Widespread formation of methane by *Cyanobacteria* in aquatic and terrestrial environments

One sentence summary: Ancient and ubiquitous, *Cyanobacteria* are the first in the domain *Bacteria* shown to emit methane, paradoxically in parallel to oxygen production.

Bižić-Ionescu M.[1*#], Klintzsch T.[2*], Ionescu D.[1*], Hindiyeh M. Y.[3], Günthel M.[4], Muro-Pastor A.M.[5], Keppler F.[2,6], Grossart H-P[1,7#]

1. Leibniz Institute of Freshwater Ecology and Inland Fisheries (IGB), Neuglobsow, Germany
2. Institute of Earth Sciences, Biogeochemistry Group, Heidelberg University, Heidelberg, Germany
3. Department of Water and Environmental Engineering, German Jordanian University, Amman, Jordan
4. Department of Biosciences, Swansea University, SA2 8PP Swansea, United Kingdom.
5. Instituto de Bioquímica Vegetal y Fotosíntesis, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas and Universidad de Sevilla, Sevilla, Spain
6. Heidelberg Center for the Environment (HCE), Heidelberg University, D-69120 Heidelberg, Germany
7. Institute of Biochemistry and Biology, Potsdam University, Potsdam, Germany

* These authors contributed equally to this work

Correspondence should be addressed to:

Mina Bižić-Ionescu, Leibniz Institute of Freshwater Ecology and Inland Fisheries (IGB), Department of Experimental Limnology, Alte Fischerhuette 2, Neuglobsow, OT Stechlin, 16775, Germany
Email: mbizic@igb-berlin.de; Tel +49-33082-69969

Hans-Peter Grossart, Leibniz Institute of freshwater ecology and inland fisheries (IGB), Department of Experimental Limnology, Alte Fischerhuette 2, Neuglobsow, OT Stechlin, 16775, Germany
Email: hgrossart@igb-berlin.de; Tel +49-33082-69991

Abstract

Evidence is accumulating to challenge the paradigm that biogenic methanogenesis, traditionally considered a strictly anaerobic process, is exclusive to Archaea. Cyanobacteria are here shown to produce methane at substantial rates under light and dark oxic conditions, demonstrating biogenic methane production within the Bacteria, the second prokaryotic domain. Biogenic methane production was enhanced during oxygenic photosynthesis and directly attributed to the cyanobacteria by stable isotope labelling. Methanogenesis by Cyanobacteria partly explains the paradox of methane production in oxygen-saturated waters. Climate change, leading to worldwide increases in cyanobacterial blooms will accordingly have a direct feedback on warming. With a ubiquitous presence on Earth for 3.5 billion years, Cyanobacteria have had and will continue to have a substantial impact on the global methane budget.

Introduction

Methane (CH_4) is the second most important anthropogenic greenhouse gas after CO_2 and is estimated to have 28-34 times higher warming effect than the latter over a 100-year period [1]. The mixing ratio of CH_4 in the troposphere has increased from 715 ppbv in the preindustrial era to currently 1,860 ppbv (Nov. 2017 NOAA). Estimated global CH_4 emissions to the atmosphere average at ca. 560 Tg per year (1Tg = 10^{12} g) exceeding the current estimated sinks by ca. 13 Tg per year [2]. Thus, to reduce the anthropogenic contribution to the constant increase in atmospheric CH_4 a comprehensive understanding of global CH_4 sources and the environmental parameters that affect them is necessary.

Traditionally, biogenic methanogenesis is the formation of methane under strictly anoxic conditions by microbes from the domain *Archaea* (phylogenetically distinct from both eukaryotes and *Bacteria*). However, in the past decade there has been growing evidence that also eukaryotes such as algae [3], plants [4], animals [5], fungi [6] and probably humans [7] produce methane under oxic conditions albeit at considerably lower rates. These recent findings suggest that the phenomenon may not be solely limited to methanogenic *Archaea* and could include new metabolic pathways. For example, the conversion of methylated substrates such as methylphosphonates to CH_4 by *Bacteria* has been extensively addressed in recent years with regards to the "methane paradox" [8]. Methane emission was also detected from cryptogamic covers, i.e. phototrophic assemblages on plant, rock and soil surfaces [9]. Nevertheless, thus far, members of the second prokaryotic domain, *Bacteria*, remained unexplored as to their ability to directly produce CH_4 in the absence of added external precursors.

Accumulation of CH_4 in oxygenated freshwater environments has been repeatedly associated with the presence of *Cyanobacteria* (see also Fig. S1). Methane production by *Cyanobacteria* has been attributed to either demethylation of methylphosphonates [10,11] or to the association of filamentous *Cyanobacteria* with methanogenic *Archaea*, providing the latter with the necessary hydrogen for CH_4 production [12]. *Cyanobacteria* are ubiquitous, found literally in any illuminated environment. Furthermore, this phylum predominated Earth whilst the environment was still reductive and before the great oxidation event (by ca. 1.3 billion years). Therefore, we tested whether this phylum contributes to the global CH_4 budget independent of environmental precursors or the presence of

methanogenic *Archaea*. If so, their ubiquitous nature, their expected future increase in abundance [13] and their proximity to the interface with the atmosphere makes them potential key players in the global CH_4 cycle.

Here we demonstrate that unicellular and filamentous, freshwater, marine and terrestrial members of the prominent and ubiquitous phylum *Cyanobacteria*, a member of the domain *Bacteria*, produce methane at substantial rates under both light and dark, oxic conditions.

Results and Discussion

To test the hypothesis that *Cyanobacteria* directly produce CH_4 independent of methylated precursors (e.g. methylphosphonates) in ambient water, nine different filamentous and unicellular cyanobacterial cultures were incubated under sterile conditions with ^{13}C labelled sodium hydrogen carbonate ($NaH^{13}CO_3$) as carbon source. All investigated cyanobacterial cultures showed CH_4 formation with increasing stable isotope values ($\delta^{13}C$-CH_4 values), depending on the amount of released CH_4, whereas no ^{13}C enrichment occurred in the control experiments (Fig. 1). These results unambiguously show that *Cyanobacteria* produce CH_4 *per se* and that the process is most likely linked to general cell metabolism such as photoautotrophic carbon fixation. The involvement of methanogenic *Archaea* in this process can be ruled out since the oxygen concentrations during CH_4 production were in most cases above saturation level (Fig. 2 and Fig. S2). Furthermore, sequencing analysis of the cultures and quantitative real-time PCR of the *mcrA* gene showed methanogenic *Archaea* are either absent or present in negligible numbers (Fig. S3).

Demethylation of methylphosphonates is unlikely to be the mechanism involved in this instance even though some *Cyanobacteria* do possess the necessary enzymatic machinery [10,11] for the following reasons. Firstly, demethylation of methylphosphonates has been shown to occur only under phosphorus starvation, which was highly unlikely in this study since the culture medium contained ca. 200 μmol P L^{-1}. Indeed, publicly available transcriptomic data for *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7120 [14,15] and *Trichodesmium erythraeum* [16] show no evidence for activity of the phosphonate C-P lyase genes under standard culture conditions. Secondly, some of the *Cyanobacteria* used in this study (i.e. *Microcystis aeruginosa* PCC 7806, *Prochlorococcus marinus* MIT 9313 as well as all sequenced species of *Chroococcidiopsis* sp., *Leptolyngbia* sp. and *Phormidium* sp.) do not possess the C-P lyase genes necessary for conversion of methylphosphonates to CH_4. Thus, we consider that the mechanism by which *Cyanobacteria* readily convert fixed CO_2 to CH_4 must revolve around their central metabolism. However, the biochemical pathway(s) involved in cyanobacteria-derived CH_4 formation remain unknown and thus require further investigation.

Patterns and rates of CH_4 production were investigated over several days of continuous measurement of CH_4 concentration using a membrane inlet mass spectrometry system (MIMS). Our measurements, lasting 2-5 days, showed that CH_4 production occurs both under light and dark conditions (Fig. 2 and Fig. S2). Replicate experiments revealed that, while *Cyanobacteria* repeatedly produced CH_4, rates and patterns were not consistent, particularly so for production during the periods of darkness. Often, a period with lower rates of CH_4 production was observed between light and dark phases (Fig. 2 and Fig. S2). The latter is evidenced as a decrease in CH_4 concentration resulting from degassing of our incubation system. This suggests that different

mechanisms might be involved in CH₄ production under light and dark conditions, presumably
dependent on freshly generated photosynthetic products during light and on storage compounds
during dark periods. Fermentation of storage compounds by *Cyanobacteria* has been previously
described and known to produce among other compounds acetate and hydrogen which are known
precursors of acetoclastic CH₄ formation [17]. Interestingly, most of the genes required for
methanogenesis are present in non-methanogenic organisms, including *Cyanobacteria*.
Nevertheless, in this instance since the methyl-coenzyme reductase (*mcr*) gene is absent this would
suggest that if *Cyanobacteria* produce CH₄ via conventional pathways, an ortholog of the *mcr* gene
exists.

Figure 1. Amount of CH₄ produced and stable δ^{13}C-CH₄ values measured during incubation experiments of nine different filamentous and unicellular (see sketches) cyanobacterial cultures with and without NaH^{13}CO₃ supplementation. *Cyanobacteria* that can (or likely can) fix atmospheric N₂ are labelled. All cyanobacterial cultures produced CH₄ (red bars). Using NaH^{13}CO₃ as carbon source resulted in increasing stable δ^{13}C-CH₄ values as compared to the starting condition, as seen by the shift to the right of the red and violet circles compared to green ones. This establishes the direct link between carbon fixation and CH₄ production. The ^{13}C enrichment is not quantitative and thus not comparable between cultures. Error bars represent standard deviation. Data presented in green (bars or circles) are from control experiments. Methane production was averaged across multiple experiments with and without added culture (See Fig. S4). Similarly control results of labelling experiments are the average of multiple experiments which exclude addition of culture and NaH^{13}CO₃ (See Fig. S5).

Methane production rates (Fig. 3) were calculated using the slope of CH_4 profiles and were
normalized on a cyanobacterial biomass dry weight basis. Daily CH_4 production rates across all
cultures were in the range of 0.1 to 3.4 µmol g^{-1} h^{-1} in individual experiments and a mean of 0.51
$\pm$ 0.26 µmol g^{-1} h^{-1}. These rates are three to four orders of magnitude lower than the CH_4 production
rates noted for typical methanogenic *Archaea* in culture under optimal conditions (oxygen free)
but one to three Fig. S6).

Figure 2. Continuous measurement of CH_4 and oxygen under light/dark periods using a membrane
inlet mass spectrometer (MIMS). Examples are shown for two cultures but data for other cultures
can be found in Fig. S2. A decrease in CH_4 concentration is a result of either reduced, or no,
production coupled with degassing from the supersaturated, continuously-mixing, semi-open
incubation chamber towards equilibrium with atmospheric CH_4 (2.5 nM and 2.1 nM for freshwater
and seawater, respectively). Calculated CH_4 production rates account for the continuous emission
of CH_4 from the incubation chamber for as long as the CH_4 concentrations are supersaturated. The
light regime for the experiments was as follows: dark (black bar) from 19:30 to 09:00 then light
intensity (yellow bar) was programmed to increase to 60, 120, 180, 400 µmol quanta m^{-2} s^{-1} with
a hold time of 1.5 h at each intensity. After the maximum light period the intensity was
programmed to decrease in reverse order with the same hold times until complete darkness again
at 19:30.

Methane production in oxic soils has been previously discussed and attributed mainly to abiotic factors [18] or methanogenic *Archaea* [19], although the latter was thought unlikely [18,20]. Here we show that a typical desert crust *Cyanobacteria* (identified in this study as *Leptolyngbya* sp.), as well as the most common endolithic cyanobacterium *Chroococcidiopsis* [21] produce CH₄ both under light and dark conditions (Fig. 1, Fig. S2), thus inferring a new but as yet unknown mechanism for CH₄ production in oxic soils.

Figure 3. Average CH₄ production rates (µmol g DW^{-1} h^{-1}) obtained from multiple long-term measurements (2-5 days) using a membrane inlet mass spectrometer. The rates are designated by colour according to the environment from which the *Cyanobacteria* were originally isolated; dark blue, light blue and green for marine, freshwater and soil environments, respectively. Black and red lines represent median and mean values, respectively.

Cyanobacteria are ubiquitous in nature and their presence in aquatic systems is expected to increase with eutrophication and rising global temperatures [13]. The "methane paradox" describing the production of CH₄ in oxic water layers has been known for four decades [22] and a recent study suggests that as much as 90 % of CH₄ emitted from freshwater lakes is produced in the oxic layer [23]. As *Cyanobacteria* are often associated with elevated CH₄ concentration in oxygen

supersaturated freshwater systems [24], we used a global estimate of cyanobacterial biomass across
different aquatic and terrestrial environments [21] and the production rates determined in this study
to generate a conservative calculation of global cyanobacterial CH_4 production (Fig. 4). For this
calculation we used hourly rates averaged over a period of 48-120 hours per experiment (see
methods section for details). Minimum, maximum and average estimates for cyanobacterial
production were generated for each environmental compartment. Since not all cyanobacterial
biomass on Earth is present and active at the same time, specific activity periods were defined for
Cyanobacteria from different environments (see methods section for details). We would point out
that this simple approach neglects the complexity of aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems and hence
our calculations should only be considered as first rough estimates.

Figure 4. Estimated contribution of *Cyanobacteria* to the global CH_4 budget, calculated for
different environments. The values represent estimates of production and not CH_4 emission
from the different ecosystems, which most likely depend on other oxic-methane producers as
well as consumers. The minimum and maximum CH_4 production values were calculated using
the averaged minimum and maximum measured rates per cyanobacterial culture per
environment type, alongside activity periods of different durations (see methods section).

Our calculations suggest that globally, *Cyanobacteria* thriving in aquatic and terrestrial
environments produce 2.2 - 16.8 Tg CH_4 y^{-1} with a mean value of 9.5 Tg CH_4 y^{-1} (Fig. 4). Based
on these estimates the largest single contribution arises from oceanic environments (4.7 Tg y^{-1})
followed by semiarid soils (2.73 Tg y^{-1}). The CH_4 emission in oceanic systems is estimated to be
between 0.6-1.2 Tg y^{-1} [25], suggesting that a major portion of cyanobacterial-produced CH_4 is either
consumed or accumulated within the water column alongside other potential sources of oxic-
methane. Surprisingly, despite freshwater environments having a similar overall contribution as
oceans to oxic-methane emission [26], the freshwater cyanobacterial component calculated here is
significantly lower (0.09 Tg y^{-1}). In their global estimation, Garcia-Pichel *et al*. [21] state that
freshwater cyanobacterial biomass may be underestimated since small lakes and ponds were not
included. The latter study suggests the global cyanobacterial biomass may be underestimated by a
total of 138 Tg of which up to 2 Tg are attributed to small lakes and ponds. Accounting for these
additional 2 Tg increases the maximum freshwater contribution from 0.17 to 0.22 Tg CH_4 y^{-1} on
the expense of the 1.9 Tg CH_4 y^{-1} produced by *Cyanobacteria* from understudied biomes, but it
does not increase the estimated global production. However to fully account for the discrepancy

in cyanobacterial contribution to oxic-methane emission from freshwater systems would require
either additional mechanisms or additional unaccounted biomass, such as under-ice blooms [27] or a
significant increase in freshwater cyanobacterial biomass as reported from large lakes all over the
world [28,29].

In this study, we show that *Cyanobacteria* can readily convert fixed inorganic carbon directly to
CH_4 and emit the potent greenhouse gas under both light and dark conditions. This is in addition
to the already established ability of *Cyanobacteria* to produce CH_4 by the demethylation of
methylphosphonates [10,11]. *Cyanobacteria* as a phylum are the most ubiquitous group of organisms
on Earth, thriving in most, naturally and artificially, illuminated environments almost regardless
of temperatures, salinity and nutrient concentrations. Accordingly, their ability to produce CH_4 via
different pathways, likely related to their surroundings, makes them important to the global CH_4
cycle and budget. Furthermore, as phototrophic prokaryotes such as *Cyanobacteria* have been
inhabiting Earth for more than 3.5 billion years they may have had a major contribution to Earth's
CH_4 cycle such as during the great oxygenation event or even earlier when the conditions on Earth
were more reductive favoring CH_4 production. Further research is needed to elucidate the
biochemical pathways of CH_4 formation in *Cyanobacteria* and fully assess its possible relevance
for ecology and the global CH_4 budget throughout Earth history.

Acknowledgements

In-situ probe data was obtained from the LakeLab (www.lakelab.de) as part of the routine
monitoring of Lake Stechlin run by the Leibniz Institute of Freshwater Ecology and Inland
Fisheries. We thank the technical assistants of department III for making this data available. We
thank the members of the MIBI group and particularly Jason Woodhouse for assistance in
sampling, analysis and discussion of the data. We thank Tim Urich from Greifswald University
for the qPCR analysis. We thank Claudia Steglich and Wolfgang Hess from Freiburg University
for the *Prochlorococcus* culture. We thank Falk Pollehne from the Institute of Baltic Sea Research
for the *Nodularia* culture. We thank Meri Eichner from the Max Planck Institute for Marine
Microbiology for the *Trichodesmium* culture. Funding was provided to M.B.I., D.I. and H.P.G. via
the DFG-Aquameth project (GR1540-21-1) and the Human Frontiers Science project (HFSP
2039371). F.K. and T.K. were supported by the German Research Foundation (DFG; KE 884/8-2
and KE 884/11-1).

Author Contributions

M.B.I., T.K., D.I., F.K., H.P.G., conceived the study and designed the experiments; M.B.I., D.I.,
M.Y.H., M.G., A.M.M.P, performed MIMS experiments and *in-situ* measurements and analyzed
the data; T.K. performed stable isotope measurements and together with F.K. analyzed the data.
M.B.I., D.I., performed microbial community data analysis; A.M.M.P. analyzed transcriptomics
data. M.B.I., T.K., D.I., M.Y.H., M.G., A.M.M.P., F.K., H.P.G. discussed the results and wrote
the paper.

References

1. *Climate Change 2013 - The Physical Science Basis*. (Cambridge University Press, 2014). doi:10.1017/CBO9781107415324

2. Saunois, M. *et al.* The global methane budget 2000–2012. *Earth Syst. Sci. Data* **8,** 697–751 (2016).

3. Lenhart, K. *et al.* Evidence for methane production by the marine algae Emiliania huxleyi. *Biogeosciences* **13,** 3163–3174 (2016).

4. Keppler, F., Hamilton, J. T. G., Braß, M. & Röckmann, T. Methane emissions from terrestrial plants under aerobic conditions. *Nature* **439,** 187–191 (2006).

5. Tuboly, E. *et al.* Methane biogenesis during sodium azide-induced chemical hypoxia in rats. *Am. J. Physiol. Physiol.* **304,** C207–C214 (2013).

6. Lenhart, K. *et al.* Evidence for methane production by saprotrophic fungi. *Nat. Commun.* **3,** 1046 (2012).

7. Keppler, F. *et al.* Stable isotope and high precision concentration measurements confirm that all humans produce and exhale methane. *J. Breath Res.* **10,** 016003 (2016).

8. Repeta, D. J. *et al.* Marine methane paradox explained by bacterial degradation of dissolved organic matter. *Nat. Geosci.* **9,** 884–887 (2016).

9. Lenhart, K. *et al.* Nitrous oxide and methane emissions from cryptogamic covers. *Glob. Chang. Biol.* **21,** 3889–3900 (2015).

10. Beversdorf, L. J., White, A. E., Björkman, K. M., Letelier, R. M. & Karl, D. M. Phosphonate metabolism by *Trichodesmium* IMS101 and the production of greenhouse gases. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **55,** 1768–1778 (2010).

11. Gomez-Garcia, M. R., Davison, M., Blain-Hartnung, M., Grossman, A. R. & Bhaya, D. Alternative pathways for phosphonate metabolism in thermophilic cyanobacteria from microbial mats. *ISME J.* **5,** 141–149 (2011).

12. Berg, A., Lindblad, P. & Svensson, B. H. Cyanobacteria as a source of hydrogen for methane formation. *World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **30,** 539–545 (2014).

13. Visser, P. M. *et al.* How rising CO2 and global warming may stimulate harmful cyanobacterial blooms. *Harmful Algae* **54,** 145–159 (2016).

14. Flaherty, B. L., Van Nieuwerburgh, F., Head, S. R. & Golden, J. W. Directional RNA deep sequencing sheds new light on the transcriptional response of Anabaena sp. strain PCC 7120 to combined-nitrogen deprivation. *BMC Genomics* **12,** 332 (2011).

15. Mitschke, J., Vioque, A., Haas, F., Hess, W. R. & Muro-Pastor, A. M. Dynamics of transcriptional start site selection during nitrogen stress-induced cell differentiation in Anabaena sp. PCC7120. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **108,** 20130–5 (2011).

16. Pfreundt, U., Kopf, M., Belkin, N., Berman-Frank, I. & Hess, W. R. The primary transcriptome of the marine diazotroph Trichodesmium erythraeum IMS101. *Sci. Rep.* **4,**

249   6187 (2014).

17.   Stal, L. J. & Moezelaar, R. Fermentation in Cyanobacteria. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* **21,**
251   179–211 (1997).

18.   Jugold, A. *et al.* Non-microbial methane formation in oxic soils. *Biogeosciences* **9,** 5291–
253   5301 (2012).

19.   Hao, W. M., Scharffe, D., Crutzen, P. J. & Sanhueza, E. Production of N2O, CH4, and
255   CO2 from soils in the tropical savanna during the dry season. *J. Atmos. Chem.* **7,** 93–105
256   (1988).

20.   Kammann, C., Hepp, S., Lenhart, K. & Müller, C. Stimulation of methane consumption
258   by endogenous CH4 production in aerobic grassland soil. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* **41,** 622–629
259   (2009).

21.   Garcia-Pichel, F., Belnap, J., Neuer, S. & Schanz, F. Estimates of global cyanobacterial
261   biomass and its distribution. *Arch. Hydrobiol. Suppl. Algol. Stud.* **109,** 213–227 (2003).

22.   Scranton, M. I. & Farrington, J. W. Methane Production in the Waters off Walvis Bay. *J.*
263   *Geophys. Res.* **82,** 4947–4953 (1977).

23.   Donis, D. *et al.* Full-scale evaluation of methane production under oxic conditions in a
265   mesotrophic lake. *Nat. Commun.* **8,** 1661 (2017).

24.   Grossart, H.-P., Frindte, K., Dziallas, C., Eckert, W. & Tang, K. W. Microbial methane
267   production in oxygenated water column of an oligotrophic lake. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*
268   **108,** 19657–19661 (2011).

25.   Etiope, G., Lassey, K. R., Klusman, R. W. & Boschi, E. Reappraisal of the fossil methane
270   budget and related emission from geologic sources. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **35,** L09307
271   (2008).

26.   Tang, K. W., McGinnis, D. F., Ionescu, D. & Grossart, H.-P. Methane production in oxic
273   lake waters potentially increases aquatic methane flux to air. *Environ. Sci. Technol. Lett.*
274   **3,** 227–233 (2016).

27.   Bižić-Ionescu, M., Amann, R. & Grossart, H.-P. Massive regime shifts and high activity
276   of heterotrophic bacteria in an ice-covered lake. *PLoS One* **9,** e113611 (2014).

28.   Glibert, P. M., Maranger, R., Sobota, D. J. & Bouwman, L. The Haber Bosch–harmful
278   algal bloom (HB–HAB) link. *Environ. Res. Lett.* **9,** 105001 (2014).

29.   Bowling, L. C., Blais, S. & Sinotte, M. Heterogeneous spatial and temporal cyanobacterial
280   distributions in Missisquoi Bay, Lake Champlain: An analysis of a 9 year data set. *J.*
281   *Great Lakes Res.* **41,** 164–179 (2015).

30.   Stanier, R. Y., Deruelles, J., Rippka, R., Herdman, M. & Waterbury, J. B. Generic
283   assignments, strain histories and properties of pure cultures of Cyanobacteria.
284   *Microbiology* **111,** 1–61 (1979).

31.   Guillard, R. R. L. & Ryhter, J. H. Studies of marine planktonic diatoms. *Can. J.*
286   *Microbiol.* **8,** 229–239 (1962).

287   32.   Chen, Y.-B., Zehr, J. P. & Mellon, M. Growth and nitrogen fixation of the diazotrophic
288   filamentous nonheterocystous cyanobacterium trichodesmium sp. IMS 101 in defined
289   media: evidence for a circadian rhythm. *J. Phycol.* **32,** 916–923 (1996).

290   33.   Moore, L. R. *et al.* Culturing the marine cyanobacterium Prochlorococcus. *Limnol.*
291   *Oceanogr. Methods* **5,** 353–362 (2007).

292   34.   Kana, T. M., Cornwell, J. C. & Zhong, L. Determination of denitrification in the
293   Chesapeake Bay from measurements of N2 accumulation in bottom water. *Estuaries and*
294   *Coasts* **29,** 222–231 (2006).

295   35.   Schlüter, M. & Gentz, T. Application of membrane inlet mass spectrometry for online and
296   in situ analysis of methane in aquatic environments. *J. Am. Soc. Mass Spectrom.* **19,**
297   1395–402 (2008).

298   36.   Powell, R. J. Solubility of 16 gases in heptacosafluorotributylamine and carbon disulfide.
299   *J. Chem. Eng. Data* **17,** 302–304 (1972).

300   37.   Savitzky, A. & Golay, M. J. E. Smoothing and differentiation of data by simplified least
301   squares procedures. *Anal. Chem.* **36,** 1627–1639 (1964).

302   38.   Nercessian, O., Noyes, E., Kalyuzhnaya, M. G., Lidstrom, M. E. & Chistoserdova, L.
303   Bacterial populations active in metabolism of C1 compounds in the sediment of Lake
304   Washington, a freshwater lake. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **71,** 6885–99 (2005).

305   39.   Fischer, M. A., Güllert, S., Neulinger, S. C., Streit, W. R. & Schmitz, R. A. Evaluation of
306   16S rRNA Gene Primer Pairs for Monitoring Microbial Community Structures Showed
307   High Reproducibility within and Low Comparability between Datasets Generated with
308   Multiple Archaeal and Bacterial Primer Pairs. *Front. Microbiol.* **7,** (2016).

309   40.   Ionescu, D. *et al.* Microbial and chemical characterization of underwater fresh water
310   springs in the Dead Sea. *PLoS One* **7,** e38319 (2012).

311   41.   Mountfort, D. O. & Asher, R. A. Effect of inorganic sulfide on the growth and metabolism
312   of Methanosarcina barkeri strain DM. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **37,** 670–675 (1979).

313   42.   Kröninger, L., Gottschling, J. & Deppenmeier, U. Growth characteristics of
314   Methanomassiliicoccus luminyensis and expression of methyltransferase encoding genes.
315   *Archaea* **2017,** 1–12 (2017).

316   43.   Gerhard, E., Butsch, B. M., Marison, I. W., von, S. & U. Improved growth and methane
317   production for Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **40,**
318   432–437 (1993).

319   44.   Brüggemann, N. *et al.* Nonmicrobial aerobic methane emission from poplar shoot cultures
320   under low-light conditions. *New Phytol.* **182,** 912–918 (2009).

321   45.   Wishkerman, A. *et al.* Enhanced formation of methane in plant cell cultures by inhibition
322   of cytochrome c oxidase. *Plant. Cell Environ.* **34,** 457–464 (2011).

323   46.   Qaderi, M. M. & Reid, D. M. Methane emissions from six crop species exposed to three
324   components of global climate change: Temperature, ultraviolet-B radiation and water

325   stress. *Physiol. Plant.* **137,** 139–147 (2009).

328   **Material and Methods:**

329   **Cyanobacterial cultures**

330   Eleven different cyanobacterial cultures were obtained from various sources and grown using the
331   media described in Table S1.

Strain name	Source	Morphology	Growth medium	Incubation temperature °C
Anabaena sp. PCC7120	IBVF	Filamentous	BG11 [30]	30
Anabaena cylindrica ATCC29414	IBVF	Filamentous	BG11 [30]	30
Anabaena borealis	CCALA	Filamentous	BG11[30]	30
Scytonema hofmanni PCC7110	IBVF	Filamentous	BG11 [30]	30
Leptolyngbya sp. (desert crust)	HUJI	Filamentous	BG11 [30]	30
Phormidium persicinum	IBVF	Filamentous	f/2 [31]	26
Trichodesmium erythraeum	MPI-MM	Filamentous	YBCII [32]	26
Nodularia spumigena	IOW	Filamentous	f/2 [31] (8 psu)	20
Chroococcidiopsis sp. PCC9317	IBVF	Unicellular	BG11 [30]	30
Microcystis aeruginosa PCC7806	IGB	Unicellular	BG11 [30]	30
Prochlorococcus marinus MIT9313	Uni Freiburg	Unicellular	AMP1 [33]	22

Table S1. Cyanobacterial cultures used in this study and their growth conditions. Sources
abbreviations: IBVF: Culture collection of the Institute for plant biochemistry and photosynthesis,
Sevilla Spain; CCALA: Culture collection of autotrophic organisms; HUJI: Laboratory of Aaron
Kaplan, Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Jerusalem Israel; IOW: Laboratory of Falk Pollehne,
Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea research, Warnemünde, Germany; MPI-MM: Max Planck Institute
for Marine Microbiology, Bremen, Germany; IGB: Leibniz Institute of Freshwater Ecology and
Inland Fisheries, Neuglobsow, Germany; Uni. Freiburg, Laboratory of Claudia Steglich, Freiburg
University, Freiburg, Germany.

Stable isotope labeling experiments

Culturing and treatments

To investigate the production of *Cyanobacteria*-derived CH_4, 60 ml vials with 40 ml liquid and 20
ml head space volume (ambient air) were used and sealed with septa suitable for gas sampling.

347	For the ^{13}C labelling experiments NaH$^{13}CO_3$ (99 % purity, Sigma-Aldrich, Germany) was added
348	amounting to 5 to 10 % of the initial dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) in BG11 (DIC = 0.4 mM,
349	enriched by added NaHCO$_3$; pH ≈ 7.0) and 4.5 % of the DIC in f/2 medium (DIC = 2015 μmol L$^-$
350	^{1}; pH ≈ 8.2). Four different examination groups were used: (1) Sterile medium; (2) Sterile medium
351	with NaH$^{13}CO_3$; (3) Sterile medium with culture; (4) Sterile medium with culture and NaH$^{13}CO_3$;
352	Three replicates of each cyanobacteria culture (n = 3) were investigated, except for
353	*Prochlorococcus marinus* MIT 9313 and *Phormidium persicinum* where four replicates were used
354	(n = 4).

355 The cultures were grown under a light–dark cycle of 16 and 8 hours at 22.5 ◦C at a light intensity
356 of ≈ 30 μmol quanta m^{-2} s^{-1}. The initial inoculated dry weight was specific for each species and
357 ranged between 0.03 and 0.28mg dw ml^{-1}. The incubation time was between 3 and 11 days.

CF-IRMS

CF-IRMS was employed for measurement of the δ^{13}C values of the CH$_4$ in the head space gas
above the cultures. Head space gas from exetainers was transferred to an evacuated sample loop
(40 mL) and interfering compounds were then separated by GC and CH$_4$ trapped on Hayesep D.
The sample was then transferred to the IRMS system (ThermoFinniganDeltaplus XL, Thermo
Finnigan, Bremen, Germany) via an open split. The working reference gas was carbon dioxide of
high purity (carbon dioxide 4.5, Messer Griesheim, Frankfurt, Germany) with a known δ^{13}C value
of -23.64 ‰ relative to Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (V-PDB). All δ^{13}C values of CH$_4$ were
corrected using three CH$_4$ working standards (isometric instruments, Victoria, Canada) calibrated
against IAEA and NIST reference substances. The calibrated δ^{13}C CH$_4$ values of the three working
standards were -23.9 ± 0.2 ‰, -38.3 ± 0.2 ‰, and -54.5 ± 0.2 ‰. The average standard deviations
(n = 3) of the CF-IRMS measurements were in the range of 0.1 to 0.3 ‰. All ^{13}C / ^{12}C-isotope
ratios are expressed in the conventional δ notation in per mille (‰) vs. V-PDB, using the equation
1.

373
$$\delta = \left[\frac{(^{13}C/^{12}C)_{sample}}{(^{13}C/^{12}C)_{standard}} \right] - 1 \qquad (1)$$

Determination of CH$_4$ mole fraction

The head space pressure was measured with a sensor (GMSD 1,3 BA, Greisinger, capped by a
needle). Afterwards 5 ml gas volume was sampled from the head space using a Hamilton gas
syringe needle and analyzed by a gas chromatograph (GC; column: 2 m, Ø = 3.175 mm inner
diameter, high-grade steel tube packed with Molecular Sieve 5A 60/80 mesh from Supelco)
equipped with a GC–flame ionization detector (FID) (Shimadzu GC-14B). The system was
calibrated by a reference standard containing 2192 ppb$_v$ CH$_4$.

The CH$_4$ mole fraction (n_{CH_4}) was determined by its mixing ratio (x_{CH_4}) and the ideal gas law (eq.
2).

$$n_{CH_4} = x_{CH_4} \frac{p\,V}{RT} \hspace{6cm} (2)$$

Where p = pressure, T = temperature, R = ideal gas constant, V = volume.

Membrane inlet mass spectrometer experiments

Experiments were conducted using a Bay Instruments (MD, USA) Membrane Inlet Mass
Spectrometer (MIMS) consisting of a Pfeiffer Vacuum HiCube 80 Eco turbo pumping station
connected to a QMG 220 M1, PrismaPlus®, C-SEM, 1-100 amu, Crossbeam ion source mass
spectrometer (Pfeiffer Vacuum, Germany). Culture samples were pumped (Minipuls3, peristaltic
pump, Gilson) through a capillary stainless tubing connected to Viton® pump tubing as described
in Kana *et al*. [34]. The coiled stainless-steel tubing was immersed in a water bath to stabilize the
sample temperature. Temperatures were set according to the growth conditions of the different
cultures. Inside the vacuum inlet the sample passed through an 8 mm long semipermeable
microbore silicone membrane (Silastic®, DuPont) before exiting the vacuum and returning to the
culture chamber forming a closed system with respect to liquids. This required a 3.5 ml
experimental chamber which consisted of an inner chamber where cultures were placed, and an
isolated outer chamber connected to a water bath to maintain the culture at a constant temperature.
The experimental chamber was placed on a magnetic stirrer and the cultures were continuously
stirred for the duration of the experiments to prevent the formation of concentration gradients.

Cultures were transferred to fresh medium before the onset of each experiment after which 3.5 ml
of the culture were transferred to the experimental chamber and an equal volume was used for
determination of dry weight. The latter was determined by filtering the samples on pre-weighed
combusted GFF filters (Millipore) and drying at 105 °C for 48 h. In the case of non-homogenous
cultures, the biomass from the experimental chamber was used at the end of the experiment for
determination of dry weight.

The light regime for the experiments was as follows: dark from 19:30 to 09:00 then light intensity
was programmed to increase to 60, 120, 180, 400 µmol quanta m^{-2} s^{-1} with a hold time of 1.5 h at
each intensity. After maximum light the intensity was programmed to decrease in reverse order
with the same hold times until complete darkness again at 19:30. Experiments lasted a minimum
of 48 h with at least one replicate longer than 72 h. A minimum of 3 replicate experiments were
conducted for each culture.

Methane calculations

Methane (and oxygen) concentrations were calculated using the ratio relative to the inert gas Ar
(m/z 40). Methane concentration was deduced from mass 15 which does not overlap with other
gases in the sample [35]. The CH_4, O_2 and Ar concentration in the different media were calculated
based on known solubility constants [36] and were calibrated to the measured signals in MQ water
and growth media at different temperatures. To further calibrate the $CH_{4(mz15)}$ /Ar ratio
measurements were conducted on air saturated water at different salinities (Fig. S7).

Methane production rates were calculated as the 1st derivative of the Savizky-Golay [37] smoothed
data using the sgolay function in the R package signal (http://r-forge.r-project.org/projects/signal/).

To account for the continuous degassing from the CH_4 supersaturation experimental chamber, the degassing rate was determined experimentally using rapid heating of air-saturated water from 18 to 30 °C leading to an instant (super)saturation of 127 % and 130 % for CH_4 and Ar, respectively. The change in concentration of CH_4 was monitored and a linear ($R^2 = 0.95$) saturation degree dependent rate was determined. The determined rate given in Equation 1 was similar to that determined by comparing the most negative slopes of the culture experiments, when cyanobacterial production rates are expected to be minimal or zero, and the supersaturation state of the culture. Final rates were calculated by adding the absolute values of the local CH_4 slope (1st derivative) and the local degassing rate (eq. 3).

$$R_{degassing} = -2.2365 \times 10^{-12} \times Sat_{(CH_4)} + 2.12656 \times 10^{-12} \qquad (3)$$

Where: $R_{degassing}$ is the degassing rate in mol CH_4 sec^{-1} and $Sat(CH_4)$ is the fraction CH_4 saturation state >1 (and <1.3) determined by measured concentration vs. calculated solubility.

Global budget parameters and calculations

Global cyanobacterial biomass estimates were taken from Garcia-Pichel *et al*. [21] and were used to calculate the discussed compartments: Marine (Oceanic), Freshwater, Arid soil, Semiarid soil and minimally explored areas. The *Cyanobacteria* were divided to the different compartments based on their source as shown in Fig. 2. The CH_4 production rates derived from the two soil *Cyanobacteria* was applied to both soil compartments. Minimum and maximum contributions per compartment were calculated by defining minimum and maximum CH_4 production rates as well as a short or long activity period. To calculate the minimum or maximum contribution of each compartment the minimum or maximum average daily rates from all experiments conducted with a given *Cyanobacteria* were averaged across the *Cyanobacteria* in the compartment. These parameters are provided in Table S2.

Minimum rates	Biomass (g C)	Biomass Dry weight (g)	Daily rates (µmol h^{-1} g^{-1})	Annual max production (µmol CH$_4$)	h/day active	weeks /year active	Fraction / year	Yearly sum (µmol CH$_4$)	Yearly sum (mol CH$_4$)	g CH$_4$ y^{-1}	Tg CH$_4$ y^{-1}
Oceans	1.720E+14	3.440E+14	0.299	9.02E+17	24	2	0.038	3.47E+16	3.47E+10	5.55E+11	0.555
Lakes	3.000E+12	6.000E+12	0.383	2.01E+16	24	2	0.038	7.75E+14	7.75E+08	1.24E+10	0.012
Arid	1.500E+13	3.000E+13	0.164	4.30E+16	2	13	0.021	8.95E+14	8.95E+08	1.43E+10	0.014
Semiarid	4.100E+13	8.200E+13	0.164	1.17E+17	12	26	0.250	2.94E+16	2.94E+10	4.70E+11	0.470
Unknown	6.900E+13	1.380E+14	0.252	3.05E+17	12	24	0.231	7.04E+16	7.04E+10	1.13E+12	1.127
Global	3.000E+14	6.000E+14								**Global**	**2.18**
Maximum rates											
Oceans	1.720E+14	3.440E+14	0.733	2.21E+18	24	13	0.250	5.52E+17	5.52E+11	8.84E+12	8.836
Lakes	3.000E+12	6.000E+12	0.789	4.15E+16	24	13	0.250	1.04E+16	1.04E+10	1.66E+11	0.166
Arid	1.500E+13	3.000E+13	0.435	1.14E+17	4	26	0.083	9.54E+15	9.54E+09	1.53E+11	0.153

Semiarid	4.100E+13	8.200E+13	0.435	3.13E+17	24	52	1.000	3.13E+17	3.13E+11	5.00E+12	5.004
Unknown	6.900E+13	1.380E+14	0.598	7.23E+17	12	24	0.231	1.67E+17	1.67E+11	2.67E+12	2.670
Global	3.000E+14	6.000E+14								**Global**	**16.82**

446 **Table S2**. Parameters used to calculate the estimated global CH_4 production by *Cyanobacteria*
447 and the calculation outcome.

DNA extraction and sequencing

Cyanobacterial cultures are known to be rarely axenic. To evaluate the presence of methanogenic
Archaea in the cultures DNA was extracted as described in Nercessian *et al*. [38]. The resulting DNA
was sent for Illumina sequencing at MrDNA (Shallowater, TX, USA) on a Miseq platform 2x300
bp using the Arch2A519F (CAGCMGCCGCGGTAA) and Arch1017R
(GGCCATGCACCWCCTCTC) primers [39]. Archaeal community composition was analyzed using
the SILVA-NGS pipeline [40] (Fig. S5). After a standard PCR for the *mcrA* gene resulted in no
visible products from any of the cultures a qPCR assay was conducted as well resulting in low
copy numbers of the gene (Fig. S3). The sequences were submitted to the European Nucleotide
Archive under project number: PRJEB25851.

458
459 **Fig. S1.** Temporal profiles of CH_4, O_2 and cyanobacterial derived Chl a between July 2014 and
460 July 2016. The CH_4 data was measured every 1 - 4 weeks depending on season using a GC-FID
461 as described in Grossart *et al*. [24]. O_2 and Chl a were measured hourly using a YSI and a BBE probe
462 (see www.lake-lab.de), respectively.

Fig. S2. Continuous measurements of CH_4 and oxygen under light/dark cycles using a membrane inlet mass spectrometer (MIMS) in 11 different cyanobacterial cultures. A decrease in CH_4 concentration is a result of reduced (or no) production coupled with degassing from the supersaturated, continuously-mixing, semi-open incubation chamber towards equilibrium with atmospheric CH_4 (2.5 nM and 2.1 nM for freshwater and seawater, respectively). Calculated CH_4 production rates account for the continuous emission of CH_4 from the incubation chamber for as long as the CH_4 concentrations are supersaturated. The light regime for the experiments was as follows: dark (black bar) from 19:30 to 09:00 then light intensity (yellow bar) was programmed to increase to 60, 120, 180, 400 µmol quanta m^{-2} s^{-1} with a hold time of 1.5 h at each intensity. After maximum light period the intensity was programmed to decrease in reverse order with the same hold times until complete darkness again at 19:30.

479 **Fig. S3.** Community composition of the cyanobacterial cultures as obtained when sequenced using
480 *Archaea* specific primers. Methanogenic *Archaea* (red) are in most cases lower that 0.1% of the
481 obtained sequences. In the absence of *Archaea* DNA template, the primers amplify DNA of
482 *Bacteria*. The background presence or complete absence of methanogens was confirmed by qPCR
483 of the *mcrA* gene.

Fig. S4. Average CH₄ mass (ng) in head space of different cyanobacterial species. a) *Anabaena cylindrica*, ATCC29414; b) *Anabaena sp.*, PCC7120; c) *Chroococcidiopsis sp.*, PCC9317; d) *Scytonema hofmanni* PCC7110; e) *Microcystis aeruginosa*, PCC7806; f) *Anabaena borealis*; g) *Leptolyngbya* (desert crust); h) *Prochlorococcus marinus*, MIT9313; i) *Phormidium persicinum*. After the incubation period the CH₄ mass was significantly higher (p<0.05, two-way ANOVA) for each species in the culture group (grey bars) as compared to the group without cultures (white bars). P-values for this comparison are given in the graph. The addition of NaH¹³CO₃ had no significant effect (p>0.05) on the CH₄ quantity. Error bars indicate the standard deviation (n=3-4).

Fig. S5. Average δ^{13}C-CH₄ values in head space of different cyanobacterial species. a) *Anabaena cylindrica*, ATCC29414; b) *Anabaena sp.*, PCC7120; c) *Chroococcidiopsis sp.*, PCC9317; d) *Scytonema hofmanni* PCC7110; e) *Microcystis aeruginosa*, PCC7806; f) *Anabaena borealis*; g) *Leptolyngbya* (desert crust); h) *Prochlorococcus marinus*, MIT9313; i) *Phormidium persicinum*. The δ^{13}C-CH₄ values in cultures that were treated with NaH¹³CO₃ (medium+ ¹³C+ culture) are clearly different from the three control groups. Error bars mark the standard deviation.

Fig. S6. Average CH$_4$ production rates (µmol g$_{DW}^{-1}$ h^{-1}) obtained from multiple long-term measurements (2-5 days) with a membrane inlet mass spectrometer. The rates are shown by colour according to the environment from which the *Cyanobacteria* were originally isolated; dark blue, light blue and green for marine, freshwater and soil environments, respectively. The rates are presented in comparison to three known methanogens. Rates for the methanogens were obtained from references: Mountfort and Asher [41], Kröninger *et al.* [42] and Gerhard *et al.*[43]. Rates for

eukaryotes including marine algae and terrestrial plants were taken from Lenhart et al. [3], Keppler
et al. [4], Brüggemann et al. [44], Wishkermann et al. [45] and Qaderi et al. [46] No emission rates (on a
dry weight basis) are available for fungi and animals.

Fig. S7. Raw signal obtained from mass 15 (CH_4) and mass 40 (Argon) plotted against the
calculated solubility at different salinities at 30 °C. The signal in both cases is linearly correlated
to the concentration of the dissolved gas. The ratio between the two masses was extrapolated
between 0 and 50 ppt and was used for calculating the CH_4 concentration.

533
534
535