Independent variations of CH₄ emissions and isotopic composition over the past 160,000 years

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2. Supplementary Methods and technical descriptions

10 2.1 δ^{13} CH₄ measurements performed at Alfred Wegener Institute (AWI)

EDML δ^{13} CH₄ measurements were performed using a continuous flow gas chromatography combustion isotope ratio mass spectrometry system (GC/C/IRMS) with a preceeding purge and trap extraction and pre-concentration setup. A few modifications have been made compared to the published experimental and data processing procedure^{1,2}. Sample sizes between 150-200 g of ice,

- 15 equivalent to 15-20 ml of air at standard temperature and pressure (STP) were used after scraping off 1-2 mm at the surface with a microtome knife to minimize the risk of contamination e.g. by drill fluid. Sealed with a copper gasket in an ultra-high-vacuum stainless steel to glass sample vessel with an inner volume of 350 ml, the samples were melted after evacuation and the air stripped out of the water and vessel head space with a helium carrier gas stream (150 mL/min) for 90 minutes.
- 20 The bulk of the entrained water vapor was removed by a cooled Nafion membrane and most of the easily condensable gases like CO₂ and N₂O are trapped in a ¹/₈ inch steel trap at -196 °C (liquid nitrogen, LN₂). While methane from the sample air was subsequently pre-concentrated on a ¹/₈" steel tubing filled with an adsorbent (Hayesep D 80/100 mesh, Supelco), bulk components of the air

were vented at -140 °C. The retained sample methane and residual air components were focussed

- on a cryofocus trap and separated on a 30 m GC column (30 °C, CarbonPLOT, Agilent, Böblingen, Germany). The methane was then quantitatively combusted to CO₂ in a 940 °C oxidation furnace (Ni/CU/Pt wires in Al₂O₃ tubing, ThermoFinnigan, Bremen, Germany) and admitted to the IRMS (Isoprime, Elementar, Germany) using an open split.
- 30 A pure CO₂ working standard (ISO-TOP, Air Liquide, Germany) was admitted to the IRMS during each acquisition. Moreover, a pure methane standard (99.995 vol.-% purity; AirLiquide, Germany) admitted to the GC stream was used to monitor fractionation in the GC or the combustion oven. 20 ml STP synthetic atmospheric air standard injections from two different standard bottles ("SynthAir" with 1000 ppb CH4 (99.995 vol.-% purity), 250 ppm ISOTOP CO₂ and 250 ppb N₂O (99.999 vol.-% purity); "Crystal-Mix" with 1081 ± 22 ppb CH₄ 4.5, 249.9 ± 5.0 ppm CO₂ and $259 \pm$ 35 26 ppb; both AirLiquide, Germany) were used to correct for long-term systematic shifts and internal calibration. The mean δ^{13} CH₄ value for "SynthAir" was -40.93 ± 0.10 ‰ (n=448) and -49.66 ± 0.11 ‰ (n=136) for "Crystal-Mix" after drift correction. The absolute accuracy of the system was determined by 16 measurements of a modern air sample from Neumayer Station, Antarctica. The target value (δ^{13} CH₄: -46.97 ± 0.04 ‰ versus V-PDB (n=7)) was determined by off-line sample 40 preparation and dual-inlet IRMS on a MAT252 mass spectrometer (ThermoFinnigan) at the Institut für Umweltphysik, Heidelberg³. A calculated machine offset of 0.02 ‰ of our GC/C/IRMS determined values after correction for Kr interference (see below) relative to the Heidelberg reference value was used to correct the EDML δ^{13} CH₄ data of this study. Accordingly, our data are reported relative to the V-PDB scale as defined by the Heidelberg measurements⁴. 45

The EDML δ^{13} CH₄ time series includes 129 data points and 32 replicates from different depth intervals with a mean reproducibility of the replicates of ± 0.18 ‰. A total of 19 outliers, either caused by machine instabilities or other experimental problems, were excluded from the dataset and

50 remeasured. Processing of the chromatogram for each measurement has been performed using a self developed, fully automated peak detection, integration and referencing script written in the Python programming language (www.python.org). This script allows uniform and comprehensible background and peak detection, genuine automation for post-processing (like e.g. long term trend corrections) and data archiving. Using this script we were able to reproduce published δ¹³CH₄ data
55 for termination I², which were obtained with the software provided with the MS (Isoprime, Elementar, Germany) with an offset of 0.10 ‰ (1σ: 0.17€‰, n=34) without and 0.17 ‰ (1σ: 0.15€‰) with correction for Kr interference (see below). Note that both offsets are smaller than the measurement uncertainty of this earlier data set (0.3 ‰, 1σ). This re-evaluated record for termination I was used in Figure 1 and 2 in the main text, and is also shown in supplementary
60 Figure S1 for the comparison with the unmodified, uncorrected data of our previous publication.

2.2 δ^{13} CH₄ measurements performed at Pennsylvania State University (PSU)

For the Vostok ice core sample measurements at Penn State University, two different extraction methods were employed. A dry extraction system⁵ was used to liberate gas from ice samples where N₂O measurements were needed^{6,7}. Trapped gases were liberated from 1-1.5 kg ice samples using a "cheese grater" oscillator with immediate cryogenic freezing of liberated air into a 35 ml stainless steel sample tube immersed in liquid Helium. Once the air was transferred, the sample tube was isolated, removed from the Helium Dewar and equilibrated at room temperature before CH₄ and N₂O analyses were performed using standard GC techniques. The sample tube was then attached to the PreCon device where the isotopic composition of N₂O and CH₄ were determined^{8,9}. For those samples where we did not need N₂O data, a wet extraction technique was used to liberate the occluded air. Ice samples weighing 500-700 g were placed into a stainless steel extraction cylinder and sealed with a copper gasket. After evacuation, the ice was allowed to melt for 40 min in 50 °C water before being placed into a liquid nitrogen Dewar for 40 min to refreeze the meltwater. The headspace was then flushed with He (40 ml/min) through a H₂O trap (-110 °C) with the CH₄

ultimately trapped on a Havesep D trap at -130 °C. After 40 min of flushing, the Havesep D trap 75 was isolated and attached to the PreCon for CH₄ isotopic analyses¹⁰. Both extraction systems were routinely checked for contamination/fractionation using standard air samples of varying sizes to mimic the amount of CH₄ we extract from the ice core samples (1-3 nmol of CH₄). The air standards were introduced over the residual crushed ice or degassed refrozen meltwater and 80 processed as if they were a real ice sample. For the dry extraction runs, the average of eight separate standard runs was -47.30 ± 0.31 ‰ (1 σ). The average value is 0.17 ‰ lower than the assigned δ^{13} CH₄ value for the air tank (-47.13 ‰ VPDB) but within the uncertainty associated with the method itself. For the wet extraction system, we processed 15 standard air samples through degassed water samples. The average δ^{13} CH₄ value for these runs was -47.10 ± 0.34 ‰. These results are close to the assigned value for the standard (-47.13 ‰) and 0.2 ‰ higher than the results 85 from the dry extraction system. To account for the δ^{13} CH₄ difference between the two extraction systems, we add 0.2 % to all the dry extraction data to be consistent with the wet extraction data and the assigned value for the air standard. We estimate the overall uncertainty based on the replicate analyses of the standard air samples to be $0.3 \% (1\sigma)$.

90 2.3 Correction of δ^{13} CH₄ data due to Kr interference during IRMS measurements

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The chromatographic separation of CH₄ and the noble gas krypton (Kr) imposes special demands on a setup used to separate air components, owing to the very similar physico-chemical properties of these compounds. Kr has previously not been accounted for in δ^{13} CH₄ studies, as none of the multiple stable isotopes of Kr are close to the mass to charge ratio (*m/z*) 44, 45 and 46 considered in CO₂ based δ^{13} CH₄ measurements. Recently Schmitt et al. (2013) demonstrated¹¹, that the doubly charged isotope ⁸⁶Kr²⁺ does in fact interfere with the δ^{13} C measurement of CH₄, if Kr enters the ion

source of the IRMS.

After a thorough review of the raw data for the ice core δ^{13} CH₄ time series, we were able to identify irregularities in the raw chromatograms at the peak flanks of the CH₄-derived CO₂ for the

- 100 measurements performed with the AWI instrument. The Kr peak causes anomalies in the ratio of m/z = 45 to m/z = 44 and the m/z = 46 to m/z = 44 ratio which generates higher δ^{13} CH₄ values the more Kr contributes to the total peak areas (hereafter referred to as Kr effect). While the symptoms are distinct due to instrumental differences of the two setups, we also found the PSU system to be affected by the Kr interference.
- 105 Because polar ice core samples are not easily replaced, we were unable to repeat the measurements of the EDML and Vostok δ^{13} CH₄ time series with enhanced instrumental setups. Instead we corrected the δ^{13} CH₄ values for this Kr effect as described in detail in Schmitt et al. (2013)¹¹, which we briefly summarize below.

110 A posteriori correction of the Kr effect

We applied the following strategies to correct PSU and AWI δ^{13} CH₄ measurements for the Kr effect and account for relative laboratory offsets with respect to the VPDB scale. AWI EDML measurements are corrected for Kr individually by a method applied to the respective raw data chromatograms. The method uses the visible anomalies seen in the *m/z* ratios 45/44 and *m/z* 46/44 115 and subtracts the derived interference from the raw data time series¹¹. Afterwards, the chromatograms are reprocessed and the isotopic composition of the CH₄ peak calculated. We refer to these values as the Kr-corrected δ^{13} CH₄ values. In contrast, δ^{13} CH₄ values obtained without the subtraction algorithm are referred to as original δ^{13} CH₄ values. The difference between original and corrected values are termed Kr correction values or $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C_{Kr}. For the EDML time series $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C_{Kr}

120 range between 0.4 ‰ for interstadial (medium CH₄ mixing ratios) to 0.8 ‰ during glacial (MIS 2) and stadial conditions (lower CH₄ levels) (compare also Supplementary Figure S1). The results are further calibrated internally and are tied to the VPDB scale as outlined in section 1.1. Unfortunately, an analogous direct approach could not be applied to the Vostok ice core δ^{13} CH₄ acquisitions performed at the PSU, as the raw chromatograms were not stored after processing the

125 δ^{13} C data. Instead, we had to choose an indirect way to correct for the Kr effect in the Vostok

 δ^{13} CH₄ time series.

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For the purpose of this correction the atmospheric krypton mixing ratio can safely be considered constant over time^{11,12}. If instrumental conditions are uniform, the Kr effect scales only with the atmospheric concentration of methane, it is thus directly proportional to the Kr/CH₄ ratio¹¹. We inferred the linear relationship between Kr effect and 1/CH₄ from a series of air samples with differing methane mixing ratios but similar Kr levels. The three ambient air samples were retrieved at Niwot Ridge preserve, Colorado, US in 2007, and were part of the "2007 - IPY International Ice Core Gas Intercalibration Exercise" launched by Todd Sowers (Penn State University) and Ed

Brook (Oregon State University). The samples of recent ambient air were diluted with ultra pure air

135 (free of CH₄) in order to simulate the full spectrum of atmospheric variability from present day, preindustrial to glacial conditions. Note, that the dilution did not affect the noble gas concentration in the cylinders.

The raw data chromatograms of "IPY" air samples performed with the PSU instrument were treated in the same manner as the EDML ice core samples, with the routine adapted to the specific characteristics of the PSU setup. Based on these PSU measurements we obtained Kr correction values of 0.12 ‰, 0.26 ‰ and 0.66 ‰ for cylinder "CA03560", "CC71560" and "CA01179", respectively. To a first approximation, $\Delta\delta^{13}C_{Kr}$ scales with the inverse of the CH₄ mixing ratios of 1852 ppb, 906 ppb and 365 ppb (illustrated in Figure S2), yielding a dependence of $\Delta\delta^{13}C_{Kr}$ to CH₄ for the PSU measurements. Supplementary table 1 provides a detailed compilation of results for the

145 "IPY" air samples for both the PSU and the AWI instruments.

When the linear $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Kr}$ - 1/CH₄ relationship was applied to the CH₄ mixing ratios¹³ of the Vostok ice core, we derived $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Kr}$ values in the range of 0.4 ‰ for interglacial conditions (e.g. MIS 5.5) to 0.7 ‰ and 0.8 ‰ for the glacial stages MIS 2 and MIS 6, respectively (see Figure S1). Note that

150 while these corrections on the PSU and AWI data of several tenth of a permille are significant, they are still small compared to the atmospheric changes of several permille observed in our ice core

data on glacial/interglacial time scales, and do not influence our interpretations.

2.4 AWI and PSU laboratory inter-calibration

In order to minimize offsets between the absolute standardization of both laboratory setups at the
AWI and the PSU, we performed inter-calibration measurements on three IPY air samples and on ice core samples from the WAIS Divide ice core WDC05 A (79°27.70S 112°7.510W; 1.759 masl.). We applied the CH₄ dependence of Δδ¹³C_{Kr} to account for the Kr effect encountered in the ice core and air sample measurements using the PSU instrument, and the raw data correction procedure described for the EDML ice samples in section 1.3 for the IPY air and WDC05 A measurements
performed with the AWI setup. The results for both systems, presented in more detail in Supplementary table 1 and 2, lead to an AWI-PSU laboratory offset of 0.09 ‰ with respect to δ¹³CH₄. As a final adjustment, the Vostok δ¹³CH₄ time series is hence shifted by 0.09 ‰ towards lower values to account for the differences in the absolute standardization of both laboratories. Note that this inter-laboratory offset is significantly smaller than the measurement uncertainty of 0.3 ‰, showing that the AWI and PSU data sets are fully compatible after correction of the Kr effect.

2.5 Firn column corrections applied to the δ^{13} CH₄ ice core records

During the enclosure of air bubbles in the Antarctic ice sheet, the methane molecules like other air components encounter diffusion processes in the open pore space of the firn column, which also affect their isotopic composition archived after bubble close-off. In the diffusive firn zone¹⁴ methane is subject to gravitational settling, that enriches the heavier isotope at the bottom of the firn column¹⁵. In addition, strong concentration gradients caused by rapid atmospheric methane concentration changes, induce diffusive fluxes that lead to isotopic fractionation¹⁶. Finally, thermal diffusion corrections are required when large temperature gradients exist in the firn layer¹⁷. Temperature variations at Kohnen Station (EDML core site) and Vostok have been slow during the

175 last glacial cycle. Hence, the firn column down to the close-off depth was essentially in thermal equilibrium and thermal diffusion effects are negligible for the datasets presented here.

In order to quantify the order of magnitude of the respective diffusion effects, we used a firn diffusion model¹⁸ with a parameter set adapted to the glacial EDML core characteristics to calculate the combined effects of diffusive fractionation due to gravitation and concentration changes at the

- 180 surface (see Figure S3). A methane pulse of 200 ppb with an initial rate of increase of 4 ppb/yr and a respective decline of 0.25 ppb/yr (grey line, subfigure **a**)) was prescribed to mimic the most vigorous natural methane rises throughout the glacial cycle (e.g. at the end of terminations or into DO 21). The δ^{13} CH₄ signature of methane at the surface is prescribed at -45 ‰. Accordingly, all changes to this value recorded at the model bubble close-off on the bottom of the firn column (blue
- line, subfigure b)) are solely due to the two diffusion processes. To account for uncertainties concerning the two most important physical parameters of firnification, site temperature and accumulation rate, we illustrate the range of model results for the fractionation of δ¹³CH₄ with a minimal (-52.14 °C, 2.978 cm water equivalent per year (w.e./yr)), maximal (-46.64 °C, 5.075 cm w.e./yr) and a best guess scenario (-49.52 °C, 3.859 cm w.e./yr). This range of site temperatures and snow accumulation rates is a realistic representation of possible glacial conditions at the core site.

The initial δ¹³CH₄ value, after steady state is reached in the model, is -44.57 ‰. This offset of 0.43 ‰ relative to the atmospheric value is due to the gravitational settling that is established in the firn column. It is also on very good agreement with measured δ¹⁵N₂ for the EDML core for glacial conditions¹⁹. The consecutive prescribed methane rise at the surface causes an additional shift in δ¹³CH₄ after bubble close-off in the range of -0.73 ‰ for coldest temperatures and lowest snow accumulation and up to -1.05 ‰ for maximal temperature and accumulation rate, while the best guess scenario amounts to -0.85 ‰. However, the effect is short-lived and decreases to levels below our experimental uncertainty in less than 150 years after the initial methane increase. After about 500 years the δ¹³CH₄ value is essentially back at its starting value before the CH₄ increase. During the slower decline of methane concentration back to the base level of 350 ppb, the highest observed

diffusional fractionation of -0.24 ‰ does not even exceed the measurement uncertainty. In conclusion, only those data points of our record may be affected that fall within the relatively short

- 205 time window during major methane concentration increases. Accordingly, we did not correct our data for these diffusion effects, but have to keep in mind that individual samples that coincide with the rapid CH_4 changes may be biased by a few tenth of a permille towards lower (more negative) $\delta^{13}CH_4$ values.
 - Accordingly, all our δ¹³CH₄ data are solely corrected for gravitational fractionation. Vostok samples have been corrected with interpolated δ¹⁵N₂ data according to published procedures¹⁴. No δ¹⁵N₂ record covering the whole time interval of our δ¹³CH₄ data is available for the EDML ice core to date. However, δ¹⁵N₂ data over the last glacial/interglacial transition vary only between 0.4 to 0.45 ‰. Thus, we shifted EDML values by a constant offset of 0.41 ‰ to higher values. This
 0.41 ‰ shift does reflect expected values for glacial conditions very well^{19,20}, and is also in line with model studies²¹. The error introduced by this constant correction is 0.05 ‰ at the most, and thus negligible compared to our overall analytical uncertainty of 0.3 ‰.

2.6 dD(CH₄) measurements performed at University of Bern

δD(CH₄) measurements were performed using a purge and trap extraction coupled to a gas
chromatography pyrolysis isotope ratio mass spectrometer (GC/P/IRMS) system as described in detail in Bock et al. (2010)²² with some improvements which will be published elsewhere. External precision of the presented data is about 2.5 ‰ (1σ) based on standard air measurements of corresponding size. In Figure 3 of the main text the error bars represent the standard deviation of standard air measurements (1σ: 1.8 ‰ to 2.9 ‰) used to calibrate the corresponding samples. All
δD(CH₄) values are given with respect to the international Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) scale. No corrections (e.g. gravitational enrichment) have been applied, as these corrections would only be of minor importance regarding the analytical uncertainty, and do not

affect our conclusions. Note, that no Kr interference occurs for our $\delta D(CH_4)$ system.

2.7 Age scales

230 Ice core records

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If not stated otherwise, all gas ages in this document are reported according to a chronology based on the new synchronization effort for EPICA and various other ice core chronologies by Lemieux-Dudon et al. (2010)²³, hereafter denoted as "Unified" age scale. Where applicable, a direct age calculation was performed by linear interpolation of the depth-age relationship provided by Lemieux-Dudon et al. (2010)²³. Other records required additional conversion steps according to the

procedures described below.

Vostok $\delta^{13}CH_4$ and CO_2 records

For Vostok we adopted the published Vostok depth to EDC3 gas age relationship of the Vostok
CO₂ record and interpolated corresponding EDC3 ages for the Vostok δ¹³CH₄ data. However, we observed an evident misalignment of the fast methane concentration rises at Dansgaard/Oeschger (DO) event 24 compared to EDC CH₄ data²⁶. As part of the focus of our work is directed at relative timings of δ¹³CH₄ and CH₄ rises, we performed a manual methane synchronization to account for this offset. Therefore, we picked five tie-points in between DO event 21 and the Termination 2 methane rise at peak flanks (Supplementary table 3) and interpolated the included data points linearly to the EDC3 age scale²⁷. The EDC3 ages including the adjusted section between 83.6 kyr BP and 128.9 kyr BP were then converted to the target "Unified" age model. The adjustments were also applied to the Vostok CO₂ record used in this work^{26,28}. Note that the applied adjustments do not affect the conclusions in this publication on the decoupling of CH₄ and δ¹³CH₄ or on the coupling of δ¹³CH₄ and atmospheric CO₂.

Byrd atmospheric CO₂

No official age conversion to the "Unified" age scale exists for the Byrd ice core. Hence, we performed another methane synchronization between the Byrd²⁹ and EDML³⁰ CH₄ records in order to obtain corresponding EDML depths. Those were then converted to "Unified" ages. We are aware of the limitations of the methane synchronization approach³¹, especially if the resolution differences of the compared CH₄ datasets are large, or at times were CH₄ variations are low and, thus, tie-points are scarce. However, the very good temporal agreement of the Byrd³² and the EDML CO₂ data³³ show that the relative CH₄ synchronization error is small and does not affect the conclusions in our paper. The list of manual tie-points applied in the synchronization are presented in Supplementary table 4.

Relative sea-level

No direct age conversion to the "Unified" target age scale could be applied to the relative sea-level 265 (rsl.) data without invoking an ad-hoc phase relationship between the sea level and the ice core records. Therefore, we used the sea level record of Rohling et al. (2009)²⁴ on the speleothem synchronized age-scale provided by Grant et al. (2012)²⁵ without any modifications.

3. Complementary information on past δ^{13} CH₄ changes

270 3.1 DO methane variability and its missing responses in $\delta^{13}CH_4$

Figure S4 illustrates the missing imprint of the rapid atmospheric methane concentration variability on the carbon isotopic signature of methane in conjunction with the six strongest DO warmings throughout the last glacial. Segments of the CH₄³⁰ and δ¹³CH₄ data sets, centered around the respective methane rise, have been aligned (Figure S4 a)) in order to study the phasing and individual timing of the concentration changes and its counterpart in δ¹³CH₄ (Figure S4 b)). Note that the data points in δ¹³CH₄ closest to the most vigorous methane increases are likely biased by diffusional fractionation in the firn column (see discussion above). This may lead to offsets of δ¹³CH₄ data points close to major CH₄ changes. For example, the two negative excursions in

δ¹³CH₄ of less than 1 ‰ at DO 8 and termination I are located so close to the corresponding methane increase, that they can be attributed to the diffusional fractionation effect. We mark the range of possibly affected values in Figure S4 with a box of the width of 150 yr (gray bar), according to the maximum duration in our firnification model exercise, where the effect of the diffusional fractionation exceeded our experimental uncertainty range of 0.3 ‰. We also show the two major methane increases of termination I and II (right pair of panels in Figure S4). There is no apparent imprint of rapid methane variability on its carbon isotopic signature over the respective DO events and deglaciations.

3.2 Proxy evidence for C4 plant expansion

Methane production under natural conditions involves the decomposition of organic precursor material that has previously been accumulated by plants through photosynthetic sequestration of CO₂. Owing to fundamental physiological differences of the two major photosynthetic pathways, which characteristically discriminate the heavy isotope ¹³C during carbon assimilation, the typical ranges of isotopic signatures imposed on the plant material differ considerably^{34,35}. 85–90 % of terrestrial plant species today, covering the whole spectrum of vegetation from grasses and herbs to shrubs and trees, follow the C3 photosynthetic pathway³⁶. C3 plant biomass is characterized by a

depleted δ¹³C signature (-32 ‰ - -22 ‰), caused by the lower reactivity of ¹³CO₂ with the primary carboxylating enzyme RUBISCO³⁷. C4 vegetation on the other hand, mostly grasses and sedges, are able to pre-concentrate CO₂ internally at the cost of reduced quantum yield³⁸. As a consequence, C4 plant carbon fixation fractionates less against ¹³C (~-16 ‰ - -9 ‰). The isotopic composition of the terrestrial biosphere, i.a. the pre-cursor biomass for methanogenesis, is controlled by the primary productivity of an assemblage of plants under local growth conditions, the individual adaptation of its members to this conditions, as well as its tolerance against limitation factors. Plants of both photosynthetic pathways are unequally tolerant to limitations in CO₂, light intensity, local temperature, and to moisture and nutrient availability^{35,39,40}. Seasonality of precipitation has an equally significant impact on the local balance between C3 and C4 vegetation⁴⁰. However, the

305 relative importance of any of the limitations, especially in terms of a competitive advantage of plant families against others in the struggle for habitats, remains an unresolved and vitally discussed question^{36,41-45}.

Accordingly, it is neither physiologically well constrained how strong a C3 to C4 plant shift might have been in tropical regions under generally colder, drier conditions, and low CO₂ levels that were characteristic for the glacial period, nor is it extensively documented by the scarce terrestrial proxy evidence from these areas. Such a shift, however, is one of the relevant processes of our hypothesis to explain the observed, very pronounced δ^{13} CH₄ changes. Therefore, we will now discuss some of the ecosystem evidence that is available and relevant for our hypothesis.

315 In temperate regions in Northern- and Meso-America⁴⁶ and the Chinese loess plateau⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹, growing season temperature and the local climatic constellation seems to out-compete the physiological effect of low CO₂ level as predominant control upon the C3/C4 ratio. With warm growing seasons in the tropics, however, water insufficiency and low CO₂ possess an increased influence as plantgrowth limitation factors and pose high adaptive pressure on prevalent ecosystems⁵⁰⁻⁵³.

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Recent vegetation model experiments indicate high vegetation sensitivity to low atmospheric CO₂ levels during glacial periods^{44,45,54,55}. Globally, simulations for glacial climate conditions and typical CO₂ concentrations lead to significant retractions of closed canopy forest habitats in favor of open vegetation types^{43,56,57}. Tropical rainforests seem especially affected by the combined effects of increased aridity and low CO₂, and large arboreal areas are replaced by open savanna- and shrublike vegetation.

Analogue findings are well documented by terrestrial proxy data from tropical regions in Africa⁵⁸⁻⁶¹, Meso- and South America⁶¹⁻⁶⁴. These studies also report large proportions of C4 vegetation contributing to the widespread grasslands in equatorial Africa and South America in the LGM. Glacial-Interglacial differences in δ^{13} C of vascular plant waxes from sediment cores off the East Atlantic coast close to the river mouths of the Congo and Angola basin, indicate 3-4 ‰ shifts towards higher δ^{13} C values and thus, relative increases of C4 abundance in the range of 20-40 %⁵⁹. Increased C4 contribution has also been inferred from another marine core retrieved at the Guinea Plateau margin recording Sahara/Sahel vegetation⁶⁰. It also indicates raised aridity, falling temperatures and exceptionally high C4 predominance for the period between 71 and 65 kyr BP, i.e.

the MIS5/4 transition, which is also characterized by a strong increase (+4 ‰) in our $\delta^{13}CH_4$ record.

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A comparable study from the Cariaco Basin in the tropical west Atlantic, reported a 4-5 ‰ δ¹³C
decrease in leaf waxes from the LGM to the Preboreal Holocene⁶². This probably documents a reoccupation of forest vegetation in the peripheral Amazonian lowlands, that potentially retracted under glacial conditions⁶⁵⁻⁶⁹. Moreover, huge land masses the size of Europe from South Thailand to Sumatra, Borneo and Java became exposed in South-East Asia when sea-level fell in glacial periods. This territory, known as Sundaland, was also vastly covered by savanna type vegetation with considerable C4 contribution^{70,71}.

A global shift of C3 to C4 plants may not be representative for the conditions encountered in permanent (tropical) wetlands. Intuitionally, one may expect that the missing water limitation in such a wetland would reduce the adaptive pressure on plants in that ecosystem and hence level competitive advantages of one species against another. C3 plants, for example, are not forced into the natural trade-off between necessary stomatal opening for carbon sequestration and excessive water loss. In this light it is yet not fully understood, why large modern wetland ecosystems in tropical East Africa⁷², South Africa^{73,74} or areas of the Amazon floodplain⁷⁵ exhibit clear C4 plant predominance (mostly papyrus). Moreover, there is evidence that C4 dominance in east-equatorial Africa (at least near lake Challa) persisted during both wet and dry phases under glacial conditions⁷⁶. For the δ¹³CH₄ change observed in our record we speculate that seasonally inundated

wetlands played an increasing role for CH_4 emissions during cold climate conditions. These tropical non-permanent wetlands should foster the shift to open grasslands with high C4 contribution, as the higher water use efficiency and productivity of the C4 plants under low CO_2 levels in glacial periods should proof advantageous in this environment of seasonally contrasting very dry to very

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wet conditions.

3.3 Impact of location and habitat on the isotopic signature of C3 plants

Environmental factors as humidity, light availability, CO₂ concentration and use of recycled CO₂ differ largely between C3 plant habitats like rainforest and savanna⁷⁷. Dense closed canopy rainforest habitats provide a higher degree of natural protection from wind movement and hence 365 reduced water loss and air mass exchange, but on the other hand increase the competition for light intensity. The low photon flux caused by the light deficit for example diminishes carbon fixation rates, especially in the undergrowth vegetation. Lower vegetation layers furthermore assimilate more respired CO₂ that already underwent fractionation^{78,79}. Rainforest habitats have much higher water supply and air moisture levels compared to open vegetation types. Reduced evapo-370 transpirative water loss in closed canopies allows longer periods of opened leaf stomata and, thus, increased CO₂ levels in the leafs. Light deficit and high intracellular CO₂ levels enhance the discrimination of the heavier ¹³C isotope during photosynthesis⁸⁰. In contrast, open shrub, herb and grassy C3 vegetation is, especially in low latitudes, exposed to high levels of direct sunlight and 375 high leaf temperatures. To avoid extensive water loss, the stomatal conductance of these plants is usually highly restricted³⁷, and carbon dioxide limitation in the leaf cells reduces the relative discrimination of the heavier isotope by the enzymes involved in photosynthesis. As a consequence of these effects, C3 rainforest plant material is found to be 3-4 ‰ more depleted than C3 plant material from open savanna⁷⁷.

3.4 Role of water table changes

Hydrological changes in the past have direct implications on water table heights in wetlands. The soil oxidative layer thickness directly affects the net/gross primary productivity and thus CH₄ emission strength of a given wetland system. But an increased/decreased oxidative layer thickness
385 would also induce an enrichment/depletion in the mean δ¹³CH₄ signature of emitted methane as a higher/lower proportion of methane is oxidized on its way to the surface. This parameter is highly dependent on the local hydrology, topography and soil characteristics and poorly constrained spatially and over time. Our record suggests that it is of minor importance for the millenial scale variability of methane over the DO cycles as there is no remarkable imprint on δ¹³CH₄. A general contribution to the glacial-interglacial difference in δ¹³CH₄ due to enhanced global aridity in the course of the glaciation, however, cannot be ruled out.

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Figure legends

Figure S1 | Magnitude of the Kr effect $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Kr}$ derived from two distinct methods for the AWI and PSU instrument

- a) the new δ^{13} CH₄ time series of Vostok (light blue) and EDML (red), the Holocene GISP II record¹¹ (dark blue, on its original time scale), and the published EDML record² over termination I, that was processed anew according to the procedures in this publication (purple). The corrected time series are illustrated with thicker lines and large circle markers. The original records before the correction are shown as thin lines with small white markers.
- b) The range of $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Kr}$ values applied as individual correction to the respective datasets to account for the Kr-bias on $\delta^{13}CH_4$. The color coding is the same as in a). Note that $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Kr}$ of both, Vostok and GISP II data measured at the PSU, were inferred indirectly from CH_4 mixing ratios, while for the two EDML records the correction is based on the Kr-induced anomaly derived from the ioncurrent ratios (see section 1.3 for a detailed description of both approaches).

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Figure S2 | Linear scaling of the size of interference on carbon isotope measurements caused by Kr ($\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Kr}$) relative to variations in CH₄ mixing ratios for the PSU instrument

Atmospheric krypton mixing ratios are considered constant over time¹³. The size of the interference (Kr effect or $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Kr}$) thus scales with CH₄ concentrations. Measurements of three ambient air samples were used to infer a linear relationship between $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Kr}$ and the inverted CH₄ mixing ratio for the PSU instrument, that is used to account for the Kr effect of ice core (Vostok, WDC05) and laboratory inter-calibration measurements (see section 1.3 for further details). Results for the IPY cylinder with a mixing ratio representative for glacial conditions ("glacial", 365 ppb) is shown as a light blue diamond, the one with "preindustrial" values (906 ppb) in orange, and the one for representative for modern concentrations ("present-day", 1852 ppb) in dark red, all illustrated with its corresponding 1 σ error range. The linear relationship in red allowed a first order estimate of

 $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Kr}$ for ice core samples measured at the PSU lab, based on interpolated CH₄ mixing ratios of the respective samples.

665 Figure S3 | Model results to quantify fractionation processes in the firn column due to atmospheric CH₄ concentration changes

a) Artificial atmospheric methane pulse at the model firn "surface" (grey line), and its corresponding concentration after the "bubble close-off" at the bottom of the firn column at three different accumulation rate and temperature regimens ("maximum" temperature: purple line;
670 "minimum" temperature: red line and "best guess" temperature: light blue line). b) Shifts of the carbon isotope signature of methane caused by the gravitational and diffusional fractionation in the firn column from the constant value at the "surface" (gray dashed line) to the signals enclosed in the model "bubbles" (colored lines) at the firn bottom, according to their respective scenario (color coding similar to a))

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Figure S4 | Representation of major Dansgaard-Oeschger methane rises during the last glacial period, and the respective imprint on its carbon isotope signature

a) Six strong methane rises (color coding in the figure legends) coeval to major Dansgaard/Oeschger (DO) events (left and middle figure column) and the two ultimate terminations

680 (right column) in a 6,000 year time window aligned and centered around the major methane rise (illustrated by the vertical gray line). All CH₄ data from the EDML ice core³⁰ b) Corresponding time windows of the respective δ^{13} CH₄ data sections from Vostok and EDML (this study, color coding and alignment according to a)). The shaded bar represents the time window, in which data points might be biased by diffusional fractionation beyond our measurement uncertainty.

685 *Tables*

Supplementary Table 1 | Comparison of δ¹³CH₄ results for the measurements of air samples performed at the AWI and PSU laboratories, that were part of the "2007 - IPY International Ice Core Gas Intercalibration Exercise".

Ambient air was diluted to resemble atmospheric methane mixing ratios typical for present day

- 690 (1852 ppb), pre-industrial (906 ppb) and glacial (365 ppb) conditions. δ^{13} CH₄ values are reported with respect to VPDB. The first two columns report original measurements, the following two columns the respective values after the correction for Kr interference. Deviations in the carbon isotopic signature caused by the ionized Kr ($\Delta \delta^{13}$ C_{Kr}) and its dependency on CH₄ levels are summarized in the final column. The results are further used to infer the absolute standardization 695 offset between both laboratories.
 - $\Delta \delta^{13} C_{\kappa r}$ $\delta^{13}CH$ $\delta^{13}CH$ 1σ 1σ Sample ID | epoch (‰) (‰) (‰) (‰) (‰) Original Corrected for Kr AWI analyses (5/2010) CA03560 | present day 0.05 -47.33 0.06 0.19 -47.14CC71560 | preindustrial -47.07 0.09 -47.40 0.12 0.33 CA01179 |glacial -46.25 0.11 -46.97 0.13 0.72 PSU analyses (7/2007) CA03560 | present day -47.08 0.16 -47.20 0.16 0.12 CC71560 | preindustrial -47.15 0.10 -47.41 0.10 0.26 CA01179 |glacial -46.86 0.06 -47.52 0.06 0.66 Difference (AWI - PSU) CA03560 | present day -0.06 -0.13 CC71560 | preindustrial 0.08 0.01 CA01179 | glacial 0.61 0.55 Avg. lab offset 0.14 0.21 St.dev. (1σ) 0.35 0.36

Supplementary Table 2 | δ^{13} CH₄ values of WDC05 A ice core material measured with the

AWI and PSU instruments to further test the alignment of both systems.

700 No adjustments have been applied to correct for gravitational settling. Values denoted as "original"

are inferred according to the standard routines in the respective laboratories, before the correction for Krypton interference. Acquisitions with the AWI instrument were treated similar to EDML ice and IPY air samples correcting the chromatograms for the Kr interference, PSU measurements using the CH₄ dependent $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Kr}$ to account for Kr. WDC05A [CH₄] values and approximate age of the samples (black diamond) were interpolated from data of Mitchell et al.,2011⁸¹. Note, that the

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the samples (black diamond) were interpolated from data of Mitchell et al.,2011⁸¹. Note, that the two PSU measurements (marked by asterisks) are not from the same depth as the AWI sample, but δ^{13} CH₄ variability (1 σ) is less than 0.3 ‰ over the depth interval 161.5 m (1593 AD) to 173.4 m (1540 AD) and thus in the the order of our analytical uncertainty⁸².

Sample ID	Lab	Depth (m)	Age⁴ (AD)	δ ¹³ CH ₄ (‰)	1σ (‰)	δ ¹³ C H ₄ (‰)	1σ (‰)	Δδ¹³C _{κr} (‰)	n
				Origiı	Original		Corrected for Kr		
WDC05A*	PSU	164.96	1571	-47.94	-	-48.28	-	0.34	-
WDC05A	AWI	166.78	1564	-47.53	0.03	-47.81	0.04	0.28	2
WDC05A*	PSU	169.80	1551	-47.53	-	-47.87	-	0.34	-

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Supplementary Table 3 | Manual CH₄ tie-points used for the adjustment of the misaligned Vostok section in between 129-84 kyr BP²⁸.

The synchronization was performed with EDC²⁶ and Vostok⁸³ atmospheric methane records. The EDC3 ages of the five listed Vostok sample depths were adjusted according to the corresponding EDC tie points. All Vostok records presented in this study are dated according to this adjustments.

tie-point	EDC depth (m)	EDC3 age (years BP)	EDC CH₄ (ppb)	Vostok depth (m)	Vostok CH₄ (ppb)
1	1241.67	83627	500.7	1266.83	500.1
2	1367.89	95866	470.2	1440.34	470.0
3	1473.40	106781	510.1	1536.00	510.8
4	1543.59	115081	480.2	1635.97	480.4
5	1723.46	128871	559.9	1881.99	560.1

Supplementary Table 4 | Methane synchronization tie-points used for dating the Byrd ice core

records shown in this work. The age conversion to the "Unified" age scale²³ is based on

720 EDML ³⁰ a	and Byrd ²⁹	atmospheric methane records.
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tie-point	EDML depth	"Unified" age	EDML CH₄	Byrd depth	Byrd CH₄
	(m)	(years BP)	(ppb)	(m)	(ppb)
1	717.02	11599	609.35	1071.76	574.28
2	829.64	14543	529.66	1195.84	543.30
3	1070.95	23231	383.60	1446.29	361.95
4	1154.20	27748	392.50	1498.37	392.42
5	1173.61	28810	419.31	1526.10	417.05
6	1233.17	32339	435.59	1595.76	443.86
7	1260.48	33728	456.60	1617.35	417.67
8	1286.47	35417	467.63	1654.37	449.47
9	1337.80	38258	488.11	1716.45	490.03
10	1365.07	39433	423.15	1744.35	415.49
11	1403.97	41378	443.35	1780.49	422.27
12	1436.97	43074	452.35	1806.94	441.63
13	1489.88	46719	469.20	1863.57	461.97
14	1601.65	53264	491.10	1960.44	488.11
15	1627.36	54732	493.91	1973.59	491.04
16	1666.48	57333	532.10	2000.30	523.93
17	1680.64	58176	538.28	2011.48	533.62
18	1688.09	58586	497.84	2017.44	463.90
19	1760.37	63448	468.08	2062.90	476.49
20	1860.22	71706	470.32	2082.65	460.38
21	1914.24	75872	460.21	2100.52	455.18
22	1949.26	78706	480.43	2111.69	494.55
23	2023.03	85207	550.63	2133.58	546.72
24	2065.88	89241	493.35	2139.75	489.08