate than trimethylamine, which is another noncompetitive substrate of methanogenesis (Oremland et al. 1982).

Several genera of the methanogenic archaea are able to utilize methanol as substrate, i.e. *Methanosphaera* within the *Methanobacteriaceae*, and *Methanosarcina*, *Methanolobus* and other genera within the *Methanosarcinaceae* (Boone et al. 1993). *Methanosarcinaceae* and *Methanobacteriaceae* are abundant constituents of the active methanogenic microflora in anoxic rice field soils (Lueders and Friedrich 2002). However, it is unknown whether they are able to utilize methanol and how important this metabolism is.

Even a moderate methanol-dependent methanogenesis might have a dramatic effect on the stable isotopic signature of the produced CH₄, since conversion of methanol to CH₄ exhibits a large isotope effect of about $\varepsilon = -74\%$ for ¹³C (Krzycki et al. 1987). Stable isotopic signatures are frequently used to constrain CH₄ production pathways in anoxic soil and sediments (Sugimoto and Wada 1993; Tyler et al. 1997; Avery et al. 1999). Recently, we observed a rather large isotope effect ($\varepsilon \approx -70\%$) for the conversion of CO₂ to CH₄ in rice field soil (Conrad et al. 2002; Fey et al. 2003). Studies on other rice field soils mostly reported smaller isotope effects ($\varepsilon = -45$ to -60%) for the conversion of CO₂ to CH₄ (Sugimoto and Wada 1993; Tyler et al. 1997; Chidthaisong et al. 2002). The larger isotope effect is relatively robust, since it has been constrained by radiotracer measurements, in particular at incubation temperatures of 50 °C, where CH₄ is exclusively produced from CO₂ reduction (Fey et al. 2001, 2003). However, our previous studies did not consider that methanol-dependent CH₄ production might have contributed to the strong isotopic fractionation observed.

Therefore, we determined the contribution of methanol to total CH₄ production in anoxic rice field soil, by measuring the conversion of ¹³CH₃OH to ¹³CH₄ and the accumulation of methanol upon inhibition of methanogenesis.

Materials and methods

The soil samples and incubation procedures were the same as described by Fey and Conrad (2000). The soil was collected in March 1998 (after plowing) from the not yet flooded rice fields of the Italian Rice Research Institute in Vercelli, Italy. The soil was air-dried and stored in dry lumps at room temperature. These storage conditions were found to be optimal for studies of CH₄

production (Mayer and Conrad 1990). The dry lumps were broken and passed through a stainless steel sieve (2 mm). Soil slurries were prepared by mixing 200 g dry soil with 200 ml anoxic, sterile distilled water giving 0.75 g dry soil per ml slurry. The soil slurry was then kept in stoppered 500-ml glass bottles under N_2 atmosphere at 37 °C for about 2 months. In some experiments it was also kept at other temperatures.

Incubation of soil with 13 C-labeled methanol (13 CH₃OH; 99% enriched; Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, MA, USA) was done in triplicate by filling 10-ml aliquots of the preincubated anoxic slurry into 35-ml serum bottles, which were closed with black rubber stoppers and gassed with N₂. Appropriate amounts of a solution of 0.1 M 13 CH₃OH were injected to give a final concentration of 0.1, 1.0 or 10 μ M (relative to the volume of the slurry). Gas samples were repeatedly taken during the further incubation and analyzed for CH₄ and δ^{13} CH₄. The recovery of 13 CH₃OH was measured at the end of two experiments (1 and 10 μ M initial 13 CH₃OH) by mass balance with the total 13 CO₂ and 13 CH₄ formed, resulting in 102 \pm 33%.

Aliquots of soil slurry were analyzed for CH_3OH concentration. Accumulation of CH_3OH was measured upon inhibition of CH_4 production in anoxic soil slurries incubated at 37 and 50 °C. Glass bottles (150 ml) were filled with 40 g-dw soil and 40 ml anoxic, sterile distilled water, stoppered and gassed with N_2 and incubated in 8 replicates at each temperature until CH_4 production rates become constant. During this time, the ^{13}C -isotopic composition of CH_4 and CO_2 was analyzed. Then, the gas headspace was replaced by fresh N_2 and chloroform was injected into 4 replicates to give a final concentration of 200 μ M. Incubation was continued and CH_4 concentrations were repeatedly measured. At two time points, 2 ml slurry was removed, centrifuged, the supernatant membrane-filtered (PTFE; 0.2μ m; Schleicher & Schüll, Dassel, Germany) and immediately analyzed for methanol.

CH₄ and CO₂ were analyzed by gas chromatography. CO₂ was detected by FID upon conversion to CH₄ with a methanizer (Ni-catalyst at 350 °C, Chrompack, Middelburg, The Netherlands). Methanol was analyzed by gas chromatography using a flame ionization detector (Carlo Erba, Milano, Italy). For methanol analysis, the liquid samples were amended with amylalcohol as internal standard. Methanol (1 μ l sample) was separated on a capillary column (BP 20, 0.32 mm ID, 25 m length, 0.5 μ m film thickness, SGE, Victoria, Australia) using a split/splitless injector, N₂ as carrier gas at 2.4 ml min⁻¹ and a temperature program of 50 °C (5 min), 10 °C min⁻¹, 200 °C (2 min). The detection limit was 10 μ M CH₃OH.

Stable isotope analysis of $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ in gas samples was performed using a gas chromatograph combustion isotope ratio mass spectrometer (GCC-IRMS) system that was purchased from Thermoquest (Bremen, Germany). The principle operation was described (Sugimoto et al. 1991; Brand 1996). The isotope ratios were detected with a Finnigan MAT delta plus IRMS. The CH₄ and CO₂ in the gas samples (10–400 μ l) were first separated in a Hewlett Packard 6890 gas chromatograph operating with a Pora Plot Q column (27.5 m length;

0.32 mm i.d.; 10 μ m film thickness; Chrompack, Frankfurt, Germany) at 25 °C and He (99.996% purity; 2.6 ml min⁻¹) as carrier gas. After conversion of CH₄ to CO₂ in the Finnigan Standard GC Combustion Interface III the gases were transferred into the IRMS. The working standards were CO₂ (99.998% purity; Messer-Griesheim, Düsseldorf, Germany) and methylstearate (Merck). The latter was intercalibrated at the Max-Planck-Institut für Biogeochemie, Jena, Germany (courtesy of Dr W. Brand) against NBS22 and expressed in the delta notation versus PDB carbonate:

$$\delta^{13}C = 10^3 (R_{sa}/R_{st} - 1) \tag{1}$$

with $R = {}^{13}\text{C}/{}^{12}\text{C}$ of sample (sa) and standard (st), respectively. The precision of repeated analysis was $\pm 0.2\%$ when 1.3 nmol CH₄ was injected.

Fractionation factors for a reaction $A \rightarrow B$ are defined according to Hayes (Hayes 1993) by

$$\alpha_{A/B} = (\delta_A + 1000)/(\delta_B + 1000),$$
 (2)

$$\varepsilon_{A/B} = (1 - \alpha_{A/B})1000 \approx \delta_B - \delta_A \tag{3}$$

The contribution of methanogenic methanol consumption to the overall isotopic signature of the produced CH_4 ($\delta^{13}CH_4$) was calculated by the following mass balance

$$\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4 = f_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}\delta_{\text{m}} + (1 - f_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}})\delta_{\text{x}}$$
 (4)

where $f_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}$, fraction of CH₄ produced from methanol; δ_{m} , $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ derived from methanol; δ_{x} , $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ derived from other methane precursors, i.e. acetate and CO₂. The $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ of newly formed CH₄ was calculated from mass balance of the CH₄ detected at two subsequent time points. We do not know the isotopic composition of methanol in rice field soil. Therefore, we assumed that it was the same as that of soil organic C and thus, $\delta_{\text{m}} = \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}} + \varepsilon_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}/\text{CH}_4}$. With $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}} = -26\%$ (Fey et al. 2003) and $\varepsilon_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}/\text{CH}_4} = -74\%$ (Krzycki et al. 1987) we arrive at $\delta_{\text{m}} = -100\%$.

The contribution of $^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ to total CH₄ production was calculated in the following way: the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were converted back into R_{sa} (at.%) using Eq. (1) (done automatically by the software of the GC-C-IRMS). The $R_{^{13}\text{CH}_4}$ of the newly formed CH₄ is calculated from the temporal change of the mixing ratio (m; ppmv) and the isotopic signature ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ converted to R) of the CH₄ accumulated in the headspace of the bottles:

$$R_{\rm ^{13}CH_4} = (R_{\rm m} - R_0 m_0) / (m - m_0) \tag{5}$$

with R_0 and m_0 being the values at the beginning of incubation. The fraction $(f_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}})$ of CH₄ formed from ¹³CH₃OH is then given by

$$f_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}} = R_{^{13}\text{CH}_4}/R_{^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}.$$
 (6)

The values of $R_{^{13}\text{CH}_4}$ were derived from measured values using Eq. (5). Those of CH₃OH can be calculated from the concentration and R=99 at.% of the $^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ added, and from the concentration and R=1.1 at.% (natural abundance) of the CH₃OH originally present in the soil. The concentration of the original CH₃OH is unknown, but must be <10 μ M (i.e. detection limit of our analysis). Hence, $R_{^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}$ must be >50, >91 and >99% for application of 0.1, 1.0 and 10 μ M $^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$, respectively. For application of 1 and 10 μ M $^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$, is thus virtually identical with $R_{^{13}\text{CH}_4}$.

Results

Production of CH₄ was measured in slurries of anoxic rice field soil incubated at 37 and 50 °C. Production rates were in the order of 9–11 nmol h⁻¹ g-dw⁻¹. The produced CH₄ exhibited a much lower δ^{13} CH₄ at 50 °C than at 37 °C. The newly formed CH₄ had on the average a δ^{13} CH₄ of $-80\%_0$ at 50 °C and $-46\%_0$ at 37 °C. When δ^{13} CO₂ was plotted against δ^{13} CH₄, a larger apparent fractionation factor was obtained at 50 °C ($\alpha_{CO_2CH_4} = 1.07$ –1.08) than at 37 °C ($\alpha_{CO_2CH_4} = 1.01$ –1.04) (Figure 1). These results corroborate our earlier experiments (Fey et al. 2003), where we ascribed the relatively large $\alpha_{CO_2CH_4}$ at 50 °C to the fact that CH₄ was exclusively produced from H₂/CO₂, while at 37 °C acetate was the major precursor for CH₄. We neglected that methanol-

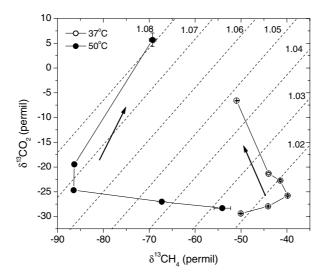


Figure 1. Values of ^{13}C of CO₂ and CH₄ produced in anoxic rice soil slurries at 37 and 50 °C during 90 days incubation. The arrow indicates increasing incubation time. The dotted lines give the apparent fractionation between CO₂ and CH₄ calculated by $\alpha = (\delta^{13}CO_2 + 1000)/(\delta^{13}CH_4 + 1000)$.

dependent methanogenesis could also have contributed to the large apparent fractionation factor. Therefore, we now studied the effect of methanol explicitly.

Addition of 0.1 μ M 13 CH₃OH to anoxic soil slurry at 37 $^{\circ}$ C resulted in immediate production of 13 CH₄ and linear increase of δ^{13} CH₄ for about 1 h (Figure 2a). Production of 13 CH₄ leveled off when a δ^{13} CH₄ of about -10%

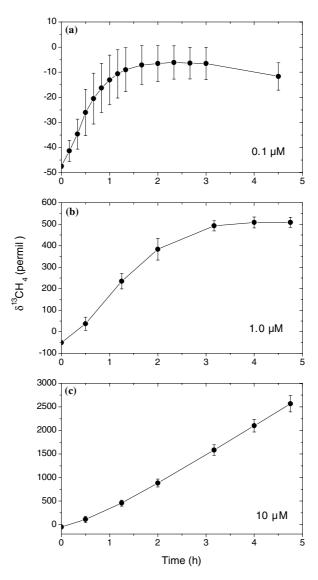


Figure 2. Temporal change of $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ upon addition of different concentrations of $^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ (99 at.%) to methanogenic rice field soil incubated at 37 °C.

was reached, and subsequently $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ slowly decreased again (Figure 2a). A similar pattern was observed after addition of 1.0 μM , but $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ production lasted longer and $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ reached at about +500% a much higher value (Figure 2b). Subsequently, $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ again slowly decreased (not shown). This decrease indicates that $^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ was exhausted and that the accumulated $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ was slowly diluted by $^{12}\text{CH}_4$ produced from unlabeled methanogenic precursors. When 10 μM $^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ was added, accumulation of $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ was even stronger, and $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ did not level off during the duration of the experiment (Figure 2c).

Using the maximum values of $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ and the amounts of accumulated CH₄, the relative contribution of methanol-derived CH₄ to total CH₄ was calculated. The resulting values of $R_{^{13}\text{CH}_4}$ were up to 2, 5 and 17% after addition of 0.1, 1.0 and 10 μ M $^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$, respectively. Increasing concentrations of methanol obviously resulted in an increasing relative contribution of methanol to total CH₄ production, at least at the peak of production of $^{13}\text{CH}_4$. This observation indicates that addition of $^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ artificially

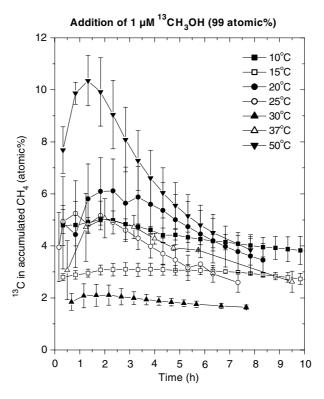


Figure 3. Temporal change of the 13 C content ($R_{^{13}CH_4}$) in the CH₄ accumulated upon addition of 1 μ M 13 CH₃OH (99 at.%) to methanogenic rice field soil incubated at different temperatures. $R_{^{13}CH_4}$ was computed using Eq. (5).

Table 1. Balance of accumulated methanol against inhibited CH₄ production, using 200 μ M chloroform as inhibitor (mean \pm SD; n=4)

Temperature, time of inhibition	Accumulation of CH ₃ OH ^a (μmol)	Inhibition of CH ₄ (μmol) ^b	Percent contribution of CH ₃ OH
37 °C, 26 days	2.5 ± 0.4	340 ± 13	0.7 ± 0.1
37 °C, 46 days	3.0 ± 0.4	490 ± 33	0.6 ± 0.1
50 °C, 26 days	3.2 ± 0.8	269 ± 64	1.2 ± 0.4
50 °C, 46 days	4.3 ± 0.2	410 ± 96	1.1 ± 0.2

^aCalculated from the concentration in the water phase of the soil slurry times total volume of soil water (40 ml).

increased the methanol pool concentration, thus stimulating methanol-dependent methanogenesis.

The experiment was repeated using anoxic soil slurries incubated at different temperatures to which 1 μ M 13 CH₃OH was added. The resulting values of δ^{13} CH₄ and of accumulated total CH₄ were used to calculate $R_{^{13}$ CH₄. A similar pattern was observed at all temperatures (Figure 3). After addition of 13 CH₃OH, $R_{^{13}$ CH₄ increased, reached a maximum after 1–3 h, decreased again, and leveled off at values of about 2–4%. At this time, the added 13 CH₃OH was probably exhausted and CH₄ was produced at the actual *in situ* concentrations of methanogenic precursors, including methanol. There was no clear correlation between temperature and extent of methanol-dependent CH₄ production, except at 50 °C. At 50 °C, $R_{^{13}$ CH₄ increased faster and reached higher values than at the other temperatures. Ultimately, however, $R_{^{13}$ CH₄ also reached a value of up to 4% (Fig. 3), suggesting that methanol was only a marginal methanogenic substrate in anoxic Italian rice field soil.

Measurement of methanol by gas chromatography did not result in a signal, showing that the *in situ* concentration was lower than the detection limit of $10~\mu M$. The experiment shown in Figure 1a suggests that the *in situ* concentration is probably $<0.1~\mu M$. Addition of $200~\mu M$ chloroform resulted in complete inhibition of CH₄ production (for specificity of CHCl₃ see: (Chidthaisong and Conrad 2000; Scholten et al. 2000)). Instead CH₃OH accumulated reaching maximum concentrations of $110~\mu M$ in the pore water after 46 days of incubation. This concentration is equivalent to a total amount of $4.3~\mu m$ ol methanol. The balance of CH₃OH against CH₄ produced in the presence and absence of chloroform, respectively, showed that CH₃OH contributed only marginally to total CH₄ production at both 37 (up to 0.7%) and $50~\rm C$ (up to 1.2%) (Table 1).

Discussion

Our results show that although methanol is rapidly converted to CH₄ in anoxic rice field soil, it contributes only little (about 1%) to total CH₄ production at

^bCalculated from the CH₄ concentration in the gas phase times total volume of headspace (94 ml).

in situ conditions. Even at high temperature (50 °C) methanol-dependent methanogenesis did not play a major role, as shown by accumulation of only little methanol (up to1.2%) upon inhibition of CH₄ production. A temperature as high as 50 °C is probably never encountered under field conditions. Nevertheless, CH₄ is eventually produced at this temperature in many different rice field soils indicating the existence of a thermophilic microbial community (Yang and Chang 1998; Yao and Conrad 2000; Fey et al. 2001). Our results show that this community, as well as the communities active at lower temperatures, used methanol only to a marginal extent. However, contribution of methanol as methanogenic precursor increased, at least temporarily, when methanol was added to the soil. As little as 1 μ M methanol was sufficient to increase the contribution of methanol-dependent methanogenesis up to 10% of total CH₄ production, *albeit* for only few hours. Obviously, methanol-utilizing methanogens are rapidly responding to addition of substrate by increase of activity.

The potential for methanol utilization is found within the families of *Methanosarcinaceae* and *Methanobacteriaceae*, members of which are active constituents of the archaeal community in anoxic rice field soils (Ramakrishnan et al. 2001; Lueders and Friedrich 2002). However, it remains unknown, which specific populations actually responded to the addition of methanol in the Italian rice field soil.

Since methanol-utilizing taxa of methanogens are found in many different anoxic soils and sediments, it is not surprising that addition of methanol to samples of such environments results in stimulation of CH₄ production (Naguib 1982; Nozhevnikova et al. 1997). However, such a potential for methanogenic utilization of methanol does not allow the conclusion that methanol is really an important precursor for CH₄ production *in situ*. Since pectin is, compared to cellulose and hemicellulose, a lesser constituent of plant cells, formation rates of methanol can be expected to be much lower than those of saccharide fermentation products, acetate in particular. Indeed, acetate, followed by H₂/CO₂, is usually the most important precursor of CH₄ formation in anoxic freshwater environments (Conrad 1999). The present study shows that methanol was only a marginal substrate for methanogenesis unless it was added at higher concentrations.

Also at 50 °C, the fraction of methanol-dependent methanogenesis ($f_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}$) was only about 1%. This low contribution could have only a marginal effect on the isotopic signature of the produced CH₄. However, it cannot be ruled out that methanol turnover in soil exhibits activity peaks on a microscale and/or during short periods, during which methanol may accumulate to relatively high concentrations. Analytical techniques hardly allow detecting these concentrations. Nevertheless, $f_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}$ could then be on the order of 10%, *albeit* for a short time and/or on a microscale. Therefore, we calculated (using Eq. (4)) the effect of $f_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}$ on the $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ of the produced CH₄ against a background of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (= δ_x) of CH₄ produced from other precursors, such as H₂/CO₂ and acetate (Figure 4). For background CH₄ production we assumed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$

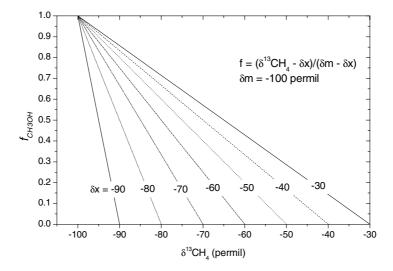


Figure 4. Relation between the fraction ($f_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}$ of methanol-dependent methanogenesis and the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the produced CH₄ against a background of other processes producing CH₄ with a $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of δ_x and assuming that the $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ of methanol-dependent mehanogenesis is $\delta_{\text{m}} = -100\%$.

published for CH₄ produced from acetate (-30 to $-50\%_0$) or CO₂ (-60 to $-95\%_0$) (Sugimoto and Wada 1993; Fey et al. 2003). The calculations show that a $f_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}$ of 10% would decrease the $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ of the produced CH₄ by 1–4‰, when background CH₄ production is due to CO₂ reduction, i.e. $\delta_x = -90$ to $-80\%_0$, and would decrease the $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ by 5–7‰, when background CH₄ production is due to acetate utilization, i.e. $\delta_x = -30$ to $-50\%_0$. At a larger $f_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}$, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the produced CH₄ would become proportionally lower. These calculations assume that the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the CH₄ produced from methanol is $\delta_{\text{m}} = -100\%_0$. In fact, if methanol is a limiting substrate for the methanogenic archaea, fractionation may be much smaller and thus, δ_{m} may be higher and the isotopic signal due to methanol-dependent methanogenesis may be smaller than calculated above.

In conclusion, methanol-dependent methanogenesis may have a significant effect on the isotopic composition of the produced CH₄, but only if the other methanogenic reactions produce CH₄ with a relatively high δ^{13} C (e.g. acetoclastic methanogenesis) and if $f_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}$ is relatively large (>10%). In Italian rice field soil methanol turnover was apparently not important for the ¹³C-isotopic signature of CH₄. Therefore, the rather high fractionation factors ($\epsilon \approx -70\%$) determined for this soil (Conrad et al. 2002; Fey et al. 2003) cannot be biased by methanol-dependent methanogenesis. The value of $f_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}$ under the actual field conditions, i.e. in the presence of plants that potentially release methanol into the soil, is unknown. However, a higher contribution of methanol to CH₄ production is unlikely, since methanol has never been detected in the soil and apparent fractionation factors for the conversion of CO₂ to CH₄ were relatively

low ($\varepsilon = -45$ to -60%) under field conditions conditions (Krüger et al. 2002). However, this may be different in other methanogenic environments with rather low δ^{13} CH₄, such as bogs and marine sediments (Whiticar et al. 1986; Lansdown et al. 1992; Hornibrook et al. 2000; Nakagawa et al. 2002). There, the low δ^{13} CH₄ is usually ascribed to CH₄ production from CO₂. However, the possibility of CH₄ production from methanol should not be completely dismissed. Similarly, trimethyl amine (Summons et al. 1998), and possibly other methylated substrates, may also be a source for low δ^{13} CH₄.

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