

Microbial contributions to subterranean methane sinks

J. T. Lennon^{1*}, D. Nguyen-Thuy², N. Phạm Đức³, A. Drobniak⁴, P. Tạ Hòa², T.M. Pham³, T. Streil⁵, K.D. Webster⁶, A. Schimmelmann⁶

¹ Department of Biology, Indiana University

² Faculty of Geology, Vietnam National University

³ Department of Microbiology, Vietnam National University

⁴ Indiana Geological Survey, Indiana University

⁵ SARAD GmbH

⁶ Department of Geological Sciences, Indiana University

* corresponding author:

Jay T. Lennon

Department of Biology

1001 East 3rd Street

Indiana University

Bloomington, Indiana 47405

812-856-0962

lennonj@indiana.edu

Atmospheric methane (CH_4) is a potent greenhouse gas with rising concentrations that can mainly be attributed to anthropogenic activities^{1,2}. Credible forecasting of global warming by climate models mandates knowledge of sources and sinks of atmospheric CH_4 . One potentially important, but mostly overlooked sink of CH_4 is the oxidation that occurs in subterranean environments. Based largely on correlative evidence, it was recently hypothesized that radiation-induced ionization was responsible for sub-atmospheric CH_4 concentrations in a set of Spanish caves³. This abiotic mechanism of oxidation is reported to deplete CH_4 in caves at a rate faster than it is exchanged with the atmosphere. Here, we present theoretical and experimental evidence suggesting that CH_4 depletion in the air of subterranean ecosystems is more likely due to biological processes, specifically CH_4 oxidation by methanotrophic bacteria.

Weak theoretical support for the importance of radiolytic CH_4 oxidation — The following thought experiments demonstrate that radiation-induced CH_4 oxidation cannot contribute appreciably to CH_4 depletion in subterranean environments over days to weeks. We arrive at this conclusion based on the imbalance between the large number of CH_4 molecules and the comparatively small number of radioactive decay events that are typical in caves.

Ionizing radiation in the air of subterranean limestone-based ecosystems is derived predominantly from α -particles that are generated during radon decay^{4, 5}. These α -particles could lead to the oxidation of CH_4 via different mechanisms. For example, radiolysis could result from the direct collision of α -particles with CH_4 molecules. In this case, an α -particle splits a CH_4 molecule, which triggers a chain reaction leading to the complete oxidation of that molecule. However, with a decay rate of $\sim 35,000$ ^{222}Rn atoms per second in a cubic meter of air,

as measured in a Spanish cave³, it would take nearly 50 million years to eliminate 2 ppm of CH₄ as a result of direct collision between α -particles and CH₄ molecules.

A more likely mechanism occurs when radiogenic energy interacts with water molecules and other major chemical constituents of cave air and thus produces ions and radicals that enter secondary chemical reactions with CH₄. Fernandez-Cortes et al. describe how radiolysis of water vapor via radon decay can generate OH⁻ that act to remove CH₄³. However, if every α -decay at 35,000 Bq m⁻³ generates $4.3 \cdot 10^5$ ions and radicals³, it would still require more than 100 years to eliminate 2 ppm of CH₄. In fact, this likely overestimates the potential for radiolytic CH₄ oxidation since the calculations unrealistically assume that all OH⁻ selectively react with CH₄. In sum, kinetic constraints of CH₄ radiolysis and secondary reactions of CH₄ with ions and radicals are inconsistent with the view that CH₄ can be abiotically depleted in subterranean ecosystems on the time scales of days³. See Supplementary Information for more detail.

Weak experimental support for the importance of radiolytic CH₄ oxidation — Results from

a laboratory experiment confirm our theoretical predictions by demonstrating that ionizing radiation had a minimal effect on CH₄ oxidation rates. We placed 7.08 g uranium metal powder in a Petri dish on the bottom of a closed polyethylene bag containing 43 L of air with an elevated CH₄ concentration (23.5 ppm). The radioactivity inside the bag containing depleted uranium was approximately $2.5 \cdot 10^6$ Bq m⁻³, which is 70-fold higher than the natural radiation reported in Spanish cave air³. Yet, in the presence of strong ionizing radiation, CH₄ was lost from the system at the slow rate of 0.197 ± 0.0005 (\pm standard error) ng CH₄ · m⁻³ · d⁻¹, which was indistinguishable from the diffusive loss of CH₄ from polyethylene control bags lacking uranium (one-sample t-test: $t_6 = -0.97$, $P = 0.37$, Fig.1). See Supplementary Information for more detail.

Strong support for biotic CH₄ oxidation — The results from our field mesocosm experiments suggest that CH₄ depletion is due to biological activity, specifically methanotrophic bacteria that are commonly associated with rocks, soils, and walls of cave ecosystems. In two separate caves with low radon abundances ($\leq 100 \text{ Bq m}^{-3}$) on the island of Cát Bà in Vietnam, we deployed 200-L polyethylene bags filled with cave air containing local limestone cave rocks. Half of these mesocosms ($n = 3$) were treated with a 10 % bleach (sodium hypochlorite) solution to inhibit microbial activity ("dead") while the other mesocosms ("live") were treated with an equal volume of water ($n = 3$). After incubating *in situ* overnight, CH₄ concentrations in the dead mesocosms were indistinguishable from the control mesocosms (no cave rocks) and the cave air (one-sample t-tests, $P > 0.52$, Fig. 2). In contrast, we observed an $87 \% \pm 0.047 \%$ (mean \pm SEM) reduction of CH₄ concentrations in the live mesocosms. From these data, we estimate that CH₄ oxidation associated with cave rocks was between 1.33 and $2.70 \text{ mg CH}_4 \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$, which is comparable to rates reported elsewhere⁷. Furthermore, we conducted quantitative PCR assays on DNA extracted from biofilms of rocks that were incubated in the live mesocosms using primers that targeted the particulate methane monooxygenase (*pmoA*) gene, which is responsible for bacterial CH₄ oxidation (see Supplementary Information). From this, we recovered $1.0 \cdot 10^4$ to $1.5 \cdot 10^4$ *pmoA* gene copies per gram of rock biofilm. When standardized by 16S rRNA gene copy, we estimate that the relative abundance of methanotrophs in the cave biofilms ranged from 0.16 to 1.48 % of the microbial community.

In methane-depleted Spanish caves, the importance of methanotrophy was ruled out based on the assumption that microbes would not be able to meet their metabolic demands for maintenance and growth³. However, this argument overlooks two important ecophysiological

features of microorganisms in natural ecosystems. First, growing evidence suggests that some microorganisms can tolerate extreme energy limitation on timescales ranging from centuries to millennia⁸ owing to life-history strategies such as dormancy⁹. Second, microorganisms in nature are commonly challenged with "feast or famine" conditions. For example, the supply of CH₄ to cave habitats varies through time depending on the source of CH₄, seasonality, ventilation, microclimatic conditions, and geography. Methanotrophic bacteria in caves are likely adapted to such fluctuations in CH₄ concentrations, which are not captured with synoptic sampling.

Conclusion — Although ionizing radiation can accumulate in poorly vented, deep recesses of some caves, this is neither necessary nor sufficient to explain the pattern of CH₄ depletion in subterranean ecosystems. Both theoretical and experimental lines of evidence lead us to the conclusion that radiolytically induced CH₄ oxidation cannot serve as a significant mechanism for rapid depletion of CH₄ in cave air as has been recently suggested³. Rather, our results support the hypothesis that bacterial methanotrophy alone has the potential to significantly oxidize CH₄ in caves, but also smaller-size open subterranean spaces, such as cracks, fissures, and other pores that are connected to the atmosphere.

Acknowledgements — This material is based upon work supported by the U.S. Department of Energy, Office of Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences under Award Number DE-SC0006978 to A.S. In addition, we acknowledge support from the National Science Foundation (1442246 to J.T.L.), the U.S. Army Research Office (W911NF-14-1-0411 to J.T.L.), the Indiana University Office for the Vice President of International Affairs, the Indiana University College

of Arts and Sciences, and the Indiana University Provost's Travel Award for Women in Science.

We thank G. Etiope for constructive feedback on an earlier version of this manuscript and G.

Crouch for discussions about radiation physics. In addition, we thank B. K. Lehmkuhl for

technical support, along with Minh Schimmelmann and Bui Thi Viet Ha for logistical support.

Corresponding data and code for this manuscript can be found at

<https://github.com/LennonLab/radiolyticCH4>.

References

1 EPA, U. S. Inventory of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions and sinks: 1990 - 2013 (2015).

2 IPCC. The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fifth

Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (eds. T.F.

Stockner *et al.*) (Cambridge University Press, 2013).

3 Fernandez-Cortes, A. *et al.* Subterranean atmospheres may act as daily methane sinks.

Nature Communications **6**, 7003 (2015).

4 Cigna, A. A. Radon in caves. *International Journal of Speleology* **34**, 1-18 (2005).

5 Alvarez-Gallego, M., Garcia-Anton, E., Fernandez-Cortes, A., Cuezva S., Sanchez-

Moral, S. High radon levels in subterranean environments: monitoring and technical

criteria to ensure human safety (case of Castañar cave, Spain). *Journal of Environmental*

Radioactivity **145** (2015).

6 Ruzer, L.S. in *Aerosols Handbook: Measurement, Dosimetry, and Health Effects* (Ruzer,

L.S. & Harley, N.H. ed.) 365 (CRC Press, 2004).

7 Whalen, S. C. & Reeburgh, W. S. Consumption of atmospheric methane by tundra soils.
138 *Nature* **346**, 160-162 (1990).

8 Hoehler, T.M. & Jørgensen, B.B. Microbial life under extreme energy limitation. *Nature*
140 *Reviews Microbiology* 11: 83-94 (2013)

9 Lennon, J.T. & Jones, S.E. Microbial seed banks: ecological and evolutionary
142 implications of dormancy. *Nature Reviews Microbiology* 9: 119-130 (2011)

144

Figures

Fig. 1. Rates of methane (CH_4) oxidation were not affected by ionizing radiation. We conducted a laboratory experiment where we tracked the concentration of CH_4 in a polyethylene bag containing air and ionizing radiation from a source of uranium metal powder (black line, $n = 1$) to the concentration of CH_4 in control bags without an added source of ionizing radiation (grey lines, $n = 7$). We attribute the slow loss of CH_4 in all trials to diffusion through polyethylene.

Fig. 2. Field mesocosm experiments in two Vietnamese caves support the biological methane (CH_4) oxidation hypothesis. Control mesocosms contained no cave rocks and provided an estimate for the diffusive loss of CH_4 ; "dead" mesocosms contained cave rocks that were treated with a 10 % bleach solution; "live" mesocosms contained cave rocks and a volume of water (150 mL) equivalent to the volume of bleach used in the "dead" treatment. The dashed horizontal lines correspond to the CH_4 concentrations in the Hoa Cương and Minh Châu caves on Cát Bà island, Vietnam.

Fig. 1.

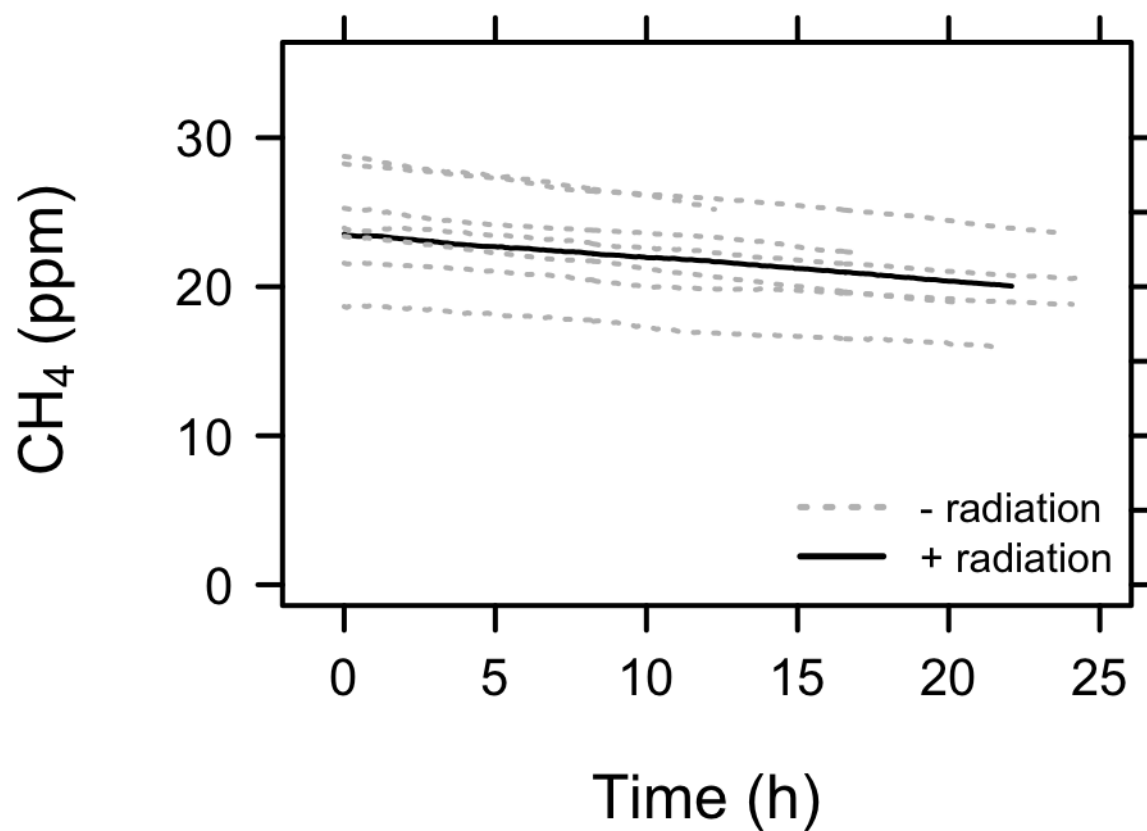


Fig. 2.

