



# Methane production by three widespread marine phytoplankton species: release rates, precursor compounds, and relevance for the environment

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**Abstract.** The world's oceans are considered to be a minor source of methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) to the atmosphere although the  
magnitude of total net emissions is highly uncertain. In recent years the origin of the frequently observed in situ CH<sub>4</sub>  
production in the ocean mixed layer has received much attention. Marine algae might contribute to the observed CH<sub>4</sub>  
oversaturation in oxic waters, but so far direct evidence for CH<sub>4</sub> production by marine algae has only been provided for the  
20 coccolithophore *Emiliana huxleyi*.

In the present study we investigated, next to *Emiliana huxleyi*, other widespread haptophytes, i.e. *Phaeocystis globosa* and  
*Chrysochromulina sp.* for CH<sub>4</sub> formation. Our results of CH<sub>4</sub> production and stable carbon isotope measurements provide  
unambiguous evidence that all three investigated marine algae produce CH<sub>4</sub> per se under oxic conditions and at rates ranging  
from 1.6 ± 0.5 to 2.7 ± 0.7 µg CH<sub>4</sub> per g POC (particulate organic carbon) d<sup>-1</sup> at a temperature of 20°C with  
25 *Chrysochromulina sp.* and *Emiliana huxleyi* showing the lowest and highest rates, respectively. In cultures that were treated  
with <sup>13</sup>C-labelled hydrogen carbonate δ<sup>13</sup>CH<sub>4</sub> values increased with incubation time, clearly resulting from the conversion of  
<sup>13</sup>C-hydrogen carbonate to <sup>13</sup>CH<sub>4</sub>. The addition of <sup>13</sup>C labelled dimethyl sulfide, dimethyl sulfoxide and methionine sulfoxide  
– known algal metabolites that are ubiquitous in marine surface layers - enabled us to clearly monitor the occurrence of <sup>13</sup>C-  
enriched CH<sub>4</sub> in cultures of *Emiliana huxleyi* clearly indicating that methylated sulphur compounds are also precursors of  
30 CH<sub>4</sub>. We propose that CH<sub>4</sub> production could be a common process among marine haptophytes likely contributing to CH<sub>4</sub>  
oversaturation in oxic waters.



## 1. Introduction

Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), the second most important anthropogenic greenhouse gas after CO<sub>2</sub>, is the most abundant reduced organic compound in the atmosphere and plays a central role in atmospheric chemistry (Denman et al., 2007;Kirschke et al., 2013;Lelieveld et al., 1998). The mixing ratio of CH<sub>4</sub> in the atmosphere has been increasing dramatically from pre-industrial values of about 715 parts per billion by volume (ppbv) to about 1868 ppbv (October 2018, NOAA). The global atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> budget is determined by the total emission (540-568 Tg CH<sub>4</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup>) of various sources from terrestrial and aquatic surface areas, that are balanced primarily by one major sink (hydroxyl radicals) in the atmosphere. However, partitioning source categories to reduce uncertainties in the global CH<sub>4</sub> budget is a major challenge (Saunois et al., 2016).

Methane is primarily formed by degradation of buried organic matter under heat and pressure (thermogenic) inside the earth crust or produced by the incomplete combustion of biomass (pyrogenic). On the other hand, CH<sub>4</sub> resulting from microbial processes, carried out by methanogenic archaea under anoxic conditions in soils and sediments or the digestion system of ruminants are categorized as biogenic or microbial (Kirschke et al., 2013). In contrast to these well-known sources, recent studies have confirmed direct CH<sub>4</sub> release from eukaryotes, including plants, animals, fungi, lichens, and the marine alga *E. huxleyi* even in the absence of methanogenic archaea and in the presence of oxygen or other oxidants (Keppler et al., 2006;Ghyczy et al., 2008;Lenhart et al., 2012;Lenhart et al., 2016;Lenhart et al., 2015b). A very recent study also confirmed *cyanobacteria*, as CH<sub>4</sub> producers suggesting that CH<sub>4</sub> production occurs in all three domains of life (Bizic-Ionescu et al., 2018). These novel sources, from the domains *eucarya* and *bacteria*, might be classified as biotic non-archaeal CH<sub>4</sub> (Boros and Keppler, 2018). In this context, emissions from freshwater and marine cyanobacteria or algae might help to explain the well-known phenomenon of dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> oversaturation in the upper oxic waters of both oceans and lakes that has been often reported from several aquatic environments (Forster et al., 2009;Reeburgh, 2007;Tang et al., 2014;Donis et al., 2017; Bižić-Ionescu et al., 2018;Bange et al., 1994). Significant quantities of CH<sub>4</sub>, produced in upper oxic waters, near the air-water interface, might overcome oxidation, and thus significantly contributing to CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes from aquatic environments to the atmosphere (Bogard et al., 2014).

In situ CH<sub>4</sub> production in oxygenated surface waters in the marine environment was first reported by Scranton and Farrington (1977) and Scranton and Brewer (1977) and some decades later also for lakes (Grossart et al., 2011). These results have stimulated the scientific community to study in more detail the phenomenon of CH<sub>4</sub> occurrence in oxygenated surface waters.

For example, it has been suggested that CH<sub>4</sub> might be produced by the bacterial cleavage of methylphosphonate (MPn) in oligotrophic marine pacific waters during phosphorus limitation. (Karl et al., 2008;Metcalf et al., 2012;Repeta et al., 2016). In contrast to this apparently non-oxygen sensitive pathway, many other studies have identified the "traditionally" archaeal methanogenesis in anoxic microenvironments as a CH<sub>4</sub> source. Floating particles (Karl and Tilbrook, 1994), the digestive tracts of zooplankton (de Angelis and Lee, 1994;Stawiarski et al., 2019;Schmale et al., 2018) or fishes (Oremland, 1979) have been found as anoxic micro niches for methanogens. It has been suggested that some methanogens might be active



65 under oxic conditions by being equipped with enzymes to counteract the effects of molecular oxygen during methanogenesis  
(Angel et al., 2011). Potential substrates for methylotrophic methanogens in such micro niches are the algae metabolites  
dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP) and their degradation products dimethyl sulfide (DMS) or dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)  
(Zindler et al., 2013;Damm et al., 2008;Florez-Leiva et al., 2013). Furthermore, DMSP might also be converted to CH<sub>4</sub> by  
nitrogen limited bacteria (Damm et al., 2010;Damm et al., 2015). However, in coastal waters where DMS and DMSP  
70 production is enhanced, CH<sub>4</sub> was found to mainly related to sedimentary sources (Borges et al., 2018).

In contrast to microbial processes, which are considered to be driven by enzymes, CH<sub>4</sub> might also be derived by the chemical  
reaction of chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM) and DMS induced by UV or visible light under both oxic and  
anoxic conditions (Zhang et al., 2015). A similar photochemical CH<sub>4</sub> formation was earlier described for acetone by Bange  
and Uher (2005) but the production of CH<sub>4</sub> from acetone was considered negligible under oxic conditions.

75 Another chemical reaction that readily forms CH<sub>4</sub> from the methyl thioethers and their sulphoxides under highly oxidative  
conditions and catalyzed by nonheme iron-oxo (IV) species was presented by Althoff et al. (2014) and Benzing et al. (2017).  
Iron-oxo species have been identified as active intermediates in the catalytic cycles of a number of biological enzymatic  
systems (Hohenberger et al., 2012). Thus, marine algae containing elevated concentrations of methyl thioethers and their  
sulfoxides such as DMSP, DMSO, methionine (MET) or methionine sulphoxide (MSO), might be biochemical reactors for  
80 non-archaeal CH<sub>4</sub> production as it was already proposed by Lenhart et al. (2016) and Keppler et al. (2009).

Marine phytoplankton plays a central role in the global carbon cycle: Approximately a half of earth's primary production is  
carried out by marine phytoplankton (Field et al., 1998). So far, direct evidence for CH<sub>4</sub> production by marine algae in the  
absence of methanogenic archaea has only been provided for *E. huxleyi* (Lenhart et al., 2016). Based on the application of  
stable carbon isotope techniques, it could be clearly shown that both hydrogen carbonate and a position-specific <sup>13</sup>C-labelled  
85 MET were carbon precursors of the observed CH<sub>4</sub> production. However, it remains unclear whether CH<sub>4</sub> production also  
occurs among other marine algae and if there are also other carbon precursors, involved in the formation process.

In the present study we investigated, next to the coccolithophore *E. huxleyi*, two other marine, non-calcifying *haptophytes*,  
namely *P. globosa* and *Chrysochromulina sp.* for CH<sub>4</sub> formation. The investigated species are all bloom-forming and often  
found as dominant members in marine phytoplankton community worldwide (Schoemann et al., 2005;Thomsen,  
90 1994;Brown and Yoder, 1994). Furthermore, they are well-known for their high DMSP, DMS and DMSO productivity (Liss  
et al., 1994;Keller, 1989;Holligan et al., 1993;Stefels et al., 2007;Matrai and Keller, 1993). We therefore conducted stable  
isotope experiments using <sup>13</sup>C labelled DMS, MSO and DMSO to identify potential methyl group precursor compounds that  
eventually lead to CH<sub>4</sub> production. Finally, we discuss the laboratory CH<sub>4</sub> production rates in relation to its potential  
significance in marine environments.

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## 2. Material & Methods

### 2.1 Cultures and culture conditions

Three algal species, *Emiliana huxleyi* RCC1216 (<http://roscoff-culture-collection.org/>) *Phaeocystis globosa* PLY 575 and *Chrysochromulina sp.* PLY 307 (<https://www.mba.ac.uk/facilities/culture-collection>) were studied. All incubation  
100 experiments were carried out in controlled and sterile laboratory conditions under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at a light  
intensity of 350  $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  and a temperature of 20°C. All samples were taken at the end of the light cycle.  
Monoclonal cultures were grown in full-batch mode (Langer et al., 2013) in sterile filtered (0.2  $\mu\text{m}$   $\text{Ø}$  pore size) in natural  
North Sea seawater (sampled off Helgoland, Germany) enriched in nutrients according to F/2 medium (Guillard and Ryther,  
1962). The initial dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) of the F/2 medium was  $2152 \pm 6 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  (measured by Shimadzu  
105 TOC-V CPH).

### 2.2 Determination of cell densities

Cell densities were determined from four aliquots of each culture sample, using either a Fuschs-Rosenthal or Neubauer  
counting chamber, depending on cell density.

### 2.3 Incubation with $^{13}\text{C}$ -labelled hydrogen carbonate

110 To investigate  $\text{CH}_4$  production by algal cultures borosilicate glass bottles (Schott, Germany) filled with 2.0 L 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  filtered  
F/2 medium and with 0.35 L headspace volume were used in our investigations of *Chrysochromulina sp.* and *P. globosa*. For  
the investigations of *E. huxleyi* 0.85 L medium and 0.4 L headspace volume were used (Schott, Germany). The flasks were  
sealed airtight with lids (GL 45, PP, 2 port, Duran Group) equipped with one three-way port for liquid and a second port  
fitted with a septum for gas sampling. For measurements of the mixing ratio and stable carbon isotope value of methane  
115 ( $\delta^{13}\text{C-CH}_4$ ) samples of headspace (20 mL) were taken from each vial. Afterwards, samples (2 mL) for determining cell  
densities were taken. In order to maintain atmospheric pressure within the vial, the surrounding air was allowed to enter via  
the three-way port and through a sterile filter to avoid biological contamination. The inflow of surrounding air was taken into  
consideration when  $\text{CH}_4$  production was calculated.

Main cultures were inoculated from a pre-culture grown in dilute-batch mode (Langer et al., 2009). The initial cell densities  
120 were  $26.9 \pm 4.0 \times 10^3 \text{ cells mL}^{-1}$  for *Chrysochromulina sp.*,  $25.6 \pm 1.2 \times 10^3 \text{ cells mL}^{-1}$  for *P. globosa* and  $17.5 \pm 2.0 \times 10^3$   
cells  $\text{mL}^{-1}$  for *E. huxleyi*. headspace and liquid samples were collected on a daily basis for *E. huxleyi* and in 2-3 days  
intervals from cultures of *Chrysochromulina sp.* and *P. globosa*. The overall sampling time was 9, 11 and 6 days with final



cell densities of  $0.18 \pm 0.01 \times 10^6$  cells  $\text{mL}^{-1}$ ,  $1.77 \pm 0.15 \times 10^6$  cells  $\text{mL}^{-1}$  and  $1.70 \pm 0.09 \times 10^6$  cells  $\text{mL}^{-1}$  for *Chrysochromulina sp.*, *P. globosa* and *E. huxleyi* respectively.

125 Cell densities were plotted versus time and the exponential growth rate ( $\mu$ ) was calculated from exponential regression using the natural logarithm (Langer et al., 2013). The phase of exponential growth (from which  $\mu$  was calculated) was defined by the cell densities which corresponded to the best fit ( $r^2 > 0.99$ ) of the exponential regression. This was done by using the first three (*Chrysochromulina sp.* and *E. huxleyi*) or four data points (*P. globosa*) of the growth curve.

Four different treatments were used: medium either with (medium +  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ) or without (medium) a treatment of  $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$  and 130 cultures supplemented either with (culture +  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ) or without (culture)  $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$  ( $n=3$ ). Please note that stable isotope measurements using  $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$  were not performed for *E. huxleyi* as evidence for isotope labelling of  $\text{CH}_4$  formation was already provided by Lenhart et al. (2016).

For stable carbon isotope experiments  $48,7 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$   $^{13}\text{C}$ -hydrogen carbonate ( $\text{NaH}^{13}\text{CO}_3$ ) in final concentration was added to the F/2 medium resulting in a theoretical calculated  $^{13}\text{C}$  value of DIC of  $+2014 \pm 331\%$ . To determine the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - $\text{CH}_4$  135 values of the source, the Keeling-plot method was applied (Keeling, 1958). For a detailed discussion of the Keeling plot method for determination of the isotope ratio of  $\text{CH}_4$  in environmental applications, please refer to (Keppler et al., 2016). Oxygen concentration was monitored daily (using inline oxygen sensor probes, PreSens, Regensburg) at the end of the light cycle (S1).

## 2.4 Determination of $\text{CH}_4$ production rates

140 Since the experiment in the section 3.2 was not designed to obtain POC quotas (POC = particulate organic carbon), we conducted an additional experiment. To best compare  $\text{CH}_4$  formation rates of the three algae species it is necessary to obtain exponential growth to ensure constant growth rates and constant cellular POC quotas over the course of the experiment (Langer et al., 2012, 2013). The  $\text{CH}_4$  production rates can be calculated by multiplying the growth rate  $\mu$  with the corresponding cellular or POC- $\text{CH}_4$  quota, that was measured on the end of the experiment.

145 The cultures were grown in 160 ml crimped serum bottles filled with 140 ml medium and 20 ml headspace. The initial cell density of  $22.5 \pm 3.1 \times 10^3$  cells  $\text{mL}^{-1}$ ,  $80.9 \pm 11.5 \times 10^3$  cells  $\text{mL}^{-1}$  and  $29.0 \pm 5.5 \times 10^3$  cells  $\text{mL}^{-1}$  for *Chrysochromulina sp.*, *P. globosa* and *E. huxleyi*, respectively were inoculated. Cultures were grown up to  $37.0 \pm 9.2 \times 10^3$  cells  $\text{mL}^{-1}$  (*Chrysochromulina sp.*),  $219 \pm 24.1 \times 10^3$  cells  $\text{mL}^{-1}$  (*P. globosa*) and  $283 \pm 15.6 \times 10^3$  cells  $\text{mL}^{-1}$  (*E. huxleyi*). These cell densities corresponded to the cell densities of exponential growth phase obtained from the experiment in section 3.2. Oxygen 150 concentration was monitored (using inline oxygen sensor probes, PreSens, Regensburg) at the end of each light and dark cycle (S2).

The growth rate ( $\mu$ ) was calculated from cell densities of the beginning and end of the experiment according to Eq.1:

$$\mu = \frac{\ln(N_1) - \ln(N_0)}{(t_1 - t_0)} \quad (1)$$



where  $N_0$  and  $N_1$  are the cell densities at the beginning ( $t_0$ ) and end of the experiment ( $t_1$ ). The daily cellular  $\text{CH}_4$  production rates ( $\text{CH}_4P_{\text{cell}}$ ,  $\mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ cell}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ,  $\mu\text{g} = 10^{-18} \text{ g}$ ) were calculated according to Eq.2:

$$\text{CH}_4P_{\text{cell}} = \mu \times \frac{m(\text{CH}_4)}{\text{cell}} \quad (2)$$

155 where  $m(\text{CH}_4)$  is the amount of  $\text{CH}_4$  that was produced at the end of the experiment.

To calculate POC based  $\text{CH}_4$  production rates the cellular organic carbon content ( $\text{POC}_{\text{cell}}$ ) was derived from cell volume ( $V_{\text{cell}}$ ) by using the Eq. 3 according to (Menden-Deuer and Lessard, 2000):

$$\text{POC}_{\text{cell}} = 0.216 \times V_{\text{cell}}^{0.939} \quad (3)$$

The cell volume was determined measuring the cell diameter in light micrographs using the program Image J. According to (Olenina, 2006) a ball shape can be assumed for calculating the cell volume for the three species investigated here. The daily  
160 cellular  $\text{CH}_4$  production rates ( $\text{CH}_4P_{\text{POC}}$ ,  $\mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ POC d}^{-1}$ ) were calculated from growth rate and  $\text{CH}_4$ -POC quotas at the end of the experiment according to Eq. 4.

$$\text{CH}_4P_{\text{POC}} = \mu \times \frac{m(\text{CH}_4)}{\text{POC}} \quad (4)$$

The  $\text{CH}_4$  production potential ( $\text{CH}_4\text{-PP}$ ) was used to translate differences in cellular production rates to community level. According to (Gafar et al., 2018), the  $\text{CH}_4\text{-PP}$  can be calculated for different periods of growth, by calculating a cellular standing stock for each time period from a known starting cell density ( $N_0$ ) (whereby constant exponential growth is  
165 assumed). The corresponding amount of produced  $\text{CH}_4$  ( $\text{CH}_4\text{PP}$ ) for each period of growth and standing stock is the product of the cellular standing stock and  $\text{CH}_4$  quota (Eq. 5).

$$\text{CH}_4\text{PP} = N_0 \times e^{\mu \times t} \times \frac{m(\text{CH}_4)}{\text{cell}} \quad (5)$$

In the present study the  $\text{CH}_4\text{-PP}$  was calculated for a standing stock that is obtained after 7 days of growth and starting by a cell count of one single cell.

## 2.5 Incubation with $^{13}\text{C}$ labelled DMS, DMSO and MSO

170 The sulphur bonded methyl group(s) in DMS, DMSO and MSO were investigated as precursors for algal-derived  $\text{CH}_4$  in an incubation experiment with *E. huxleyi*. For all tested compounds only the C atom of the sulphur bonded methyl group(s) was labelled with  $^{13}\text{C}$  (R-S- $^{13}\text{CH}_3$ , 99%). A final concentration of 10  $\mu\text{M}$  were used for each compound. The treatments were initiated in parallel from batch culture by inoculating  $17.5 \pm 2.0 \times 10^3 \text{ cells mL}^{-1}$  and cultures were grown to final cell densities of  $1.77 \pm 0.08 \times 10^6 \text{ cells mL}^{-1}$ . For every single compound ( $^{13}\text{C}_2\text{-DMS}$ ,  $^{13}\text{C}_2\text{-DMSO}$ ,  $^{13}\text{C-MSO}$ ) four treatment  
175 groups with three independent replicates and repeated measurements over time were used analogous to experiments



described in section 3.2 for *E. huxleyi*. With reference to section 3.2 the experiment differs in sampling frequencies and overall incubation time: samples were taken daily during an overall incubation time of 6 days.

## 2.6 Determination of CH<sub>4</sub> mass

Five mL of a gas sample was collected from the head space of the vials using a gas tight Hamilton gas syringe. The sample was analyzed by gas chromatography (GC-14B, Shimadzu, Japan; 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 flame ionization detector (FID). Quantification of CH<sub>4</sub> was carried out by comparison of the integrals of the peaks eluting at the same retention time as that of the CH<sub>4</sub> authentic standard, using two reference standards containing 9837 and 2192 parts per billion by volume (p.p.b.v). Mixing ratios were corrected for head space pressure that was monitored using a pressure measuring device (GMSD 1,3 BA, Greisinger).

The CH<sub>4</sub> mass ( $m_{CH_4}$ ) was determined by its mixing ratio ( $x_{CH_4}$ ) and the ideal gas law (Eq 6),

$$m_{CH_4} = M_{CH_4} \times x_{CH_4} \frac{p \times V}{R \times T} \quad (6)$$

where  $M_{CH_4}$  = molar mass, p = pressure, T = temperature, R = ideal gas constant, V = volume.

## 2.7 GC-C-IRMS measurements

Stable carbon isotope values of CH<sub>4</sub> of headspace samples were analysed by gas chromatography stable isotope ratio mass spectrometry (GC-C-IRMS, Deltaplus XL, Thermo Finnigan, Bremen, Germany). All  $\delta^{13}C$ -CH<sub>4</sub> values were corrected using two CH<sub>4</sub> working standards (isometric instruments, Victoria, Canada) with values of  $-23.9 \pm 0.2\%$  and  $-54.5 \pm 0.2\%$ . The results were normalized by two-scale anchor calibration according to (Paul et al., 2007). The average standard deviation of the analytical measurements was in the range of 0.1 ‰ to 0.3 ‰ (three repeated measurements of CH<sub>4</sub> working standards). All  $\delta^{13}C$ -CH<sub>4</sub> values are expressed in the conventional  $\delta$  notation, in per mille (‰) vs. Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB), using Eq.7.

$$\delta^{13}C = \frac{\left(\frac{^{13}C}{^{12}C}\right)_{sample}}{\left(\frac{^{13}C}{^{12}C}\right)_{standard}} - 1 \quad (7)$$

For a detailed description of the  $\delta^{13}C$ -CH<sub>4</sub> measurements by GC-IRMS and technical details of the pre-concentration system we would like to refer to previous studies by (Comba et al., 2018) and (Laukenmann et al., 2010)



## 2.8 Statistics

To test for significant differences in cell density, CH<sub>4</sub> formation, and CH<sub>4</sub> content between the treatments, two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) (considering repeated measurements) and a post hoc test [Fisher least significant difference (LSD) test; alpha 5 %] were used.

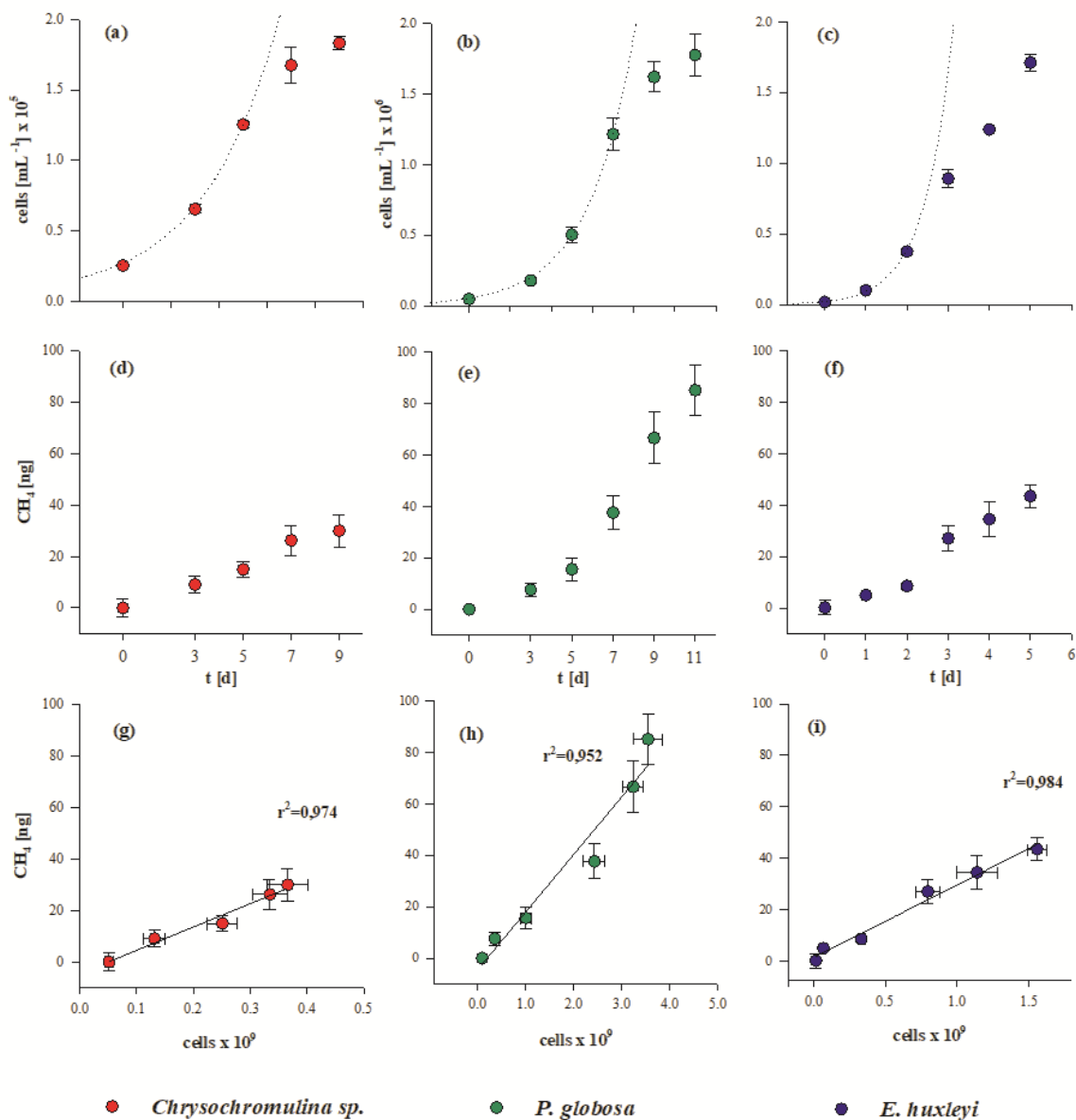
## 3. Results

### 3.1 Algal growth and CH<sub>4</sub> formation

The growth curves during incubation of the three algal species at a temperature of 20°C and a day-night-cycle of 16 h day 8 h night are presented in Fig. 1 (upper panel a, b, c). The initial cell densities were  $26.9 \pm 4.0 \times 10^3$  cells mL<sup>-1</sup> for *Chrysochromulina sp.*,  $25.6 \pm 1.2 \times 10^3$  cells mL<sup>-1</sup> for *P. globosa* and  $17.5 \pm 2.0 \times 10^3$  cells mL<sup>-1</sup> for *E. huxleyi*. The exponential growth rate  $\mu$  was highest for *E. huxleyi* ( $1.71 \pm 0.04$  d<sup>-1</sup>) i.e. three or five times higher than for *P. globosa* and *Chrysochromulina sp.* (with  $0.33 \pm 0.08$  d<sup>-1</sup> and  $0.52 \pm 0.07$  d<sup>-1</sup>, respectively). These rates were obtained by exponential regression from the first three (*Chrysochromulina sp.* and *E. huxleyi*) or four time points (*P. globosa*) of the growth curve, while cell densities on the following timepoints departs from the one expected from exponential growth (dotted line, Fig. 1 a, b, c). Maximum cell densities were lowest for *Chrysochromulina sp.* with  $0.18 \pm 0.01 \times 10^6$  cells mL<sup>-1</sup> followed by *E. huxleyi* with  $1.70 \pm 0.09 \times 10^6$  cells mL<sup>-1</sup> and highest for *P. globosa* with  $1.77 \pm 0.15 \times 10^6$  cells mL<sup>-1</sup>.

Significant CH<sub>4</sub> formation was observed in all three cultures over the whole incubation period of 5 to 11 days (Fig 1 d, e, f) whereas no increase in CH<sub>4</sub> over time was observed in the control groups. For all species the increase in headspace CH<sub>4</sub> was significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) at second time point of measurement and at all following time points ( $p \leq 0.001$ ). At the end of the incubation period the amounts of produced CH<sub>4</sub> were  $30.0 \pm 6.2$  ng,  $85.2 \pm 10.0$  ng and  $43.5 \pm 4.3$  ng for *Chrysochromulina sp.*, *P. globosa* and *E. huxleyi*, respectively. A linear correlation was found between the absolute number of cells and the amount of produced CH<sub>4</sub> of *Chrysochromulina sp.*, *P. globosa* and *E. huxleyi* (Fig. 1 lower panel, g, h, i).





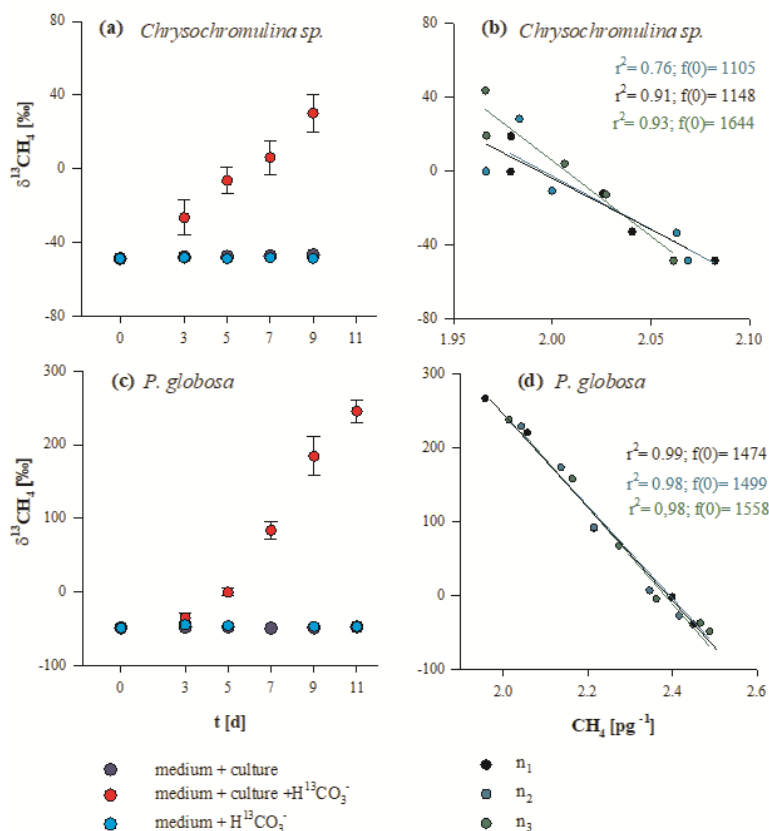
220 Fig. 1: Cell growths (first panel), CH<sub>4</sub> production (middle panel) in course of time and correlation between the total number of cells and produced CH<sub>4</sub> (lower panel) from three algae species. *Chrysochromulina sp.* (left column a, d, g), *P. globosa* (middle column b, e, h) and from *E. huxleyi* (right column c, f, i). Please note that the cell numbers of *Chrysochromulina sp.* are presented in 10<sup>5</sup> and *P. globosa*, *E. huxleyi* in 10<sup>6</sup>. Mean values of six (*Chrysochromulina sp.*, *P. globosa*) and three (*E. huxleyi*) replicated culture experiments are shown and error bars mark the SD.



### 3.2 Stable carbon isotope values of CH<sub>4</sub> during incubation with <sup>13</sup>C-hydrogen carbonate

Stable carbon isotope values of CH<sub>4</sub> ( $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values) for *Chrysochromulina sp.* and *P. globosa* are presented in Fig. 2 (a, c). We observed conversion of <sup>13</sup>C carbon (provided by <sup>13</sup>C-hydrogen carbonate) to <sup>13</sup>CH<sub>4</sub> in cultures of both species, indicated by increasing  $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values over time. Stable isotope values increased from initial atmospheric (laboratory air) levels of -  
230 48.7 ± 0.3 ‰ and -48.4 ± 0.10 ‰ up to +30.1 ± 10.2 ‰ and +245 ± 16 ‰ for *Chrysochromulina sp.* and *P. globosa*, respectively, whilst the  $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values of the control groups (algae without <sup>13</sup>C-hydrogen carbonate or <sup>13</sup>C-hydrogen carbonate in medium without culture) did not change over time. The increase of  $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values in the headspace-CH<sub>4</sub> depended on the amount of released CH<sub>4</sub> that was added to the initial (atmospheric) background level. To calculate the  $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values of the CH<sub>4</sub> source which has raised CH<sub>4</sub> quantity above background level the Keeling-plot method (Keeling,  
235 1958; Pataki et al., 2003) was used (Fig. 2 b, d).

The calculated  $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values of the CH<sub>4</sub> source were +1300 ± 245 ‰ (*Chrysochromulina sp.*) and +1511 ± 35 ‰ (*P. globosa*) and thus close to the theoretical calculated <sup>13</sup>C value of the DIC (2014 ± 331‰) resulting from the addition of <sup>13</sup>C-hydrogen carbonate. Please note that <sup>13</sup>C-hydrogen carbonate stable isotope labelling experiment with *E. huxleyi* were already performed by Lenhart et al. (2016) and were not repeated in this study. This is why  $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values and the respective  
240 Keeling plot of *E. huxleyi* are not shown in Fig. 2.



245 Fig. 2:  $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values (left column) and respective Keeling plots (right column) from *Chrysochromulina sp.* (a,b) and *P. globosa* (c,d) after the addition of  $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$ . The left column (a, c) shows the  $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values of three investigation groups (“culture +  $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$ ”, “culture” and “ $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$ ”), whereas each data point presented is the mean value of three replicated culture experiments with error bars showing SD. The right column shows the Keeling plots for the treatments “culture +  $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$ ” from each replicated culture experiments ( $n_1$ ,  $n_2$ ,  $n_3$ ) where  $f(0)$  refers to the  $^{13}\text{C}$  value of the  $\text{CH}_4$  source.

### 3.3 $\text{CH}_4$ production and production potential

250 To estimate  $\text{CH}_4$  production rates of the three algal species it is necessary to ensure exponential growth. We normalized  $\text{CH}_4$  production rates to cell and to particulate organic carbon (POC) content. By doing so the  $\text{CH}_4$  production rate is the product of exponential growth rate  $\mu$  and cellular or POC quota. Since the experiment in the section above (isotope measurements) was not designed to obtain POC quotas, we conducted an additional experiment.

The POC normalized daily  $\text{CH}_4$  production rate was highest in *E. huxleyi*, followed by *P. globosa*, and *Chrysochromulina sp.*. However, the cellular or POC normalized daily production rates of the three algal species were in the same order of



255 magnitude (Tab. 2). We calculated the CH<sub>4</sub> production potential (CH<sub>4</sub>PP), that is the amount of CH<sub>4</sub> produced within a week  
of growth (Gafar et al., 2018), to translate the cellular production rates ( $\mu \times \text{CH}_4 \text{ cell}^{-1}$ ) of each species to community level.  
The CH<sub>4</sub>PP was two order of magnitude higher for *E. huxleyi* than the other two species. This is a consequence of the higher  
growth rate of *E. huxleyi*.

We furthermore observed the oxygen concentrations during the light and dark periods to ensure oxic conditions. The  
260 measured oxygen concentrations were always saturated or supersaturated (S2).

**Tab 1: Growth rate, cellular POC, CH<sub>4</sub> production rates and CH<sub>4</sub>PP<sub>(7days)</sub> of *Chrysochromulina sp.* (n=4), *P. globosa* (n=4) and *E. huxleyi* (n=4). Values are the mean of four replicated culture experiments with SD.**

	growth rate ( $\mu$ )	cellular POC	CH <sub>4</sub> production rate		CH <sub>4</sub> PP <sub>(7days)</sub>
	d <sup>-1</sup>	pg cell <sup>-1</sup>	ag CH <sub>4</sub> cell <sup>-1</sup> d <sup>-1</sup>	$\mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ POC d}^{-1}$	fg CH <sub>4</sub>
<i>Chrysochromulina sp.</i>	0.21 ± 0.04	25.4 ± 4.0	38.9 ± 10.6	1.6 ± 0.5	0.8 ± 0.3
<i>P. globosa</i>	0.50 ± 0.06	7.0 ± 0.4	14.4 ± 5.6	2.1 ± 0.8	1.0 ± 0.3
<i>E. huxleyi</i>	1.09 ± 0.02	20.1 ± 0.7	53.3 ± 5.5	2.7 ± 0.7	104 ± 8.0

### 265 3.4 CH<sub>4</sub> formation from <sup>13</sup>C labelled methyl thiol ethers

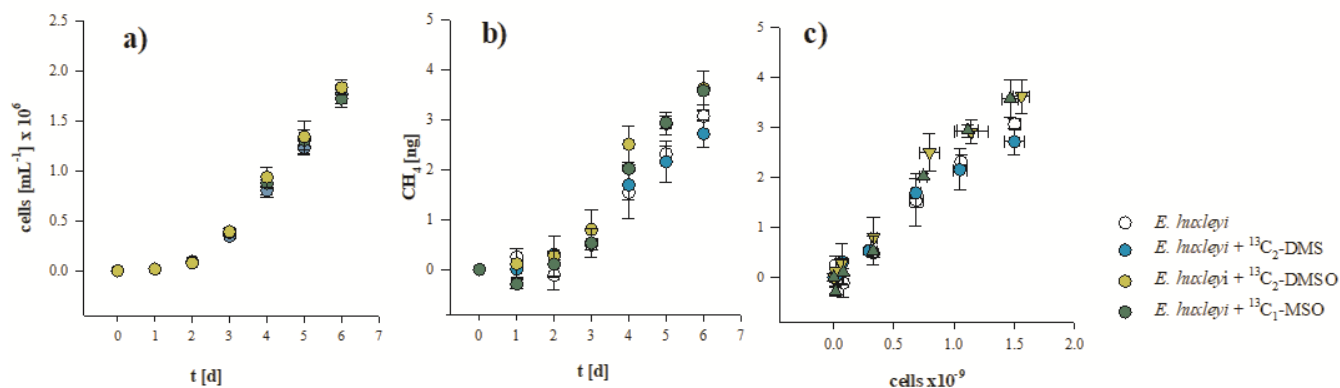
The three methylated sulphur compounds MSO, DMSO and DMS were tested for potential CH<sub>4</sub> formation in incubation  
experiments with *E. huxleyi*. For all tested compounds <sup>13</sup>C isotope labelling technics were applied where only the methyl  
bonded sulphur group(s) (R-S-<sup>13</sup>CH<sub>3</sub>) was fully labelled with <sup>13</sup>C atoms. Cell densities and CH<sub>4</sub> formation correlated in all  
treatments, while no difference in cell growth pattern or CH<sub>4</sub> formation was observed when isotope labelled methyl thioether  
270 and sulfoxides were added to the culture (Fig. 3 a, b, c). Differences between treatments were found in  $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values of  
headspace CH<sub>4</sub>. The initial  $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  value of headspace ( $-47.9 \pm 0.1 \text{ ‰}$ , laboratory air) increased slightly over time in  
untreated cultures (without isotope treatment) to  $-46.8 \pm 0.3 \text{ ‰}$  (Fig 4.b).

In contrast, experiments where <sup>13</sup>C<sub>2</sub>-DMSO, <sup>13</sup>C<sub>2</sub>-DMS and <sup>13</sup>C-MSO was applied to cultures of *E. huxleyi*  $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values  
increased to  $-31.0 \pm 1.1 \text{ ‰}$ ,  $-45.7 \pm 0.1 \text{ ‰}$  and  $+18.3 \pm 7.7 \text{ ‰}$ , respectively over a time period of 6 days (Fig. 4 a, b, c) and  
275 differed significantly from control groups ( $p < 0.05$ ).

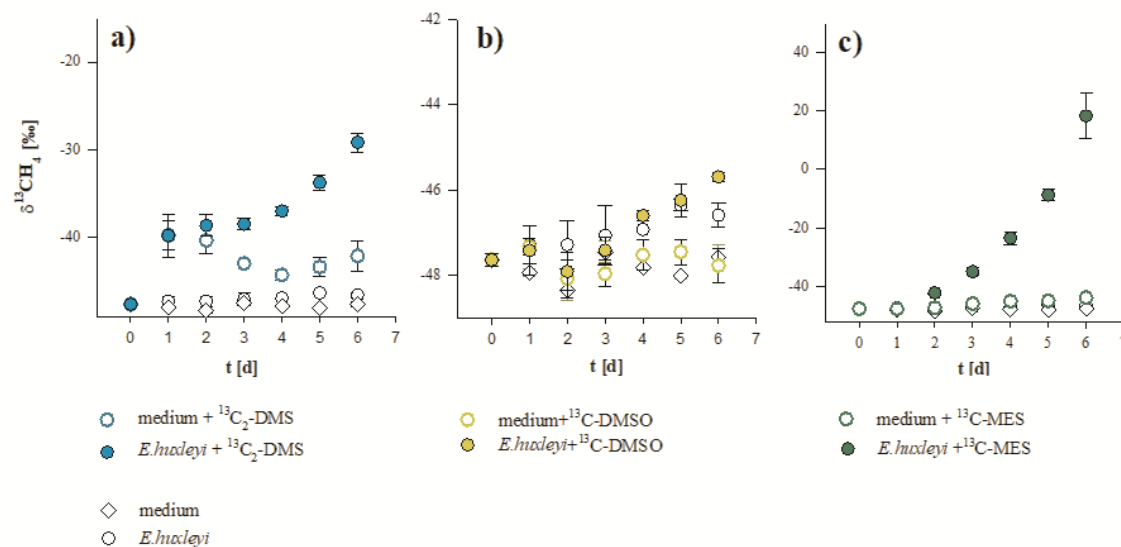
The results unambiguously show that a fraction of the <sup>13</sup>C-labelled methyl groups of the added substances was converted to  
<sup>13</sup>C-CH<sub>4</sub> in cultures of *E. huxleyi*. Much smaller changes in  $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values were observed for controls of sterile filtered media  
where only <sup>13</sup>C<sub>2</sub>-DMS and <sup>13</sup>C-MSO was added ( $-42.8 \pm 1.7 \text{ ‰}$  and  $-43.9 \pm 0.2 \text{ ‰}$  respectively, Fig. 4 a, c, day 6), whereas  
 $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values did not change over time in the seawater controls (no addition of isotopic labelled compounds) and in the  
280 seawater controls treated with <sup>13</sup>C<sub>2</sub>-DMSO (Fig. 4 b). Based on the initial amount of <sup>13</sup>C label substance that were added to



the cultures and the total amount of  $^{13}\text{CH}_4$  at the end of the incubation period,  $9.5 \pm 0.2$  pmol ( $^{13}\text{C}_2\text{-DMS}$ ),  $3.0 \pm 3.2$  pmol ( $^{13}\text{C}_2\text{-DMSO}$ ) and  $30.1 \pm 3.6$  pmol ( $^{13}\text{C-MSO}$ ) of  $8.5 \mu\text{mol}$  were converted to  $\text{CH}_4$ .



285 **Fig. 3** Cell growths (a),  $\text{CH}_4$  production (b) and relation between the total number of cells and produced  $\text{CH}_4$  (c) from *E. huxleyi* treated with  $^{13}\text{C}_2\text{-DMS}$ ,  $^{13}\text{C}_2\text{-DMSO}$  and  $^{13}\text{C-MSO}$  or without any treatment. Mean values of three replicated culture experiments are shown and error bars mark the SD.



**Fig. 4.**  $^{13}\text{CH}_4$  values of headspace  $\text{CH}_4$  in cultures of *E. huxleyi* supplemented with (a)  $^{13}\text{C}_2\text{-DMS}$ , (b)  $^{13}\text{C}_2\text{-DMSO}$  and (c)  $^{13}\text{C-MSO}$ . Mean values of three replicated culture experiments are shown and error bars mark the SD.

290 **4. Discussion**

Our results of  $\text{CH}_4$  production and stable carbon isotope measurements provide unambiguous evidence that next to *E. huxleyi* (Lenhart et al., 2016) other widespread marine algal species namely *Chrysochromulina sp.* and *P. globosa* produce  $\text{CH}_4$  per



se under oxic conditions at rates of  $1.6 \pm 0.5$  to  $2.7 \pm 0.7 \mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ POC d}^{-1}$ . The three investigated genera of marine phytoplankton have a world-wide distribution and they are representatives of the most widespread marine haptophytes (Schoemann et al., 2005; Thomsen, 1994; Brown and Yoder, 1994). The results indicate that  $\text{CH}_4$  production could be a common process across marine haptophytes. We first discuss the stable isotopic evidence of  $\text{CH}_4$  formation, the role of precursor compounds and likely mechanisms involved. Finally, we discuss the laboratory  $\text{CH}_4$  production rates in relation to its potential significance in marine environments and provide a first rough estimation how these production rates might contribute to  $\text{CH}_4$  concentration in oxic surface waters previously reported in open ocean algal blooms.

In cultures of *Chrysochromulina sp.* and *P. globosa*, that were treated with  $^{13}\text{C}$ -labelled hydrogen carbonate,  $\delta^{13}\text{CCH}_4$  values increased with incubation time, clearly resulting from the conversion of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -hydrogen carbonate to  $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ . These results demonstrate that all three investigated algal species produce  $\text{CH}_4$  per se under oxic conditions (S.1) and that hydrogen carbonate serves as a carbon source for  $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ . Our findings are in agreement with the stable isotope evidence of  $\text{CH}_4$  production by *E. huxleyi* (Lenhart et al., 2016). However, we do not consider hydrogen carbonate as the direct carbon precursor of  $\text{CH}_4$ . In a first step hydrogen carbonate and its isotope label is converted to  $\text{CO}_2$  and subsequently fixed by algal primary production forming POC. Therefore, we would expect a large fraction of the  $^{13}\text{C}$  label of the hydrogen carbonate ( $+2014 \pm 331\%$ ) to be transferred to the POC towards the end of the experiment (with highest cell numbers). The experiments were started by inoculation cells from pre-cultures, that were grown on DIC with natural  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$  abundance ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values  $\sim 0\%$ ). This means that during ongoing incubation the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POC value should get close to  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DIC values, resulting from the addition of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -hydrogen carbonate, when cultures grow in the new  $^{13}\text{C}$  enriched medium. Consequently, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POC values are considered to be somewhat lower than the theoretically calculated  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DIC values ( $+2014 \pm 331\%$ ) of the medium. Our assumptions are in line with the  $\delta^{13}\text{CCH}_4$  source signature values (averaged over 9 or 11 days respectively), obtained via Keeling plot method, which were  $+1300 \pm 245\%$  and  $+1511 \pm 35\%$  for *Chrysochromulina sp.* and *P. globosa*, respectively and thus were somewhat lower than for the theoretical calculated  $^{13}\text{C}$  value of the DIC ( $+2014 \pm 331\%$ ) resulting from the addition of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -hydrogen carbonate. Unfortunately,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DIC and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POC values could not be determined in our set of experiments to allow more detailed calculations. However, our results clearly indicate that hydrogen carbonate is the principle inorganic carbon precursor of  $^{13}\text{CH}_4$  produced in algae, but intermediate metabolites are likely to be formed from which  $\text{CH}_4$  is released, possibly by cleavage of sulphur-bonded methyl groups of methyl thioethers and sulfoxides (Althoff et al., 2014, Lenhart et al., 2016, Benzing et al., 2017).

#### 4.1 $\text{CH}_4$ formation from $^{13}\text{C}$ labelled methyl thioethers

##### Methyl thioethers are precursors of $\text{CH}_4$

Methyl thioethers and their sulfoxides are ubiquitous in marine environments as they are often produced by algae at substantial rates. It is also known that these compounds are metabolized in the three investigated algal species (Liss et al., 1994; Keller, 1989). Based on the addition of  $^{13}\text{C}_2$ -DMSO,  $^{13}\text{C}_2$ -DMS and  $^{13}\text{C}$ -MSO, where only the sulphur-bonded methyl



325 groups ( $-S-CH_3$ ) were 99% labelled with  $^{13}C$ , it was possible to clearly monitor  $^{13}CH_4$  formation by stable carbon isotope  
measurements in cultures of *E. huxleyi*. The  $\delta^{13}CH_4$  values, increased over time significantly in  $^{13}C_2$ -DMS,  $^{13}C_2$ -DMSO and  
 $^{13}C$ -MSO treated cultures, above the  $\delta^{13}CH_4$  values of the control groups. (Fig.4 a-c). The  $^{13}CH_4$  quantity from conversion of  
 $^{13}C$  labelled substance explains roughly 0.03% ( $^{13}C_2$ -DMSO) up to 0.84% ( $^{13}C$ -MSO) to overall released  $CH_4$ . However,  
even if the biggest fraction of  $CH_4$  in algae cultures was not released by the  $^{13}C$  labelled substances, the delta notation values  
330 in cultures demonstrate that  $^{13}C$  labelled precursor substances were converted to  $CH_4$  by the algae. These isotope labelling  
results are also in good agreement with recent results from laboratory experiments where MET was added to cultures of *E.*  
*huxleyi* (Lenhart et al., 2016). In addition, we also found an indication for a purely chemical  $CH_4$  formation pathway from  
control samples using sterile seawater and addition of either  $^{13}C_2$ -DMS and  $^{13}C$ -MSO. A similar observation was already  
made by Lenhart et al. (2016) when applying  $^{13}C$ -MET in seawater. However, the relatively slight increase in  $\delta^{13}CH_4$  values  
335 in the control samples (Fig.4a) implicates that this is only a minor pathway. The  $CH_4$  conversion from  $^{13}C$ -DMS and  $^{13}C$ -  
MSO in seawater was approximately 3- and 30-fold lower than in the corresponding treatments with algae and becomes only  
obvious when applying stable isotope labelling experiments. However, this observation might be in agreement with  
previously findings by Zhang et al. (2015), who described a photochemically and CDOM related conversion of DMS to  $CH_4$   
in oxygenated natural seawater.

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#### Reasons for variable conversion of methyl thioethers to $CH_4$

The conversion of the initial added amount of  $^{13}C$ -labelled substance (8,5  $\mu$ mol) into  $^{13}CH_4$  varied drastically between  
supplemented compounds in algal cultures ranging from 3.0 pmol ( $^{13}C_2$ -DMSO), 9.5 pmol ( $^{13}C_2$ -DMS), to 30.1 pmol ( $^{13}C$ -  
MSO). However, these conversion quantities of  $^{13}C$ -labelled substance in algal cultures were about nine ( $^{13}C_2$ -DMS), three  
345 ( $^{13}C_2$ -DMSO) and thirty ( $^{13}C$ -MSO) times higher than in control groups. Several explanations for variable conversion of  
methyl thioethers to  $CH_4$  can be given: firstly newly synthesized, non-labelled molecules of the applied  $^{13}C$  substances are  
produced by the cells to a different extent, which in turn leads to different cell concentrations of  $^{13}C$  labelled molecules (due  
to the relative depletion of  $^{13}C$  labelled substances). Secondly, the applied compounds penetrate the cells to a different extent  
leading to different final concentrations inside the cells. For instance, amino acids like MET and MSO are taken up by  
350 transporter systems (Cho and Komor, 1985) while DMS is much more hydrophobic than DMSO and is highly permeable to  
cell membranes (Sunda et al., 2002; Spiess et al., 2015). Finally, the reactivity of the methyl bonded sulphur group of the  
methyl thioethers and their sulfoxides differs between the chemical compounds. For instance, the  $CH_4$  conversion were  
variable between methylated sulphur compounds, when Althoff et al. (2014) used different methylated sulphur compounds  
to mimic  $CH_4$  formation in eukaryotes via chemical reaction.

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### Mechanism of CH<sub>4</sub> formation from thioethers

The CH<sub>4</sub> formation from thioethers (MET, DMS) and their corresponding sulphoxides (MSO, DMSO) might be catalysed by nonheme oxo iron (IV), thus forming methyl radicals ( $\cdot\text{CH}_3$ ) from homolytically broken sulphur methyl bounds (R-CH<sub>3</sub>) leading to CH<sub>4</sub> under oxidative conditions (Althoff et al., 2014, Benzing et al. 2017). Since the tested compounds are found in high cellular concentrations in *E. huxleyi*, *Chrysochromulina sp.* and *P. globosa* and non heme oxo iron (IV) have been identified as active intermediates in the catalytic cycles of a number of biological enzymatic systems (Hohenberger et al., 2012), the postulated reaction might be a likely pathway for CH<sub>4</sub> production in investigated alga species. Furthermore, DMS and DMSO were described to be part of an antioxidant system as these compounds can readily scavenge hydroxyl radicals in cells of *E. huxleyi* (Sunda et al., 2002). Furthermore, CH<sub>4</sub> is released via a methyl radical, that is subtracted from DMSO when hydroxyl radicals being scavenged – and accordingly DMS after its sulphoxidation (Herscu-Kluska et al., 2008). Since MET and MSO have similar functional groups to DMS and DMSO respectively, it was proposed that the reaction described above is taking place analogously for these compounds (Bruhn et al., 2012; Lenhart et al., 2015a). Consequently, the CH<sub>4</sub> formation in investigated algal species might be a response of oxidative stress, that forms hydroxyl radicals or other reactive oxygen species (ROS), which in turn might react with the applied methylated sulphur compounds generating methyl radicals and eventually CH<sub>4</sub>.

### Methyl thioethers are not converted by methanogenic archaea in our cultures

The algal metabolites DMSP, DMS and DMSO are ubiquitous in marine surface layers and nanomolar concentrations were found in blooms of *Chrysochromulina sp.*, *P. globosa* and *E. huxleyi*. Several field studies showed that these compounds are linked to CH<sub>4</sub> formation in seawater (Zindler et al., 2013; Damm et al., 2008; Florez-Leiva et al., 2013). The authors proposed that DMSP and their degradation products DMSO and DMS are used by methylotrophic methanogenic archaea, inhabiting in anoxic microsites, as substrates for methanogenesis. While methanogenesis in anoxic microsites is a proposed source in the field, an involvement of methanogenic archaea is highly unlikely in our culture experiments because experiments were performed under sterile and oxic conditions. High oxygen accumulation due to algal photosynthesis was observed in all experiments (S1, S2). Furthermore, the absence of methanogenic archaea in culture experiments of *E. huxleyi* strain RCC1216 using several molecular tools was clearly shown in a previous study (Lenhart et al., 2016).

## 4.2 POC normalized production

For all three algal species significant correlations between CH<sub>4</sub> mass and cell density was found ( $r^2 > 0.95$  for all species, Fig 1 g, h, i), suggesting that CH<sub>4</sub> formation occurred over the entire growth curve.

However, since CH<sub>4</sub> production can only be determined in the exponential phase (Langer et al., 2013) we additionally ran dilute batch cultures to determine CH<sub>4</sub> production. All three species displayed similar CH<sub>4</sub> production ranging from  $1.6 \pm 0.5$





to  $2.7 \pm 0.7 \mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ POC d}^{-1}$  with *Chrysochromulina sp.* and *E. huxleyi* showing the lowest and highest rates, respectively. The  $\text{CH}_4$  production for *E. huxleyi* was found to be twofold higher than rates reported for the same strain and comparable culture conditions by Lenhart et al. (2016) ( $0.7 \mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ POC d}^{-1}$ ). The lower production reported by Lenhart et al. (2016) may be explained by the fact that  $\text{CH}_4$  production was not obtained from exponentially growing cultures. However, we do suggest that  $\text{CH}_4$  production of various algae might differ substantially under changing environmental conditions, as already shown for terrestrial plants (Abdulmajeed and Qaderi, 2017; Martel and Qaderi, 2017). Moreover, the cellular concentrations of potential precursor compounds such as methylated sulphur compounds might vary greatly between species and cultures. The investigated algal species can reach millimolar intracellular concentrations of DMS and DMSP (Sunda et al., 2002; Liss et al., 1994; Keller, 1989) and even if the conversion rate of methylated sulphur compounds to  $\text{CH}_4$  in algal cells might be low, they could be sufficient to explain a substantial fraction of the  $\text{CH}_4$  production rates by marine algae.

#### 4.3 Implication for the marine environment and algal blooms

It has been hypothesized that  $\text{CH}_4$  formation in oxic surface waters is associated with primary production since a correlation between chlorophyll a and dissolved  $\text{CH}_4$  was found, and  $\text{CH}_4$  saturation increased during algal blooms in both lakes and oceans (Weller et al., 2013).

It was estimated that the gross  $\text{CH}_4$  production in a southwest Pacific Ocean mesoscale eddy is  $40 - 58 \text{ pmol CH}_4 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$  (Weller et al., 2013). Using reported phytoplankton cell densities ( $1.7 \times 10^8$  to  $2.9 \times 10^8 \text{ cells L}^{-1}$ , Weller et al., 2013), we calculated a maximal cellular production of  $5.5 \text{ ag CH}_4 \text{ cell}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$  for this eddy. The species investigated in this study showed ca. 3-9 times higher cellular production (Table 1). Hence each of the three haptophyte algae studied here could account for the  $\text{CH}_4$  production reported by Weller et al. (2013). Judging from cellular production, the species studied here are of similar importance for oceanic  $\text{CH}_4$  production in biogeochemical terms. Regarding the highest cellular production, that of *E. huxleyi* as 100%, *P. globosa* produces 27% and *Chrysochromulina sp.* 87% (Table 1). However, while cellular production is an interesting parameter in physiological terms, it is not useful in biogeochemical terms. Gafar et al. (2018) suggested the production potential (PP), as opposed to cellular production, as a biogeochemically meaningful parameter. We calculated the  $\text{CH}_4$ -PP (Material and Methods) for our three species, and when the one of *E. huxleyi* is considered 100%, *P. globosa* has a  $\text{CH}_4$ -PP of 1%, and *Chrysochromulina sp.* 0.8% (Table 1). In terms of  $\text{CH}_4$  production in the field, therefore, *E. huxleyi* outperforms the other two haptophytes by two orders of magnitude. It can be concluded that the  $\text{CH}_4$ -PP under given environmental conditions is species-specific and therefore community composition will have an influence on algal sea surface water  $\text{CH}_4$  production.

It can be hypothesized that changing environmental conditions might drastically affect algal  $\text{CH}_4$  production, which has to be taken into account when calculating annual averages. The effect of dominant environmental parameters such as light intensity and temperature on algal  $\text{CH}_4$  production will therefore be the subject matter of future studies.



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**Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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