Frozen ponds: production and storage of methane during the Arctic winter in a lowland tundra landscape in northern Siberia, Lena River Delta

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Abstract. Lakes and ponds play a key role in the carbon cycle of permafrost ecosystems, where they are considered to a be hotspots of carbon dioxide CO_2 and methane CH_4 emission. The strength of these emissions is, however, controlled

- ⁵ by a variety of physical and biogeochemical processes whose responses to a warming climate are complex and only poorly understood. Small waterbodies have been attracting an in- ³⁵ creasing amount of attention since recent studies demonstrated that ponds can make a significant contribution to the
- CO_2 and CH_4 emissions of tundra ecosystems. Waterbodies also have a marked effect on the thermal state of the surrounding permafrost; during the freezing period they prolong the period of time during which thawed soil material is available for microbial decomposition.
- This study presents net CH_4 production rates during the freezing period from ponds within a typical lowland tundra landscape in northern Siberia. Rate estimations were based on CH_4 concentrations measured in surface lake ice from a variety of waterbody types. Vertical profiles along ice blocks
- showed an exponential increase in CH₄ concentration with ⁴⁵ depth. These CH₄ profiles were reproduced by a 1D mass balance model and the net CH₄ production rates were then inferred through inverse modeling.

Results revealed marked differences in early winter net CH_4 production among various ponds. Ponds situated within in- ⁵⁰

tact polygonal ground structures yielded low net production rates, of the order of 10^{-11} to 10^{-10} molm⁻²s⁻¹ (0.01 to 0.14 mg_{CH₄} m⁻²d⁻¹). In contrast, ponds exhibiting clear signs of erosion yielded net CH_4 production rates of the order of $10^{-7} \text{mol}\,\text{m}^{-2}\,\text{s}^{-1}$ ($140\,\text{mg}_{CH_4}\,\text{m}^{-2}\,\text{d}^{-1}$). The early winter net CH_4 production rate per square meter of ponds with signs of erosion exceeded the per square meter emission rate of the average tundra landscape which was measured at the study site during summer. Our results therefore indicate that, once a particular threshold in thermal erosion has been crossed, ponds can develop into major CH_4 sources. This implies that any future warming of the climate may result in non-linear CH_4 emission behavior in tundra ecosystems.

1 Introduction

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Up to 28% of the land surface in permafrost landscapes has been attributed to lakes and ponds (Emmerton et al., 2007; Grosse et al., 2008; Muster et al., 2013). Several studies have emphasized that waterbodies are fundamental elements in Arctic ecosystems and exert a strong control on the Arctic heat, water, and carbon cycle (Cole et al., 2007; McGuire et al., 2009). This is especially true in permafrost landscapes, where large quantities of carbon are trapped in the frozen soils that can surround waterbodies (e.g. Hugelius et al., 2013). Any future mobilization and emission of 22 is old carbon pool is likely to result in a positive feedback to global warming (O'Connor et al., 2010; Koven et al., 2011).

Lakes are considered to play a key role in the turnover and emission of the carbon in these permafrost reservoirs 3.

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- Many of the studies to date have focused on the greenhouse ¹¹⁰ gas emission potential of large lakes such as thermokarst lakes (Zimov et al., 1997; Walter et al., 2006; Brosius et al., 2012). However, recent studies have demonstrated that not only large Arctic lakes, but also the smaller Arctic ponds, are
- ⁶⁰ hotspots of CO_2 and CH_4 emission (Abnizova et al., 2012b; ¹¹⁵ Laurion et al., 2010). In lowland tundra landscapes such as the Lena River Delta, more than 30% of the total inland water surface can be attributed to waterbodies with surface areas less than 1 km^2 (Muster et al., 2012). Most of the studies to
- date addressing greenhouse gas emissions from Arctic ponds 120 have focused on the summer months, but a considerable carbon turnover is also possible in waterbodies during the freezing period, until the bottom sediments are completely frozen (Karlsson et al., 2013). During winter the closed ice cover in-
- ⁷⁰ hibits the diffusion of oxygen into the water which strongly ¹²⁵ limits the oxidation of CH_4 in the water column. Several studies have demonstrated that large quantities of CH_4 are produced during the long-lasting winter period and stored in the form of bubbles within the ice cover (Walter Anthony
- et al., 2010; Wik et al., 2011; Boereboom et al., 2012; Walter Anthony and Anthony, 2013).
 Bubbles trapped in lake ice, resulting from a number of dif-130 ferent processes, include ebullition bubbles, bubbles from freeze-degassing of dissolved gases, and photosynthesis bub-
- ⁸⁰ bles. These can usually be distinguished from each other on the basis of their size, morphology, and gas content (Boereboom et al., 2012; Walter Anthony and Anthony, 2013). This study focuses on CH_4 which is stored in the **10m** of bubbles ¹³⁵ from freeze-degassing which are continuously formed at the
- advancing freezing front and occur in closely spaced layers in the ice cover (Lipp et al., 1987). Due to freeze-degassing dissolved gases enrich in a very thin water layer directly at the freezing front. The saturation of dissolved gases in this 140 thin water layer leads to bubble nucleation. The gas concen-
- tration in the growing bubbles is in equilibrium with the dissolved gases of the surrounding water (Wei et al., 2003). As soon as the bubbles are completely entrapped within the ice cover they are sealed from further gaseous exchange so that 145 an enrichment of dissolved gases and bubble nucleation at the
- ⁹⁵ freezing front starts again. This results in continuous formation of freeze-out bubble layers which preserve to a certain degree information about the concentration of the dissolved gases in the water column during the time of freezing (Lipp 150 et al., 1987; Craig et al., 1992; Killawee et al., 1998). The
- frequency of bubble layer formation, bubble size, and bubble shape are largely dependent on the rate of freezing (Carte, 1961; Yoshimura et al., 2008). However, a dide range of sizes of freeze-out bubbles are reported at natural freezing 155 rates of the order of millimeters per day (Lipp et al., 1987; Yoshimura et al., 2008).
- The storage of CH_4 within the ice cover of shallow Alaskan lakes through freeze-degassing has been investigated by Phelps et al. (1998). Shey found that CH_4 concentrations 160 were very low in the upper part of the ice cover, but increased

rapidly with depth. They also found that the CH_4 stored in the ice cover was largely released into the atmosphere during spring melt, and that the amount of CH_4 emitted in spring equated to half of the total annual CH_4 emissions from the lake. These results served to further stress the importance of the freezing period to the carbon cycle of tundra-lake ecosystems.

In this study we present profiles derived from measurements of CH_4 concentrations in the ice cover of nine typical Arctic ponds and lakes in the Lena River Delta of north-eastern Siberia. An extensive survey of pond areas and depths has provided insights into the development stages of the various waterbodies within the area of investigation. Temperature profiles were derived from measurements in three different ponds and used to investigate their freezing behavior. A 1D mass balance model was developed to reconstruct the storage of CH_4 within the ice cover and the CH_4 concentration profiles (derived from CH_4 concentration measurements in the ice cover) were used to infer net CH_4 production rates during the freezing period by inverse modeling.

2 Study area

The study area is located in the Lena River Delta of northeastern Siberia, within the zone of continuous permafrost (Fig. 1). The region is characterized by an Arctic continental climate with a mean annual air temperature of about -14° C. Winter temperatures frequently fall below -45° C while summer temperatures can exceed 25° C (Langer et al., 2011a; Boike et al., 2013). The cold climate results in very cold permafrost temperatures: an annual average temperature of about -9° C has been recorded at a depth of 27 m (Boike et al., 2013). Permafrost in the Lena River Delta region is reported to extend to depths of several hundred meters (Grigoriev, 1960). The study area is located on Samoylov Island in the central part of the Lena River Delta (72° 22', N, 126° 28'E), an area characterized by the typical micro-relief of polygonal patterned ground formed by frost cracking and subsequent ice-wedge formation (Lachenbruch, 1962)²The polygonal structures usually consist of depressed, watersaturated centers surrounded by elevated rims. These polygonal structures are present in different stages of degradation. Ponding water is often found in the depressed polygon centers (intra-polygonal ponds) or along the troughs between the polygon rims above the ice-wedges (ice-wedge ponds) (Fig. 2 a, b) (Wetterich et al., 2008; Helbig et al., 2013; Negandhi et al., 2013). Both intra-polygonal ponds and icewedge ponds are usually very shallow, with water depths ranging from just a few centimeters to a few tens of centimeters. Such ponds often feature emergent vegetation, consisting mainly of hydrophilic species such as Carex aquatilis and Limprichtia revolvens (Kutzbach et al., 2007). The rims surrounding intra-polygonal ponds are mostly intact with little or no sign of degradation. However, degradation of the polyg-

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onal structures can result in ponds merging to form larger ponds that often consist of several polygons, typically showing clear signs of degradation (Fig. 2 c) (Helbig et al., 2013). They feature open water surfaces and lack emergent vege-

tation in their centers. The study area is also characterized by thermokarst (thaw) lakes, which are a result of advanced permafrost degradation associated with further thermal erosion processes (Morgenstern et al., 2013). About 50% of the free water surface on Samoylov Island is attributed to ponds,

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with the remaining 50% attributed to lakes, including both thermokarst lakes and oxbow lakes (Muster et al., 2012).

3 Methods and materials

Pond survey and classification 3.1

- The distribution and sizes of waterbodies within the study 175 area were mapped using ortho-rectified, visual and nearinfrared aerial images. The study area (SA) lies on the first terrace of Samoylov Island and covers a typical wet lowland tundra landscape; it has a surface area of about $1.5 \,\mathrm{km}^2$
- (Fig. 1). We used the supervised surface water classification from Muster et al. (2012) to extract a size distribution for the ponds and lakes within the area. Water depth measurements were also collected from two sub-areas (SUB I and SUB II), each of which had a surface area of about $30000 \,\mathrm{m}^2$
- (Fig. 1). The water depths were measured manually using a 185 depth sounder, or using a ruler where the water levels were very low.

In this study we mainly focused on small waterbodies (ponds) smaller than $10000 \,\mathrm{m}^2$. We were able to loosely dis-

- tinguish three types of ponds within the study area (Fig. 2). 190 On the basis of morphology we distinguish between ice-215 wedge ponds (Fig. 2 a), intra-polygonal ponds (Fig. 2 a), and merged ponds (Fig. 2 c). These ponds are further grouped into initial state ponds (ISPs) and advanced state ponds
- (ASPs) according to the degrees of degradation of the polyg-195 onal ground structures within which the ponds occur. ISPs are defined as ponds that occur within almost intact polygonal structures; they include both ice-wedge ponds located 220 between polygon rims (Fig. 2a) and intra-polygonal ponds
- located in polygon centers (Fig. 2b). ISPs are shallow with 200 water depths of less than 0.5 m. Their horizontal extent typically ranges from a few meters up to about 10 m, which is a typical diameter for the polygonal structures. Due to ini-225 tial degradation ISPs can be hydrologically interconnected
- with other ISPs or with larger waterbodies, but the individ-205 ual polygon shape is still preserved. In contrast, ASPs show clear signs of degradation in the surrounding polygonal tundra (Fig. 2c). The center of an ASP is much deeper due to 230 thaw settlement in the underlying bottom sediments, so that
- ASPs usually have water depths greater than 0.5 m. ASPs 210 typically range in diameter from about 10 to 50 m. Waterbodies that reach depths greater than 2m are likely to remain

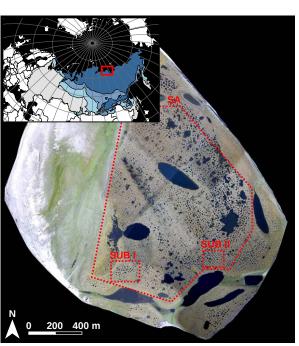
200 400 m Fig. 1. Location of the study area in northern Siberia within the

zone of continuous permafrost (a) (map after: Brown et al., 1997), and ortho-rectified aerial image of Samoylov Island (b). The main study area (SA) and the two sub-areas (SUB I, SUB II) used for the pond and lake mapping and for sampling are outlined in red.

unfrozen at the bottom throughout the winter, and a continuously unfrozen layer (talik) then develops in the sediments. Luch waterbodies are classified as thermokarst lakes; the horizontal extent of such lakes ranges from about 50 m to several hundreds of meters. Transitional forms between the three waterbody types are also common.

3.2 Monitoring ice cover formation

The process of ice cover formation was observed through three temperature profiles obtained from three different ponds. The temperatures were recorded using 20BO water temperature loggers (with an accuracy of $\pm 0.5^{\circ}$ C) positioned along a metal wire hanging down from a small buoy anchored in the middle of each pond. The first temperature profile was from an intra-polygonal pond, based on measurements from four temperature sensors. The first three temperature sensors were installed at depths of 0m, 0.15m, and 0.33m. The lowermost sensor was fixed directly on the ground a depth of 0.4 m. The pond was transitional between ISPs and ASPs in its level of degradation. Temperature profiles were also obtained for two typical ASPs, in each case using six temperature sensors over a depth of about 0.8 m. In ASP1 the temperature sensors were deployed at depths of



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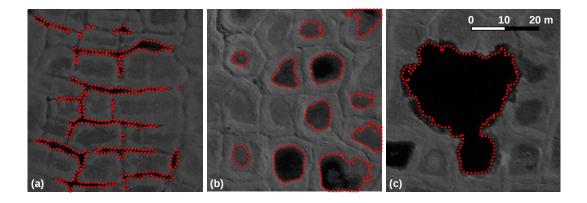


Fig. 2. Typical ponds in the polygonal tundra mapped from near infrared (NIR) areal images. At the study site occur (a) ice-wedge ponds, (b) intra-polygonal ponds within intact polygonal structures, and (c) merged ponds show clear signs of degradation of the polygonal structures. According to their degree of degradation intra-polygonal ponds and ice-wedge ponds are classified as initial state ponds (ISPs) and merged ponds as advanced state ponds (ASPs).

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0 m, 0.20 m, 0.35 m, 0.53 m, 0.67 m, and 0.76 m. In ASP2 the sensors were Lounted at depths of 0 m, 0.20 m, 0.33 m, 0.50 m, 0.71 m, and 0.75 m. With exception of the lowermost 270 sensors which were fixed to the ground, all sensors were hold in place relative to the water surface 2 h the floating metal
wire.

The ice cover thickness in each pond was inferred using the temperature records from the individual sensors. The date on 275 which the freezing front crossed the temperature sensor was identified by a sudden drop in temperature after a relatively

long period at a constant temperature of 0° C.

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3.3 Sampling methane concentrations in lake ice

Thirteen CH_4 concentration profiles were obtained from ice blocks cut from eight waterbodies using a chainsaw (STIHL, Germany) with a 40 cm guide bar during a field program in April 2011. Three waterbodies were ponds with maximum₂₈₅

- water depths of less than 0.5 m. The morphology of these ponds still placed them within the ISP category, despite some early signs of degradation. In the following, these ponds are named ISP1, ISP2, and ISP3. Four waterbodies had maxi-
- mum depths greater than $0.5 \,\mathrm{m}$ (up to $1.2 \,\mathrm{m}$) and occurred within clearly degraded polygonal ground structures. The four ponds fell into the ASP category and are named ASP1 to ASP4 in the following. One of the sampled waterbodies fell into the category of a thermokarst lake with a maximum
- water depth of 5.3 m. Temperature chains were installed in 295 ISP1, ASP1, and ASP2 in order to observe ice cover growth (see Sect. 3.2). Despite the limited number of samples, the eight waterbodies provide a good cross section through the different types of ponds and lakes at the study site.
- The ice blocks were extracted by cutting ice columns to $_{300}$ a depth of about 35 cm, with surface dimensions of about 20 cm by 30 cm, from the ice cover. A second ice column

was then cut below the hole left by the first column in order to obtain ice profiles down to a maximum depth of about 70 cm. The ice columns were cut into smaller cuboids with a base area of about 7×7 cm and a height of 10 cm. The cuboids were cleaned with a sharp and sterilized knife prior to transportation and analysis.

The ice samples were melted in 11 plastic containers (Nalgene, USA), which were sealed with PTFE paste (Äronix, Germany). The impermeability of the containers to gas was verified by long-term testing using calibration gases prior to the analyses. The containers were flushed with nitrogen immediately after sealing in order to ensure zero CH₄ concentration in the head-space prior to melting. The head space volume in the containers varied between 0.3 and 0.61 according to differences in sample volume. Possible corruption of the CH₄ concentration measurements due to microbial activity during the melt procedure was tested using acidified (10% HCL) parallel samples, but these showed no significant differences in CH₄ concentration from the pure samples. Methane concentrations within the ice samples were determined by gas chromatography at the field station on Samoylov Island, using an Agilent GC 7890 gas chromatograph (Agilent Technologies, Germany) equipped with a Porapak Q column (1.8 m length, 2 mm ID) and a flame ionization detector (FID). Four repeat concentration measurements (five measurements in total) were performed in order to determine the measurement uncertainty.

The total CH_4 content in the ice samples was evaluated by taking into account the head space concentration, sample volume, temperature, and pressure. A correction was also made for dissolved CH_4 in the melt water using Henry's law. These procedures introduced a wide range of potential error sources into the CH_4 content measurements. Thus, the uncertainties in the total CH_4 content were determined by

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Monte-Carlo simulations assuming uniform uncertainty dis-355 tributions for all parameters including measurement uncertainty, head space volume, sample volume, ambient temperature, and pressure (e.g. Anderson, 1976).

3.4 Modeling methane concentrations in the ice cover of 360 ponds

The storage of methane in the ice cover of ponds was simulated using a simplified 1D mass balance scheme, in an approach that closely resembles that used by Boereboom et al. $_{305}$ (2012). The model was used to calculate net CH₄ production rates during the freezing process by fitting the model to the CH₄ concentration profiles obtained from the ice cover. The model simulated an ice cover growing downwards from

- the surface to the bottom of the pond, assuming a constant $_{370}$ accumulation of bubbles from freeze-degassing of dissolved gases at the ice-water interface (see Appendix A). Ebullition bubbles were not taken into account in the model. Despite their importance as an efficient mode of CH_4 emission from
- 320 lakes, ebullition bubbles have small diameters relative to the 375 lake surface area and they usually have a rare and heterogeneous distribution within a thermokarst pond, making them difficult to quantify from a limited number of small ice samples (Walter Anthony and Anthony, 2013). The heteroge-
- neous distribution of ebullition bubbles also means that they are impossible to simulate using a simplified 1D mass balance scheme. This limitation of the model means that the CH_4 storage, and hence the production of CH_4 in ponds, tends to be underestimated. The model results can there-
- fore be considered to be conservative when calculating net ³⁸⁵ CH₄ production rates. Since the size of bubbles from freeze-degassing depends largely on the rate of freezing (Carte, 1961), we assumed that the accumulation of freeze-out bubbles was adequately represented by a constant rate during periods of constant freezing (Yoshimura et al., 2008).
- The partial pressure of CH_4 in the bubbles was assumed to be always in equilibrium with the partial pressure of CH_4 in the water column, following Henry's law. We also assumed a $\frac{5}{10}$ hiform enrichment of methane in the water column be-390
- ³⁴⁰ neath the ice cover. The CH_4 enrichment (net CH_4 production) is controlled by CH_4 production and oxidation. cause of the very stable temperature conditions in shallow sediments during the freezing period from October through February we assumed constant CH_4 production and oxida-³⁹⁵
- tion rates. The uniform distribution of dissolved CH₄ in the shrinking water column is considered a reasonable guess for the investigated very shallow waterbodies albeit concentration gradients are reported for deeper lakes. However, creased CH₄ enrichment at the bottom of the ponds would 400
- ³⁵⁰ lead to underestimated net CH_4 production in the model calculations. As well as the stable temperature conditions, the model also assumed constant pressure conditions during the freezing process. Nevertheless, ar pressure changes are an important factor for bubble formation in lakes and can re-⁴⁰⁵

sult in layers of dense bubbles in the ice cover. Thus, the obtained ice profiles were analyzed for occurrence of bubble layers that were related to air pressure changes before they were used for modeling. The storage of bubbles in the ice cover was simulated by integrating an effective bubble crosssection (calculated as average horizontal area occupied by bubbles) and CH₄ concentration over the current ice cover thickness. The bubble volume stored in the ice cover was assumed to be no longer in gaseous exchange with the unfrozen waterbody. When the maximum solubility of methane in the shrinking water column was reached the model assumed that the excess methane was stored directly in the ice cover. The storage of excess CH₄ resulted in a marked increase in the methane concentration within the ice cover. The mass balance scheme results in a first order ordinary differential equation, which can be solved analytically (see Appendix A). In general, the model outcome is determined by the net CH₄ production rate, the effective bubble crosssection, the ice cover growth rate, and the pond depth. The pond depth and the ice cover growth rate are measured and hence known for all sites, and the net CH₄ production rate and Effective bubble cross-section can be inferred by fitting the model to measured CH₄ concentration profiles. Previous measurements within the study area have shown that the concentration of dissolved CH₄ in different ponds varies widely (between 2×10^{39} and 7×10^{-7} molm⁻³) prior to the onset of freezing (Abnizova et al., 2012a). The sensitivity of the fitting procedure was therefore tested over the entire range of initial CH4 concentrations. The model was fitted to the measured CH_4 profiles $\frac{4}{2}$ brm the ice samples using a non-linear fitting routine provided by MATLAB. This fitting procedure included evaluation of the 95% confidence intervals on the fitted parameters and the model output.

4 Results

4.1 Waterbody distribution and ice cover formation

Almost 15% of the study area (SA) consists of waterbodies, of which about 60% are less than $300\,\mathrm{m}^2$ in surface area (Fig. 3a). In the sub-areas SUB I and SUB II the pond surface areas range between 0 and $300 \,\mathrm{m}^2$ and the maximum water depth ranges between 0 and 1.5m. About 10% of the tundra landscapes in SUB I and SUB II are occupied by ponds that are shallower than 0.2m. Most of these shallow ponds fall into the ISP class, with little or no sign of degradation in the surrounding polygon rims. Ponds with water depths of 0.5 to 0.6 m and 0.8 to 1.0 m were found to be slightly more abundant than ponds with water depths of 0.2 to 0.4 m and 1.0 to 1.3 m (Fig. 3b). Most of the ponds with a water depth greater than 0.5m belonged to the ASP class, which made up the largest proportion of ponds in the entire study area. Despite the wide range of water depths in the surveyed ponds the deeper ponds tended to be larger than the shallower

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ones which coincided with increased thaw depths beneath the deeper ponds. This tendency was especially pronounced for $_{460}$ ponds with depths greater than $0.5 \,\mathrm{m}$. In contrast, ISPs with water depths of less than $0.5 \,\mathrm{m}$ did not show any clear depth-

- size correlation. The size of the ISPs appeared to be mainly determined by the size of the polygonal structures.
 Ice cover growth (freezing) rates were investigated in three 465 different ponds during the winters of 2010-2011 and 2011-2012. The freezing rate detection was limited to the first part
- of winter since temperature profile measurements were only available to a maximum depth of about $0.8 \,\mathrm{m}$ (see Sect. 3.2). During the winter of 2010-2011 the average growth rate of $_{470}$ the ice cover was $0.91 \pm 0.11 \,\mathrm{cm} \,\mathrm{d}^{-1}$ (Fig. 4a). The three investigated ponds showed deviations from the linear average
- of up to 0.15 m, which were particularly evident from the beginning of October to the middle of November. The shallowest pond (ISP1) revealed the highest freezing rate and was completely frozen (to the bottom: a depth of about 0.4 m) by the beginning of November. The other ponds (ASP1 and 475
- ⁴²⁵ ASP2) achieved a similar ice cover thickness about three weeks later. In contrast to the winter of 2010-2011, all investigated ponds showed a very consistent rate of ice cover formation during the winter of 2011-2012 (Fig. 4b), when the average growth rate of the ice cover was 1.24 ± 0.12 cm d⁻¹ ₄₈₀
- ⁴³⁰ with only minor deviations from the linear average (up to about 0.05 m, which is well within the assumed measurement uncertainty). Despite the linear character of the freezing process, the measurements showed some temporal variations in the freezing rate. During both winter periods pond ISP1 485
- 435 showed a very linear freezing behavior but, in contrast, the deeper ponds showed a lower rate of freezing at the beginning of the freezing period, a slightly increased rate in the middle of the period, and a lower rate again when the ice cover approached the bottom of the ponds.

440 4.2 Distribution of gas bubbles within the ice cover

Most of the ice columns were very clear with only a few visible bubbles. After a short warm event during the field cam-495 paign a very thin layer of white ice 2 - 3 cm was observed above black ice at some locations. This white ice layer was excluded from further analysis. The ice columns from the ISP1 and ISP2 ponds 4 howed a layer of abundant bubbles close to the bottom of the ponds, starting from a depth of 500 about 15 cm. Moss stems in the sediments on the floor of these two ponds were usually completely surrounded by bubbles. The diameter of these bubbles ranged from about 1 mm to 5 mm. Two or three thin layers of bubbles were 5 and 15 cm. 505 Three very thin layers of bubbles were 6 observed at sim-

ilar depths (between 5 and 15 cm) in the ice columns from
pond ISP3. The consistent occurrence of these thin bubble
layers in similar depths and different ponds indicates a formation related to air pressure changes. The three ISPs fea-510
ture similar water depths of 30 to 45 cm and we expect simi-

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lar freezing rates. However, the sizes of these bubbles layers were assessed to be negligible compared to the ice sample sizes. The ice columns from the relatively deep ponds (ASP1, ASP2, and ASP3), which had depths greater than 0.5 m, did not reach the bottom of the ponds and hence the presence or absence of a layer of abundant bubbles close to the bottom of the ponds (as seen in the shallow ISP1 and ISP2 ponds) could not be verified. The ice columns from pond ASP3 revealed a narrow bubble layer at about 15 cm depth similar to that seen in the shallow ponds, but those from ponds ASP1 and ASP2 showed no visible bubbles between the surface and a depth of 35 cm. However, all ice columns from the deep ponds were consistent in showing two to three thin bubble layers between depths of 35 and 40 cm.

4.3 Methane concentrations in lake and pond ice

The CH₄ concentrations obtained from all ice samples are shown in Figure 5, where they are plotted semilogarithmically against the ratio of sample depth to maximum water depth. The whiskers following the orientation of the depth axis indicate the sample size while the whiskers following the orientation of the concentration axis indicate uncertainties in the measured CH₄ concentrations according to the Monte-Carlo simulations (see Sect. 3.3). In addition, the samples are color coded according to the surface area of the lake or pond from which they were obtained. The CH₄ concentration within the ice cover showed considerable variation, ranging from the detection limit of the gas analyzer up to $0.08 \,\mathrm{mol}\,\mathrm{m}^{-3}$. The detection limit of the used GC setup was at about 1 ppm which would equate to 1 detection limit of about 5×10^{-5} mol m⁻³ 2 busidering sample size and head space volume. On average about $2 \times 10^{-3} \,\mathrm{mol}\,\mathrm{m}^{-3}$ $(0.03 g_{CH_4} m^{-3})$ was stored in the ice cover between the surface and a depth of 0.65 m. However, these concentrations varied over two orders of magnitude indicating marked differences between the different waterbody types. The CH_4 concentration was generally observed to increase with depth. The highest CH₄ concentrations were recorded from waterbodies with surface areas of less than 50 m² and in ice samples from close to the bottom of waterbodies. The results suggest an exponential relationship between CH₄ concentration and ice cover thickness; the measured concentrations generally followed an exponential trend, with the exception of four outliers. A detailed analysis of individual CH₄ profiles confirmed the exponential increase in CH₄ concentrations with depth and the marked differences between waterbodies (see Fig. 6). An exponential increase in CH₄ concentration was recorded for all ponds in which the acquired ice columns reached close (about 30 cm) to the bottom of the waterbody. The lowest CH4 concentrations were recorded in the ice columns from large thermokarst lakes. In these lakes only the uppermost part of the ice cover was sampled relative to the maximum lake depths. However, Zour outliers occurred with high concentrations of up to $0.08 \,\mathrm{mol}\,\mathrm{m}^{-3}$. Three

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			ovided from a headspace of a container/vial/bottle. Why considering here the sample size and
			concentrations but this is unclear to readers.
			ontained in the bubbles + melted ice became in equilibrium with the nitrogen headspace, and
	air is requested to col adspace is about half	0 1	nt and calculate the original concentration in the ice bubbles knowing the water volume. You
	arified (but kept simple		
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is this the thickness	of the layer or the pos	sition of the layer from to	p?
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T Nombre : 6	Auteur : ilaurion	Sujet : Texte souligné	Date : 2014-11-17 16:57:57

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 I am seeing only 2 data points that are above in Fig. 5 (top left) one from a large and one from a small waterbody; are these what you are refering to?? I am not sure to understand this sentence. This needs to be clarified.

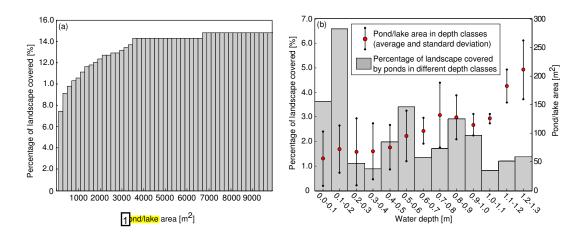


Fig. 3. Cumulative percentage of landscape covered by ponds in different size classes (a). Percentage of landscape covered by ponds in different depth classes (b). The secondary y-axis in (b) shows the average surface area for each depth class. The whiskers indicate the standard deviation for each depth class.

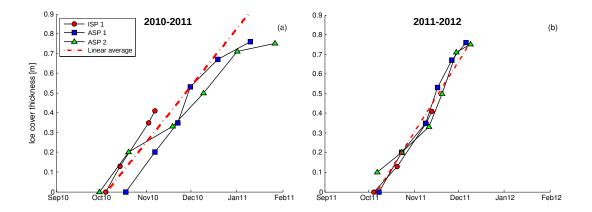


Fig. 4. Growth of ice cover inferred from water temperature measurements in three different ponds during (a) the winter of 2010-2011, and (b) the winter of 2011-2012.

of four outliers were observed at thermokarst lakes with surface areas larger than $10^4\,{\rm m}^2.$

4.4 Modeling methane storage in the ice cover

The maximum CH₄ concentrations measured in the ISP1, ISP3, and ASP3 samples were about one order of magnitude higher than those from ISP2, 2sP3, ASP1, ASP2, and ASP3. The ice samples were typically 5 to 10 cm high which placed a limit on the depth resolution, but this was improved to ⁵³⁵ some extent by overlap between samples. The uncertainty in the CH₄ concentration from each sample was relatively low although some differences were observed between overlapping samples, especially in those from the ASP1 and ASP2 ponds. Despite these uncertainties and the limited depth reso-⁵⁴⁰

⁵²⁵ lution all ponds consistently revealed an exponential increase

in CH_4 concentration with depth (Fig. 6). The ASP3 profile in particular showed a very sharp increase in concentration in the deepest sample. The increase in CH_4 concentrations in the ISP1 and ISP2 coincided with increased bubble densities, but no general relationship was observed between bubble density and CH_4 concentration in the ISP3, ASP1, ASP2, and ASP3 ponds.

The derived CH_4 concentration profiles for six of the ponds were analyzed and the mass balance model fitted to these profiles in order to estimate net CH_4 production rates (see. Sect. 3.4). From this fitting procedure the effective bubble cross-sections and net CH_4 production rates were obtained for all the analyzed ponds, and also for an additional ASP (ASP4). The model was able to reproduce the observed CH_4 concentration profiles for all of the ponds. The best fit results and the 95% confidence intervals of the fitting procedure are

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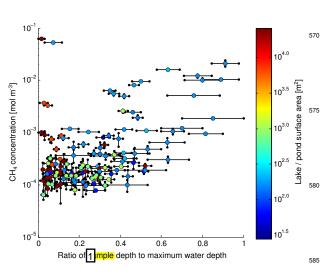


Fig. 5. Methane concentrations within the ice cover of different lakes and ponds, plotted against the ratio of sample depth to maximum water depth (note the logarithmic scale). The circles representing individual samples are colored according to the surface area ⁵⁹⁰ of the lake or pond from which they came.

shown in Figure 6. Most of the differences between the best fit and the actual measurements fall within the 95% confidence interval of the model output, taking into account the

- ⁵⁴⁵ depth resolution and the uncertainties in the measured CH₄ concentrations. The model also successfully reproduced the sharp increase in CH₄ concentration noted in the ASP3 profile. In this particular case the model simulated the storage of excess CH₄ in the ice cover, since the maximum solubil-⁵⁵⁰ ity of CH₄ in water (about $2.5 \,\mathrm{mol}\,\mathrm{m}^{-3}$ at about 0° C and ₆₀₀
- 1000 hPa) was reached in the shrinking water column. The inferred net CH₄ production rates resulting from the fitting procedure revealed marked variations in net CH₄ production between the different waterbodies (Fig. 7). The net
- ⁵⁵⁵ production rates ranged from 10^{-11} to 10^{-7} mol m⁻² s⁻¹ (0.01 to $140 \text{ mg}_{\text{CH}_4} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) and the effective bubble crosssections ranged from 10^{-4} m to 10^{-2} m. The net CH₄ production rate was generally higher in profiles with smaller effective bubble cross-sections. The highest net CH₄ produc-
- tion rates were calculated for the ASP1, ASP2, ASP3, and ASP4 which had maximum water depths greater than $0.5 \,\mathrm{m}$ and showed clear signs of recent permafrost degradation. In contrast, lower net CH_4 production rates but larger bubble cross-sections were calculated for the ISP1, ISP2, and ISP3.

565 5 Discussion

5.1 Characteristics and sensitivities of Arctic ponds

The survey of ponds and lakes within the study area clearly 620 showed an abundance of ponds in the lowland tundra land-

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scape of the Lena River Delta. Almost 10% of the total land surface was occupied by waterbodies with surface areas of less than 300 m^2 , most of which were no deeper than 1 m. The abundance of small waterbodies in the Arctic has been noted in a number of previous studies (Emmerton et al., 2007; Grosse et al., 2008).

Furthermore, this study has demonstrated that the freezing rates of ponds can vary greatly from one pond to another, and from one year to another. Ice thicknesses measurements from two consecutive years revealed a difference in ice cover thickness of about 40%. Detailed investigations of the surface energy balance within the study area have suggested that marked interannual differences in the freezing rate can be largely attributed to differences in the snow cover and the wintertime cloud cover (Langer et al., 2011b).

The survey of waterbodies also revealed that a large fraction of ponds are no deeper than 20 cm. These shallow ponds occur mainly in low-centered polygons with little or no signs of degradation. The occurrence and size of such ponds is assumed to be directly related to the polygonal microtopography, which also explains why no relationship could be observed between pond size and water depth. There is a clear contrast with the frequency of ponds deeper than 0.5 m. These ponds show a more uniform depth distribution with a slight maximum between 0.5 and 1 m. A depth-size relationship was observed for these deeper ponds. The existence of such a relationship suggests a link between the erosive processes leading to the deepening of the pond and the size of the waterbody. However, the poorly defined depth-size relationships indicates a rather complex interrelationship.

5.2 CH₄ concentrations and net production rates

All of the CH₄ profiles derived from ice samples indicate an exponential increase in CH_4 concentration 2 ith depth, which is in agreement with previous observations by Phelps et al. (1998) from various Alaskan and Canadian lakes. The consistency between these two studies suggests that both freezedegassing of CH_4 and CH_4 storage within the ice cover $3e^{-1}$ erally involve the same processes. Some individual concentrations have been observed to deviate from the general exponential behavior. These outliers may be explained by the admixture of ebullition bubbles, which are not explicitly accounted for in this study. However, the exponential relationship between ice depth and CH₄ concentration can be reproduced by a simplified mass balance model, assuming constant net CH₄ production and bubble accumulation. The exponential shape results from the dynamic balance between net CH₄ production, freeze-degassing, and storage of CH₄ within the ice cover. The mass balance model was successfully fitted to the measured CH₄ concentrations by optimizing the net CH_4 production rate and the effective bubble size. A high level of confidence was achieved in all profiles. Furthermore, the model was able to realistically reproduce the sharp increase in CH₄ concentration observed in one of the

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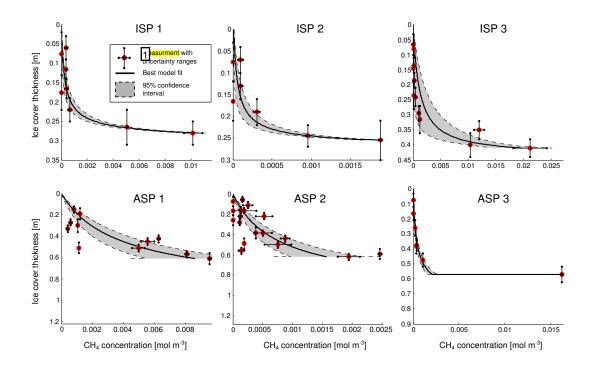


Fig. 6. 2 leasured and modeled CH₄ concentrations in the ice cover of different ponds. The whiskers show the measurement uncertainty and the shaded areas indicate the 95% confidence interval of the model. 3 he range of depth axis represents the maximum pond depth.

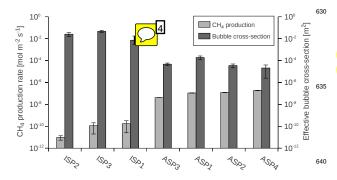


Fig. 7. Net methane production and effective bubble cross-section for different ponds, calculated by inverse modeling using the 1D mass balance model (note the logarithmic scale). The whiskers indicate the 95% confidence interval of the model results.

profiles. This indicated that the model was able to accurately represent the timing of CH_4 saturation in the shrinking wa-650 ter column during freezing. The overall high level of performance of the model for the different profiles suggests that the basic process of CH_4 freeze-degassing and storage in the ice cover is adequately represented. In addition, sensitivity tests revealed that the fit was very robust against variations 655 in the initial values of net CH_4 production and effective bub-

ble size. This inspires confidence that the magnitudes of the fitted net CH₄ production and bubble accumulation rates are realistic. The results were also found to be robust against uncertainties in the initial CH₄ concentration within the water column, prior to the onset of freezing. Nevertheless, unpredictable errors due to gas loss from the edges of the samples or methane oxidation within the ice could negatively bias the measured concentration rates, and consequently the resulting net CH₄ production rates. Oversimplified model assumptions, such as uniformly distributed CH₄ concentrations and a constant rate of bubble accumulation, could also affect the simulated net CH₄ production rates. The model results must therefore be considered to represent first order estimates. The results of the fitting procedure generally suggest marked differences in the net CH₄ production from different pond types. Initial state ponds (water depth $< 0.5 \,\mathrm{m}$) show very low net production rates, of the order of 10^{-11} and $10^{-10} \,\mathrm{mol}\,\mathrm{m}^{-2} \,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$ (0.01 to $0.14 \,\mathrm{mg}_{\mathrm{CH}_4} \,\mathrm{m}^{-2} \,\mathrm{d}^{-1}$). In contrast, advanced state ponds (depth > 0.5 m) with clear signs of thermal erosion show net CH₄ production rates of the order of $10^{-7} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (140 mg_{CH4} m⁻² d⁻¹). Similar ranges of CH₄ emission rates have previously been reported in summer from ponds in a similar type of landscape on Bylot Island, Canada (Laurion et al., 2010). The net CH_4 production rates from the ponds at our study area were of a similar magnitude to observed summertime CH₄ emission rates (excluding ebullition) from ice-wedge ponds on Bylot

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Measurement			
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		•	d not measure CH4 as the ice thickness was "growing" but you took CH4
	n different depths in th		
When we report dat	ta on a water column,	we say water depth, not water thicknes	s Anyway in the text you do use ice depth correctly.
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Does it mean ASP	ponds were 1.2 or 0.9	m deep but ice grew only to about 0.6	meter? or it means you did not sample ice lower than 0.6m below the ice
surface? It's possib	le that I would get the	answer by reading once more the ms b	out nevertheless it's always better that figure captions are self-explanatory.
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But I noted that value	ues provided at line 38	30 above is super low, if this is what you	are refering to = between 2 x 10-9 and 7 x 10-7 mol/m3 = between 2 x 10-6
and 7 x 10-4 µM! (r	eported as coming fro	m Abnizova et al. 2012, while in this ref	. values are = $0.07 - 249 \ \mu g/L = 0.0044$ to 15.6 μ M. There is confusion here.
How is this affecting	g your robustness test	s AND absolute values of net productio	n rates?
Nevertheless, wher	n I use 0.0025 mol/m3	as a maximal concentration in ice bubb	bles, and convert it to aqueous concentration (in water at 0.1degC, just above
freezing point), I ge	t 0.9 µM which makes	sense to my knowledge (I found 0.02 t	o 25μM at my field site on Bylot).
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Island. The ice-wedge ponds on Bylot Island mainly occur within collapsed polygonal structures and could by classified 710 (as ASPs) (Negandhi et al., 2013). Significantly lower CH₄ emission rates were reported from intra-polygonal ponds on Bylot Island, which may correspond to our ISP class. These results provide further evidence that the marked differences in net CH₄ production rates between the different pond types are likely to be due to fundamental differences in biogeo-⁷¹⁵

- ⁶⁶⁵ chemical processes resulting from active thermal erosion (Laurion et al., 2010; Rautio et al., 2011; Laurion and Mladenov, 2013). The differences in net CH_4 production may also be related to differences in the vegetation growing on the **Boor** of the ponds. The vegetation in ISPs within the study₇₂₀
- area often consists of the brown mosses *Scorpidium scorpioides* Liebner et al., 2011). These mosses live in symbiosis with Lietamorphic CH_4 -oxidizing bacteria that could effectively limit CH_4 emission (Liebner et al., 2011). Photosynthesis and oxygen production are still possible beneath the
- growing ice cover during early winter. Indicators of active 725 photosynthesis in ISPs during freezing is provided by the large number of bubbles observed around moss stems (Sect. 4.2). However, other processes such as CO₂ emission through moss respiration or preferential bubble nucleation
- at the moss stems could have contribute to the formation of these bubble clusters. The maximum summertime CH_4 emission rates per square meter from the average tundra landscape⁷³⁰ on Samoylov Island are of the order of $5 \times 10^{-8} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ($60 \text{ mg}_{CH_4} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) (Sachs et al., 2008; Wille et al., 2008).
- Z_{sing} this emission rate as a reference, the early winter net CH_4 production rates per square meter from ASPs are half an order of magnitude larger. This stresses the importance of ponds and the freezing period to the local carbon cycle. Even during the freezing period small waterbodies Z_{sust} therefore

⁶⁹⁰ be considered hotspots of CH₄ production in a tundra land-735 scape. It is, however, important to note that our results do not take into account CH₄ that is transported and stored in the ice cover through ebullition, and the total CH₄ production from ASPs is therefore likely to be much greater than our modeling suggests.

6 Conclusions

Our results show that ponds in the polygonal tundra can be important sources of CH₄ during the freezing period. Extensive measurements in the ice cover of different ponds have revealed that the CH₄ concentrations increase exponen-⁷⁴⁵ tially with depth, indicating intensive CH₄ production under the growing ice cover. The measured CH₄ concentration profiles were successfully reproduced by 1D mass balance model demonstrating that the exponential shape results from

the dynamic balance between net CH_4 production, freezedegassing, and storage of CH_4 within the ice cover. Furthermore, inverse modeling has revealed high net CH_4 production rates in ponds showing signs of erosion in the surround-

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ing polygonal ground structures, which contrasts with the low net production rates observed in ponds located within almost intact polygonal ground structures. These results have far ranging implications for the CH_4 emission potential of lowland tundra landscapes, since:

- The CH₄ that is produced during the freezing period is likely to be released into the atmosphere during the spring melt.
- Ponds are abundant in lowland tundra landscapes and their occurrence is closely related to the state of degradation of surface structures in permafrost landscapes. Hence, further degradation of surface structures due to thawing permafrost may affect the occurrence of ponds and thus the CH₄ emissions from tundra landscapes.
- The net production of CH₄ from ponds that show signs of erosion in the surrounding polygonal ground structures is observed to be two to three orders of magnitude greater than from ponds located within largely intact permafrost. Any future warming-induced erosion and pond expansion may therefore greatly increase the CH₄ emission potential of tundra landscapes.

Appendix A

The mass balance of methane in a freezing pond can be written as

$$N_{i} + N_{g} + N_{a} - N_{0} - N_{P} = 0,$$
 (A1)

where N_i is the amount of CH_4 molecules that are stored in the ice cover, N_g is the amount of methane stored in bubbles at the ice-water interface, N_a is the number of dissolved methane molecules in the water column, N_0 is the amount of dissolved methane that is stored in the water column at the start of freezing, and $N_{\rm P}$ is the number of CH_4 molecules produced. The individual CH_4 components of the mass balance are parameterized as

$$N_{i} = A_{b} \int_{0}^{t} C(\tau) \frac{\partial z(\tau)}{\partial \tau} d\tau, \qquad (A2)$$

$$N_{g} = C(t) V_{b}, \tag{A3}$$

$$N_{a} = C(t) k_{H} R T_{w} (z_{0} - z(t)), \qquad (A4)$$

$$N_0 = C_0 z_0, \tag{A5}$$

$$N_{\rm P} = \int_{0}^{\tau} P(\tau) d\tau, \qquad (A6)$$

where C(t) is the concentration of methane in bubbles at the ice-water interface at time t; k_H is the Henry's law constant

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Maybe you can c		hen comparing with other studies, based	d on erosional features (slumping) as you do below? In other words, time stag
Of course, the sa you remove lines sentence were yo be due to fundan I would add explis sediments?)	ame applies to next sent s 654-661 completely. It's ou say that YOUR result nental differences in biog icitely the role of organic	ence (i.e. avoid this confusing compariso s enough that you mention that your valu ts provide evidence that the marked diffe geochemical processes resulting from ac matter availability. Did you find difference	ce in the amount of OM in your pond types? (in terms of DOM or in
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d (0.05 and 0.45	if I apply a correction fa		Date : 2014-11-19 15:05:44 (2007), with median POL = 0.2 and median ice-wedge (RUN) of 1.8 mmol/m2 model estimations), the difference between these 2 types gets smaller when ted values).
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of methane, assuming constant pressure and a water temperature T_w of $273.15\,\rm K;\,R$ is the universal gas constant; A_b is

⁷⁵⁵ the effective bubble size in direct contact with the ice-water interface; z(t) is the ice cover thickness; V_b is the effective volume of bubbles at the ice-water interface; z_0 is the depth ⁸⁰⁵ of the water column at the start of freezing; C_0 is the concentration of methane in water at the start of freezing; and P is

the rate of net methane production in the pond. Equation A4 is modified to

$$N_{a} = k_{H} (z_{0} - z(t)), \qquad (A7)$$

as soon as CH_4 saturation is reached in the remaining water column so that all excess methane is deposited directly into

the ice cover. Thus, combining the equations A1 - A7 results $^{\circ}$ in two first order linear differential equations for (i) the duration of CH₄ under-saturation ($t \le t_S$) and (ii) the period of CH₄ saturation ($t > t_S$)

$$a C(t) + b \frac{\partial C(t)}{\partial t} - P(t) = 0, \quad \text{for } 0 \le t \le t_{S}$$

$$c C(t) + d \frac{\partial C(t)}{\partial t} - e - P(t) = 0, \quad \text{for } t > t_{S}$$
(A8)

- where a, b, c, d, and e summarize the parameters accord-825 ing to equations A2 A7. The differential equations can be solved with exponential functions so that the concentration of methane in the water column and in the ice cover can be calculated for each time step in the freezing process.
- 775 Acknowledgements. Special thanks go to Katrin Fröb and Karoline Morling for their invaluable work in the field and laboratory. Furthermore, we thank Waldemar Schneider and our Russian partners at AARI and the Lena Delta Reserve for the logistical support of 835 our field work. We gratefully acknowledge the financial support by
- the Helmholtz Association through a grant (VH-NG 203) awarded to Julia Boike. Furthermore, the authors acknowledge the financial support by the European Union FP7-ENV project PAGE21 under contract number GA282700.

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