

Reply to reviewer #1

We thank reviewer 1 for the helpful comments that helped to improve the manuscript. Please find our replies to the general and specific comments below.

For characterising marine ecosystem shifts over time, especially in highly anthropogenically impacted regions, sustained time series data are invaluable, but such records are sparse. Their documentation is essential so papers of this type, in this case presenting decadal records of dissolved methane, dissolved oxygen and chlorophylla from the Boknis Eck time series site in the Baltic, are welcome. The Boknis Eck site is subject to severe eutrophication and is an active site of methane production so this paper has potential to provide important insights into methane temporal variability.

As such this paper clearly falls within the scope of Biogeosciences. The authors represent a group that has a long experience of marine methane measurements and of working at the Boknis Eck site. Their methodology is well established and sound, and it is described concisely yet in enough detail to enable their reproduction by others.

The observations presented are rather straightforward, and while no novel concepts or ideas are described the data are worth reporting and are adequately set into the wider context, citing relevant sources. Overall the paper is well structured and generally easy to follow, and the figures are clear. I was however, a little unclear as to the authors explanation of the unusually high surface methane observed in December 2014. They mention a major inflow at this time, of high salinity, oxygenated North Sea water but it was not clear to me whether they were implying this water to be high or low in methane (or the same) relative to in situ conditions. I think an additional sentence or two would help clarify this.

Thank you for your suggestion. A direct comparison of the dissolved CH₄ concentrations in the North Sea and Baltic Sea would be necessary to assess the impact of the saline water inflow. According to the published results of Bange et al. (1994) and Rehder et al. (1998), CH₄ concentrations in surface North Sea is much lower than in the Eckernförde Bay. Advection of water with high CH₄ concentration does seem to be unlikely. We thus hypothesize that the MBI led to lower concentrations in the bottom water, substituting previously high concentration throughout the water column in the lower part below the mixed layer, hence causing the observed anomaly in the CH₄ concentration profile.

We will include the above information and the corresponding references in section 4.2.

They also describe a major outflow period in which sea levels declined prior to this inflow, and extreme weather that could have affected the sediment structures in the Eckernförde Bay. Presumably this could have led to methane release, but I think they stop short of saying this. Instead, they tend to favour hydrostatic pressure release due to the falling sea level as a cause of methane release from the sediments. It is not especially clear to me how this signal is transferred to the surface.

We suggest that enhanced CH₄ concentrations could be attributed to sedimentary release, and high CH₄ concentrations could be either homogeneously distributed all over the water column (via gas bubbles) or only detected at the bottom (via porewater exchange) when the hydrostatic pressure decreased at first. The CH₄-enriched water was subsequently lifted to the surface by the saline inflow, which is heavier than the low salinity-water in the Eckernförde Bay. This is supported by the negative correlation between CH₄ concentrations and salinity in the water column.

The decline of hydrostatic pressure could be one of the potential causes of the enhanced CH₄ release from the sediment. There might be other potential causes, for example, sediment resuspension, resulted either from the storm or the flushing of the strong saline inflow, but this is not supported by the variation of Secchi depths. The occurrence of MBI is usually associated with storms and strong winds, but this is beyond the discussion of this study. We do not have any evidence and therefore, did not discuss the potential impact of the extreme weather conditions.

We will add more detail in section 4.2.

Also, the hydrostatic pressure change, equivalent to the order of 1 metre in a 28-metre water column is rather small relative to the changes that occur in some estuarine and mangrove environments the authors cite. Can they provide evidence that such changes can produce the observations they describe? I wonder how important this mechanism might be relative to other possibilities.

Lohrberg et al. (2020) reported the detection of a widespread CH₄ ebullition event in the Eckernförde Bay in October 2014, shortly before the occurrence of the strong MBI. They demonstrated that storm-associated fluctuations of hydrostatic pressure induced the ebullitions and estimated a sedimentary CH₄ flux of $\sim 1900 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, as a result of the changes in water level ($\pm 0.5 \text{ m}$) and air pressure ($\pm 1500 \text{ Pa}$, equivalent to approximately $\pm 0.15 \text{ m}$ of water level fluctuation). Air pressure is not recorded at the BE time-series station, and we calculated the sea-to-air flux of $\sim 3100 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, with the changes in water level of $\pm 1 \text{ m}$. Water level fluctuation, when there was no strong wind or inflow event, was approximately $\pm 0.2 \text{ m}$ in the

Eckernförde Bay. Ignoring the CH₄ oxidation in the water column, the sharp increase in sea-to-air CH₄ fluxes in December 2014 are generally in good agreement with the sedimentary CH₄ release reported by Lohrberg et al. (2020), which provides a strong evidence that the changes in water levels are capable of inducing such strong changes in CH₄ release.

We will incorporate this in section 4.2.

It has been documented for example that current flows across the seabed that could be induced by surface inflows in shallow water, can set up pressure gradients driving pore water flow (e.g. Ahmerkamp et al., The impact of bedform migration on benthic oxygen fluxes. JGR Biogeosciences <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015JG003106>). I think perhaps a little more in-depth discussion of the various possibilities would be insightful. For example, is it possible to estimate the amount of methane that would be expected to be released from the sediments over the duration of the hydrostatic pressure drop, and is this consistent with the observed effect?

Thank you for your suggestions. Porewater exchange might be an important benthic CH₄ source, and we will add more detail in section 4.2. Sedimentary CH₄ release via ebullition from Lohrberg et al. (2020) is generally consistent with our results. Please see the reply above.

The authors could perhaps also clarify why they chose to use a different equation for calculating flux densities (Nightingale et al., 2000) to that used in their earlier paper (Bange et al. (2010), i.e. Raymond and Cole (2001), which gives a lower gas transfer velocity. The authors point out that the two sets of results agree if the same equation is adopted but I was curious about their reasoning in selecting Nightingale et al (2000) for this study. I am not suggesting they are incorrect in this, rather I just wanted to know their reasoning.

We choose Nightingale et al. (2000) over Raymond and Cole (2001) because we would like to compare our results with other time-series analysis in section 4.4. As we discussed in section 4.3, there might be a great difference in flux densities originated from the different equations adopted. SI and ALOHA used Nightingale et al. (2000) and Wanninkhof (2014), respectively. Generally fluxes calculated from these 2 equations are close, and we choose the first one because it lies in the middle of many different gas transfer parameterizations, which makes it widely used and well-accepted.

Reply to reviewer #2

We thank reviewer 2 for the detailed comments. Please find our replies below.

GENERAL COMMENTS

The paper by Ma et al. titled: “A decade of methane measurements at the Boknis Eck Time-series Station in the Eckernförde Bay (Southwestern Baltic Sea)” investigated the CH₄ temporal variability (from 2006 to 2017) in the whole water column at the Boknis Eck Time-series Station located in the Eckernförde Bay (SW Baltic Sea). In this system the concentration of CH₄ increases with depth due principally to the fluxes from the sediments. Sporadic elevated CH₄ concentrations (up to 696 nM) have been observed in the upper layer coinciding with Major Baltic Inflow events. During the period studied the Eckernförde Bay is an intense but highly variable source of atmospheric CH₄. The manuscript is very interesting and as the authors state, time-series measurements of CH₄ are still sparse, reason why the study can contribute to have a better knowledge of the behaviour of this greenhouse gas in coastal systems, hot spots of CH₄ emissions.

The data are well presented and the discussion of the dataset is comprehensive and conclusive. However, from my point of view, I have some suggestions to render the work more attractive to readers. Therefore, I suggest its publication after minor revisions.

Since part of the behaviour of CH₄ is attributed to contributions of more saline water from the North Sea and that it is a seasonal study with significant variations in temperature, it is convenient to include the variations of temperature and salinity in Figures 2 and 3.

Thank you for your suggestion. Seasonal and inter-annual variations of temperature and salinity will be shown in the figures.

Throughout the manuscript it have been discussing about good and bad correlations between the different variables studied, however, hardly any statistical data (p values, r²) are provided to indicate the good or bad degree of these correlations. I think it would be convenient to include a table with the annual intervals of variation and mean values and deviation of the studied variables including salinity, temperature and wind speed.

We will include a table with the variables as suggested.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

Pg. 1 Ln 27. Missing “l” in oil. Pg2 Ln 52. Include “temperature increment” in : : .. which is one of the most rapid temperature increment in large marine ecosystems.

We will revise them as suggested.

Pg 3 Ln 74. HgCl₂ was added to the sample once it was sealed with rubber stopper and aluminium caps? Was the measurement done with a gas-tight syringe? In that case, could a small pore have been left in the rubber stopper to facilitate gas exchange?

There is a small pore left in the rubber stopper after poisoning, but the gas exchange is negligible for this standard method. We have tested that the vials are gas-tight despite of the pores.

Pg 3 Ln 83. The concentrations of CH₄ standards used should be indicated, because although the average concentration is 51.2 – 84.2nM, there were some sporadic samples with very high concentrations (more than 600 nM) and those concentrations should be within the calibration line.

The measurements last for more than a decade and the standard gases we used changed several times. We have adjusted the concentrations of standard gases for every measurement to make sure that the values of the samples fall in the range of the calibration curves. In this case, we think it is not necessary to list all the CH₄ standards.

We will include this information in the method section.

Pg 3Ln 89-90. The accurate in dissolved oxygen and Chla measurements should be indicated. How were temperature and salinity measured? What was the precision of these measurements?

Temperature and salinity were measured by the sensors equipped on CTD. Different methods might be adopted for individual parameter during the past decades. A more comprehensive overview of temperature, salinity, dissolved oxygen, Chla as well as other parameters at BE can be found in the paper by Lennartz et al. (Lennartz, S. T., Lehmann, A., Herrford, J., Malien, F., Hansen, H. P., Biester, H., and Bange, H. W.: Long-term trends at the Boknis Eck time-series station (Baltic Sea), 1957–2013: does climate change counteract the decline in eutrophication? *Biogeosciences*, 11, 6323–6339, <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-11-6323-2014>, 2014).

We will include this information in the method section.

Pg 4 Ln 112-113. What H₂S concentrations were measured? It would be interesting to include these values

Unfortunately we did not measure the H₂S concentrations. The presence of H₂S was recognized by the strong smells of the bottom water.

We will add it to the text.

Pg 4 Ln 115. Indicate the value of the DO concentration that was obtained in the surface waters. This upwelling has also been appreciated in other variables such as nutrients?

We have shown the approximate O₂ saturation in the surface water, which is a better proof than the actual DO concentration. The occurrence of the upwelling can be identified by nutrients, too, but not as clearly as indicated by temperature and O₂. In this case, we think it is not necessary to include the variation of nutrients in the water column.

We will add more detail here.

Pg 4 Ln 115-116. Since the authors write about behaviour of temperature and salinity, it would be convenient to include graphs of these variables in Figures 2 and 3.

The variations of temperature and salinity will be shown in figure 2 and 3.

Pg 5 Ln 124. What is the reason that in BE the Chla has elevated concentrations only in the upper layers in March and not occupied the whole water column as other works realised in this system? Are Chla and Secchi depth well related to the entire study?

Perhaps it could be included in the figure of the Chla the Secchi depth graph. If we look at figure 2 in 2006 and 2012 the Chla occupies the entire water column. What could have happened in these years for the Chla behaviour to be different?

It remains unclear why elevated Chla concentrations were only detected in the upper layers in March. The overall correlation between Chla and Secchi depth is poor ($r^2=0.17$, $p<0.0001$, $n=111$). High Chla concentrations all over the water column in November/December 2006 and March 2012 were coinciding with slightly enhanced nutrients and high temperatures. Nutrients and temperature might be potential environmental controls on Chla distribution.

We will incorporate this additional information in section 4.1.

Pg 5 Ln 130. To show seasonal and inter-annual variations, a table could also be presented showing the variation interval and annual mean value of each variable. Figures 2 and 3, although very illustrative, have been made with interpolations and do not show the specific data that it is interesting to know.

A table will be shown in the main text as suggested.

Pg 5 Ln 154. Is there any work in the area where CH₄ benthic fluxes have been measured? If so, it would be interesting to include the value.

There are several papers reporting benthic CH₄ fluxes in the Eckernförde Bay. Sedimentary CH₄ release, via pockmarks or ebullition, was discussed in section 4.3.

Pg 6 Ln 166-167. Was the water more turbid? Did Secchi's disc reach less depth?

We did not see a strong decline in Secchi depth.

We will add this information in the text.

Pg 6 Ln 178. What is the r² of the relation between salinity and CH₄?

r²=0.84, and this value together with p and n are now included in the text.

Pg 6 Ln 184. Include variation of dissolved oxygen values to change from hypoxic to oxic condition in the bottom layer.

The values are now included as suggested.

Pg 6 Ln 189. Include the correlation coefficient (r²) of the relation between salinity and CH₄ in November 2013. Pg 6 Ln 199. Include the correlation coefficient (r²) of the relation between salinity and CH₄ in March 2014.

r², p and n are now described in the text.

Pg 7 Ln 213-214. Since CH₄ saturation has been obtained from the surface methane concentration and equilibrium concentrations of CH₄ in seawater, it is obvious that surface CH₄ saturations are directly proportional to its concentrations in the surface water, I would omit this from the manuscript.

The calculation of CH₄ saturation involves concentration, as well as temperature and salinity. The authors would like to point out that surface CH₄ saturations are directly proportional to its concentrations, despite of the significant seasonality in temperature and salinity. In another paper about dissolved N₂O at BE, the influence of temperature is stronger. We think this comparison might be interesting.

Figures:

In the figures the letters and numbers are in Arial and not in Times New Roman like the rest of the manuscript.

BG does not require a consistency for the fonts in the figures and in the text. As long as the fonts in all of the figures are consistent, it would not be a problem.

Figure 1. The quality of the figure must be improved. Figures 2 and 3. The axis titles should appear with capital letters as: Depth, not depth and Dissolved oxygen not only oxygen. It should be convenient to include isolines in these figures for a better appreciation of the concentration variations. Figures with temperature and salinity variations should be included.

The figures will be revised as suggested, except for the isoclines. We tried to include isoclines in figure 2 and 3, but they seem crowded and messy because of the strong gradients.

According to the comments from the reviewers, the following changes are made in the manuscript:

1. Include a table of inter-annual variations of temperature, salinity, wind speed and dissolved CH₄ concentrations.
2. Improve the quality of Fig. 1.
3. Show inter-annual and seasonal variations of temperature and salinity in Fig. 2 and 3, respectively.
4. Add more details about standard gases (in lines 85–86) and the overview of other parameters (in lines 94–95).
5. Include the information about H₂S recognition (in line 117).
6. Add more details about upwelling signal from nutrients in lines 121–122.
7. Analyze the potential correlations between Chlorophyll *a* and nutrients or temperature in lines 130–133.
8. Compare CH₄ concentrations from the North Sea and the Eckernförde Bay in lines 171–175.
9. Briefly discuss the potential CH₄ contribution from porewater exchange and sediment resuspension in lines 180–183.
10. Reanalyze the impact of ebullition as a result of water level change and compare the values with our results in lines 188–196.
11. Add the specific numbers about correlations and O₂ concentrations in lines 200, 206, 212 and 219.
12. Few typos in the manuscript were corrected.

A decade of methane measurements at the Boknis Eck Time-series Station in the Eckernförde Bay (Southwestern Baltic Sea)

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Abstract. Coastal areas contribute significantly to the emissions of methane (CH₄) from the ocean. In order to decipher its temporal variability in the whole water column, dissolved CH₄ was measured on a monthly basis at the Boknis Eck Time-series Station (BE) located in the Eckernförde Bay (SW Baltic Sea) from 2006 to 2017. BE has a water depth of about 28 m and dissolved CH₄ was measured at six water depths ranging from 0 to 25 m. In general, CH₄ concentrations increased with depth, indicating a sedimentary release of CH₄. Pronounced enhancement of the CH₄ concentrations in the bottom layer (15–25 m) was found during February, May–June and October. CH₄ was not correlated with Chlorophyll *a* or O₂ over the measurement period. Unusually high CH₄ concentrations (of up to 696 nM) were sporadically observed in the upper layer (0–10 m) (e.g. in November 2013 and December 2014) and were coinciding with Major Baltic Inflow (MBI) events. Surface CH₄ concentrations were always supersaturated throughout the monitoring period, indicating that the Eckernförde Bay is an intense but highly variable source of atmospheric CH₄. We did not detect significant temporal trends in CH₄ concentrations or emissions, despite of ongoing environmental changes such as warming and deoxygenation in the Eckernförde Bay. Overall, the CH₄ variability at BE is driven by a complex interplay of various biological and physical processes.

1. Introduction

20 Methane (CH₄) is an atmospheric trace gas which contributes significantly to global warming (IPCC, 2013) and the evolution of stratospheric ozone (WMO, 2018). Atmospheric CH₄ mole fractions have been increasing by about 150 % since the industrial revolution (IPCC, 2013).

The oceanic release of CH₄ to the atmosphere plays a minor role for the global atmospheric CH₄ budget (Saunois et al. 2016). However, coastal areas have been identified as hot spots of CH₄ emissions (see e.g. Bange et al., 1994; Upstill-Goddard et al., 2000; Borges et al., 2016). Dissolved CH₄ in coastal waters is mainly resulting from the interplay of (i) sedimentary sources such as anaerobic methanogenesis during the decomposition of organic matter (Xiao et al., 2018; Dale et al., 2019) or seepage from oil and natural gas reservoirs (Bernard et al., 1976; Hovland et al., 1993; Judd et al., 2002) and (ii) microbial CH₄ consumption which occurs under oxic conditions in the water column and under anoxic conditions in the sediments (Pimenov et al., 2013; Steinle et al., 2017; Egger et al., 2018). Only recently, Weber et al. (2019) estimated the

30 global oceanic CH₄ emissions to range from 6 to 12 Tg yr⁻¹, of which about 0.8–3.8 Tg yr⁻¹ were attributed to coastal waters. Occasional studies of the CH₄ production and consumption pathways in coastal waters and the associated CH₄ emissions to the atmosphere have received increasing attention during the last decades (Bange et al., 1994; Reeburg 2007; Naqvi et al., 2010). However, time-series measurements of CH₄ which would allow identifying short- and long-term trends in view of the ongoing environmental changes in coastal regions (such as eutrophication, warming and deoxygenation) are still sparse. In
35 this paper we present the monthly measurements of CH₄ from a time-series station in the Eckernförde Bay (Baltic Sea) during 2006–2017.

Due to severe eutrophication, sediments in the Eckernförde Bay receive large amount of organic matter (Smetacek et al., 1987; Oris et al., 1996; Nittrouer et al., 1998) and thus are active sites of CH₄ formation (Schmaljohann, 1996; Whiticar, 2002; Treude et al., 2005; Maltby et al., 2018). Seasonal and inter-annual CH₄ variations in concentration, saturation and air-
40 sea flux density were investigated for more than a decade. The aim of this study was to assess the seasonal dynamics of and the environmental controls on CH₄ variability in the Eckernförde Bay which is affected by high nutrient concentrations, increasing water temperatures and ongoing loss of dissolved oxygen (Lennartz et al., 2014).

2. Study site

The Boknis Eck (BE) time-series station is one of the oldest continuously conducted marine time-series stations in the world.
45 The first sampling took place in 1957, and has been conducted on a monthly base with only minor interruptions since then (Lennartz et al., 2014). It is situated in the Eckernförde Bay in the southwestern (SW) Baltic Sea, with a depth of approximately 28 m (Fig. 1). The sediments in the Bay are characterized by high organic matter load and sedimentation rate (Orsi et al., 1996; Whiticar, 2002), which is closely associated with the spring and autumn algae blooms (Smetacek, 1985). The Baltic Sea has only a limited water exchange with the North Sea through the Kattegat, which makes this area very
50 sensitive to climate change and anthropogenic impacts. As a result of global warming, the increasing trend for the global sea surface (< 75 m) temperatures (SST) was about 0.11 °C per decade (IPCC, 2013), while a net SST increase of 1.35 °C was observed in the Baltic Sea during 1982–2006, which is one of the most rapid [temperature increment](#) in large marine ecosystems (Belkin, 2009). Lennartz et al. (2014) reported a warming trend of up to 0.2 °C per decade at the BE time-series station for the period of 1957–2013. Nutrients in the Baltic Sea have been increasing until 1980s as a result of the intensive
55 agricultural and industrial activities, and then started to decline due to effective wastewater control (HELCOM, 2018). However, hypoxia and anoxia have been increasing in the Baltic Sea during the past several decades (Conley et al., 2011; Carstensen et al., 2014). Similar trends in nutrients and O₂ were also detected at the BE time-series station (Lennartz et al., 2014), indicating that the Eckernförde Bay is representative for the biogeochemical setting of the SW Baltic Sea. In concert with the declining nutrient concentrations, Chlorophyll *a* concentrations at the BE time-series station were declining as well
60 (Lennartz et al., 2014).

Located close to the bottleneck of the water exchange between the North Sea and the Baltic Sea, the BE time-series station is also sensitive to hydrographic fluctuations such as inflows of saline North Sea Water. There is no riverine input to the Eckernförde Bay, and thus, the saline water inflow from the North Sea plays a dominant role in the hydrographic setting at BE. Because the inflowing North Sea water has a higher salinity compared to Baltic Sea water, a pronounced summer stratification occurs which leads to the development of a pycnocline at about 15 m water depth. The seasonal stratification occurs usually from mid-March until mid-September. During this period, vertical mixing is restricted and bacterial decomposition of organic material in the deep layer causes pronounced hypoxia and sporadically occurring anoxia during late summer (Lennartz et al., 2014). Pronounced phytoplankton blooms occur regularly in autumn (September–November) and spring (February–March) and to a lesser extent during summer (July–August) (Smetacek et al. 1985).

70 **3. Methods**

3.1 Sample collection and measurement

Monthly sampling of CH₄ from the BE time-series station started in June 2006. Seawater was collected from 6 depths (1, 5, 10, 15, 20 and 25 m) with 5 L Niskin bottles mounted on a CTD rosette. 20 mL brown glass vials were filled in triplicates without any bubbles. The vials were sealed immediately with rubber stoppers and aluminum caps. These samples were
75 poisoned with 50 µL saturated aqueous mercury chloride (HgCl₂) solution as soon as possible, and then stored in a cool, dark place until measurement. The storage time of the samples before the measurements was less than 3 months.

A static headspace-equilibrium method was adopted for the CH₄ measurements. A 10 mL Helium (99.9999 %, AirLiquide, Düsseldorf, Germany) headspace was created inside the vial with a gas-tight syringe (VICI Precision Sampling, Baton Rouge, LA). The sample was vibrated with Vortex (G-560E, Scientific Industries Inc., New York, USA) for approximately
80 20 s and then left for at least 2 h to reach the CH₄ equilibrium between air and water phases. A 9.5 mL subsample of headspace was injected into a gas chromatograph equipped with a flame ionization detector (GC-FID, Hewlett-Packard 5890 Series II, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Separation took place on a packed column (SS, 1.8 m length, packed with molsieve 5A, Grace, Columbia, Maryland, USA). Standard gas mixtures with varying mole fractions of CH₄ in synthetic air (Deuste-Steininger GmbH, Mühlhausen, Germany and Westfalen AG, Münster, Germany) were used daily to
85 calibrate the response of FID before measurements. The concentrations of standard gases were adjusted for every measurement to make sure that the values of the samples fall in the range of the calibration curves. The standard gas mixtures were calibrated against NOAA primary gas standard mixtures in the laboratory of the Max-Planck-Institute for Biogeochemistry in Jena, Germany. Further details about the measurements and calculations of the dissolved CH₄ concentration can be found in Bange et al. (2010). The mean precision of the CH₄ measurements, calculated as the median of
90 the estimated standard errors (see David, 1951) from all triplicate measurements, was ± 1.3 nM. Samples with an estimated standard error of >10 % were omitted. Dissolved O₂ concentrations were measured with Winkler titrations, and Chlorophyll *a* concentrations were measured with a Fluorometer (Grasshoff et al., 1999). Secchi depth was measured with a white disk

(~30 cm in diameter). Sea levels were measured at Kiel-Holtenau, which is about 15 km away from the BE time-series station (<http://www.boos.org/>). [A more comprehensive overview of temperature, salinity, dissolved O₂, Chlorophyll a as well as other parameters at the BE time-series station can be found in Lennartz et al. \(2014\).](#)

3.2 Calculation of saturation and air-sea flux density

The CH₄ saturation (S_{CH_4} , %) was calculated as:

$$S_{CH_4} = 100 \times CH_{4obs} / CH_{4eq} \quad (1)$$

where CH_{4obs} and CH_{4eq} are the observed and equilibrium concentrations of CH₄ in seawater, respectively. CH_{4eq} was calculated with the in-situ temperature and salinity of seawater (Wiesenburg and Guinasso, 1979), and the dry mole fraction of atmospheric CH₄ at the time of sampling, which was derived from the monthly atmospheric CH₄ data measured at Mace Head, Ireland (AGAGE, <http://agage.mit.edu/>).

The air-sea CH₄ flux density (F_{CH_4} , in $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) was calculated as:

$$F_{CH_4} = k \times (CH_{4obs} - CH_{4eq}) \quad (2)$$

where k (in cm h^{-1}) is the gas transfer velocity calculated with the equation given by Nightingale et al. (2000), as a function of the wind speed and the Schmidt number (Sc). Sc was computed with the empirical equations for the kinematic viscosity of seawater (Siedler and Peters, 1986) and the diffusion coefficients of CH₄ in water (Jähne et al., 1987). Wind speed data were recorded at the Kiel Lighthouse (www.geomar.de/service/wetter/), which is approximately 20 km away from the BE time-series station. The wind speeds were normalized to the height of 10 m (u_{10}) with the method given by Hsu et al. (1994).

4. Results and discussion

4.1 Seasonal variations of environmental parameters and dissolved CH₄

Seasonal hypoxia were observed every year at the BE time-series station during 2006–2017 (Fig. 2). O₂ depletion was detected in the bottom layer (~15–25m) during July–October with minimum O₂ concentrations usually occurring in September (Fig. 3). Lennartz et al. (2014) found a significant decrease in dissolved O₂ concentrations in the bottom water at the BE time-series station over the past several decades and suggested that temperature-enhanced O₂ consumption and a prolonged stratification period might be the causes of deoxygenation. Anoxia with the presence of hydrogen sulfide (H₂S, [identified from the strong smell](#)) in the period of concurrent CH₄ measurements were found in the autumn of 2007, 2014 and 2016, respectively. The anoxic event in 2016 lasted from September until November and was the longest ever recorded at the BE time-series station. In September 2017, a pronounced undersaturation of O₂ (~50%) was observed in surface water (Fig. 2). The low temperature together with enhanced salinity in the surface water in September 2017 suggests the occurrence of an upwelling event, which transported O₂-depleted and colder bottom waters to the surface. [An upwelling signal was also](#)

[present in the nutrient concentrations \(not shown\), but less pronounced than in temperature and dissolved O₂ concentrations.](#)

Similar events were also detected in September 2011 and 2012.

Enhanced Chlorophyll *a* concentrations, which can be used to indicate phytoplankton blooms, were usually observed in spring or autumn, but not in every year (Fig. 2). Seasonal variations of Chlorophyll *a* concentrations were generally consistent with the annual plankton succession reported by Smetacek (1985). During 2006–2017, high Chlorophyll *a* concentrations were usually found in the upper layers in March (Fig. 3), which is different from the seasonality during 1960–2013 where on average, high concentrations occupied the whole water column (Lennartz et al., 2014). Another difference is that no prevailing ‘winter dormancy’ of biological activity was observed: Chlorophyll *a* concentrations usually remained high throughout the autumn–spring period. [In November and December 2006 and March 2012 when high Chlorophyll *a* concentrations were observed all over the water column, nutrients and temperature were generally higher. Although the overall correlation between Chlorophyll *a* and nutrients \(NO₃⁻, \$r^2=0.01\$, \$p<0.01\$, \$n=674\$ \) or temperature \(\$r^2=0.02\$, \$p<0.0001\$, \$n=671\$ \) is poor, nutrients or temperature might be potential environmental controls on Chlorophyll *a* distribution.](#) As a proxy of water transparency, Secchi depth was lowest in March indicating a high turbidity, coincident with the Chlorophyll *a* maximum. Chlorophyll *a* concentrations and Secchi depths have been decreasing over the past decades in the Baltic Sea (Sandén and Håkansson, 1996; Fleming-Lehtinen and Laamanen, 2012; Lennartz et al., 2014), but this trend cannot be identified from the median slope at the BE time-series station during 2006–2017.

CH₄ concentrations at the BE time-series station showed strong seasonal and inter-annual variability (Fig. 2, [Table. 1](#)). During 2006–2017, dissolved CH₄ concentrations ranged between 2.9 to 695.6 nM, with an average of 51.2 ± 84.2 nM. High concentrations were generally observed in the bottom layer (~15–25 m). Enhanced CH₄ concentrations were mainly observed during February, May–June and October (Fig. 3). Steinle et al. (2017) measured aerobic CH₄ oxidation at the BE time-series station and found that lowest rates occurred in winter, which might be one of the reasons for the enhanced CH₄ concentrations in February.

The CH₄ accumulation in May and June can be linked to enhanced methanogenesis fueled by organic matter from the spring algae bloom. Capelle et al. (2019) found a positive correlation between mean monthly CH₄ concentrations and Chlorophyll *a* concentrations in the upper layers of time-series measurements from Saanich Inlet. Bange et al. (2010) also reported correlations between seasonal CH₄ variation and Chlorophyll *a* or Secchi depth, albeit with a time lag of one month, at the BE time-series station during 2006–2008. Although we did not detect such relationships for the extended measurements during 2006–2017, in 2009 and 2016, when no spring algae blooms were detected, CH₄ concentrations in following summer months were lower than average (Fig. 2).

Maximum CH₄ concentrations were usually observed in October, at the end of the seasonal hypoxia (Fig. 3). Due to the long-lasting anoxic event, strong CH₄ accumulations were observed in autumn 2016 (~600 nM), which are the highest in the bottom layer during 2006–2017. Prevailing for several months, depletion of bottom O₂ concentrations exerts a strong influence on the underlying sediment. Maltby et al. (2018) detected a shoaling of the sulfate reduction zone in autumn and enhanced methanogenesis in the sediments at the BE time-series station. Reindl and Bolalek (2012) found similar variations

in sedimentary CH₄ release in the coastal Baltic Sea. In-situ production in the anoxic bottom water might be a potential CH₄ source as well (Scranton and Farrington, 1977; Levipan et al., 2007). We, therefore, suggest that the accumulation of CH₄ in the bottom water in October is caused by its release from the sediments and in-situ production in the overlying water column in combination with the pronounced water column stratification during autumn which prevents ventilation of CH₄ to the surface layer.

4.2 Enhanced CH₄ concentrations in the upper water layer

In agreement with Schmale et al. (2010) and Bange et al. (2010), we found that CH₄ concentrations generally increase with water depth, indicating a prevailing release of CH₄ from the sediments into the water column in the Baltic Sea (see Sect. 4.1). Nonetheless, unusual high CH₄ concentrations in the upper layers were detected sporadically at the BE time-series station during 2006–2017 (Fig. 2). In November 2013 and March 2014, average CH₄ concentrations in the upper waters were 187.2 ± 13.9 nM (1–10 m) and 217.8 ± 1.4 nM (5–10 m), which are about 16 and 5 times higher than those found in the bottom layers, respectively (Fig. 4). The most striking event occurred in December 2014, when CH₄ concentrations in the upper layer (1–15 m) were as high as 692.6 ± 3.4 nM (19,890 ± 115 %), whereas dissolved CH₄ in the bottom layer (20–25 m) was ~50 nM. The surface CH₄ concentration in December 2014 was the highest observed during 2006–2017. In December 2014, a major Baltic inflow (MBI) event occurred, carrying large amounts of saline and oxygenated water from the North Sea into the Baltic Sea (Mohrholz et al., 2015). Dissolved CH₄ concentrations in the surface North Sea were much lower than in the Eckernförde Bay (Bange et al., 1994; Rehder et al., 1998), and therefore a direct CH₄ contribution from the North Sea by oxygenated waters seems unlikely. We hypothesize that this inflow substituted the lower part of the water column which had high CH₄ concentration throughout the water depth before, opposite to, e.g., an in-situ production of CH₄ at the surface being responsible for the observed concentration profile anomaly. The MBI is the third strongest event ever recorded, and an unusual outflow period was detected in the Eckernförde Bay: Sea levels declined since mid-November and reached minimum on 10 December, and then began to increase with the inflow (Fig. 5). The sampling at the BE time-series station took place on 16 December, during the main inflow period. Extreme weather conditions (wind speed >15 m s⁻¹) were observed several days before the sampling date, and storm-generated waves and currents could have affected the sediment structures in the Eckernförde Bay (Oris et al., 1996). Currents across the seabed can result in pressure gradients that drive porewater flow within the permeable sediments (Ahmerkamp et al., 2015), which might be a potential CH₄ source. Sediment resuspension might also contribute to enhanced CH₄ release, but we did not observe a significant decline in Secchi depths in December 2014 (Fig. 2).

The significant decrease in sea level alleviated the static pressure on the sediments. Enhanced CH₄ release from the sediments, via gas bubbles or exchange from porewater, ~~may have led leads~~ to the accumulation of CH₄ in the water column. Similar hydrostatic pressure effects were also reported in tidal systems such as mangrove creeks and estuaries (see e.g. Barnes et al. 2006; Maher et al., 2015; Sturm et al., 2017). Atmospheric pressure also contributes to the overall pressure on the sediments, but it is not recorded at the BE time-series station and thus was omitted. Although the water level fluctuation

of ± 1 m (Fig. 5) seems rather small compared to the water depth (28m), it might exert a strong influence on the sediments. Water level fluctuation, when there was no strong wind or inflow event, was approximately ± 0.2 m in the Eckernförde Bay. Lohrberg et al. (2020) detected a change in water level (± 0.5 m) and air pressure (± 1500 Pa, equivalent to approximately ± 0.15 m of water level fluctuation) during a weak storm in the fall of 2014. The fluctuation in hydrostatic pressure induced a pronounced CH_4 ebullition event in the Eckernförde Bay, and a sedimentary CH_4 flux of $1916 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ was estimated (Lohrberg et al., 2020). ~~Lohrberg et al. (2020) identified a pronounced CH_4 ebullition event in the Eckernförde Bay in the fall of 2014 as a result of the decline in hydrostatic pressures during a weak storm. This value is generally in good agreement with the sharp increase in the sea-to-air CH_4 fluxes in December 2014 (see section 4.3).~~ The outflow period of the MBI in 2014 lasted for almost a month, and bulk ebullitions and supersaturated water with CH_4 could be anticipated. During the inflow period, large amounts of North Sea water flooded into the Eckernförde Bay and presumably pushed the CH_4 -enriched water to the surface. A negative correlation was found between salinity and CH_4 concentration in the water column (Fig. 4a, $r^2=0.84$, $p=0.01$, $n=6$), indicating that vertical CH_4 distributions were linked to the mixing of saline water in the bottom and less-saline water in the upper layers. We suggest that CH_4 release driven by hydrostatic pressure fluctuations and the MBI-associated mixing are responsible for the abnormal CH_4 profile in December 2014.

The CH_4 anomaly in November 2013 can be linked to saline water inflow as well. Nausch et al. (2014) reported the occurrence of an inflow event from 27 October to 7 November in 2013. The sampling at the BE time-series station took place on 5 November, and an increase in salinity was detected in the bottom water (Fig. 4b). The rapid transition from hypoxic ($9.8 \mu\text{M/L}$, 25 m in October) to oxic condition ($239.2 \mu\text{M/L}$, 25 m in November) in the bottom layer also supports the occurrence of the inflow (Fig. 2). Steinle et al. (2017) found a change in the temperature optimum of aerobic CH_4 -oxidizing bacteria (MOB) in November 2013 at the BE time-series station and linked it to a displacement of the local MOB community as a result of saltwater injection. Although enhanced CH_4 concentrations and high net methanogenesis rates were detected in the sediments in November 2013 (Maltby et al., 2018), the saline inflow with less dissolved CH_4 was sandwiched between the sediments and the upper layer waters. As a result, we also found a negative salinity- CH_4 correlation in the water column (Fig. 4b, $r^2=0.86$, $p<0.01$, $n=6$). This inflow event was much weaker than the MBI in December 2014, and no obvious outflow or inflow period can be identified from sea level variations. There was no strong fluctuation in hydrostatic pressure and thus sedimentary CH_4 release and CH_4 supersaturations in the water column were lower than in December 2014. Another difference is that the decrease in salinity and increase of CH_4 concentrations were observed between 10–20 m, which is at shallower depths compared to the MBI in December 2014, indicating that the saline water volume in the bottom layer was larger at the time of the sampling in November 2013.

The situation in March 2014 is different. We did not find any evidence for saline water inflow or hydrostatic pressure fluctuation, and the correlation between CH_4 concentration and salinity is poor (Fig. 4c, $r^2=0.43$, $p=0.16$, $n=6$). The occurrences of the unusual CH_4 profiles were accompanied by the enhanced Chlorophyll *a* concentrations in the upper waters. CH_4 productions by widespread marine phytoplankton have been reported and might be potential sources of surface CH_4 supersaturations (Lenhart et al, 2016; Klintzsch et al., 2019). However, spring or autumn algae blooms at the BE time-

series station were often observed without CH₄ accumulation and surface CH₄ contribution from phytoplankton remains to be proven. Potential sources for the enhanced CH₄ in March 2014 are still unclear.

225 In summary, we suggest that saline water inflow and the subsequent upwelling of water are the most potential causes for the CH₄ surface accumulation in November 2013 and December 2014. Nonetheless, the occurrence of inflow does not necessarily lead to enhanced CH₄ concentrations in the upper waters. Inflow events are relatively common, for example, in 2013, besides the inflow in November, three other events with similar estimated inflow volumes were detected in January, February and April (Nausch et al., 2014), but no CH₄ anomaly was found during that period. The magnitude of the CH₄ anomalies might depend on the strength of the inflow events and other factors, such as storms and sediment resuspension. 230 Besides, there is a high chance that the monthly sampling at the BE time-series station only captured few CH₄ pulses. Inflow events usually last days to weeks, but the accumulated CH₄ in the upper layers might last even shorter because of effective aerobic CH₄ oxidation (Steinle et al., 2017) and strong vertical mixing in winter. The occurrences of surface CH₄ accumulations at the BE time-series station might be more frequent than been observed.

235 4.3 Surface saturation and flux density

Surface CH₄ saturations are directly proportional to its concentrations in the surface water ($S_{CH_4}=31.40 \times [CH_4] + 10.29$, $R^2=0.9794$, $n=77$, $p<0.0001$; Fig. 6a, b), despite of the pronounced seasonal variations in temperature (Fig. 3). This indicates that the net CH₄ production at BE is overriding the temperature-driven variability of the CH₄ concentrations. Excluding the extreme value from December 2014, surface CH₄ saturations at the BE time-series station varied between 129–5563 %, with an average of 615 ± 688 %. The surface layer was supersaturated with CH₄ and thus emitting CH₄ to the atmosphere throughout the sampling period. 240

The coastal Baltic Sea, especially the southwestern part, is a hot spot for CH₄ emissions. Area-weighted mean CH₄ saturations for the entire Baltic Sea (113 % and 395 % in winter and summer 1992, respectively; Bange et al., 1994) were lower than at the BE time-series station. Schmale et al. (2010) extensively investigated dissolved CH₄ distributions in the Baltic Sea, and found that surface CH₄ supersaturations were stronger in the shallow western areas. 245

Sea-to-air CH₄ flux densities fluctuated between 0.3–746.3 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, with an average of $43.8 \pm 88.7 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ (excluding the extreme value in December 2014, Fig. 6c). Comparable results in saturation and flux density were observed at the pockmark sites in the Eckernförde Bay (Bussmann and Suess, 1998). Although surface CH₄ saturations in this study are consistent with the previously published results by Bange et al. (2010) (554 ± 317 %), calculated CH₄ flux densities in this study are much higher than in Bange et al. (2010) (6.3–14.7 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$). The discrepancy derives from different flux calculation methods. Bange et al. (2010) adopted the equations by Raymond and Cole (2001) with a lower gas transfer velocity, and they used the median of surface CH₄ concentrations for computation, which eliminated the extreme values. Our results are in good agreement with the ones reported by Bange et al. (2010) if we adopt the same method. 250

CH₄ emissions from coastal waters could be roughly considered as the difference between formation and oxidation of CH₄ in the water column and sediments. Although sediments are substantial CH₄ sources, most CH₄ is consumed before evading to 255

the atmosphere (Martens et al., 1999; Treude et al., 2005; Steinle et al., 2017). Treude et al. (2005) compared the potential and field rates of anaerobic oxidation of methane (AOM) in the sediments of the Eckernförde Bay and suggested that the AOM-mediating organisms are capable of fast response to changes in CH₄ supply. Steinle et al. (2017) reported that 70–95 % of dissolved CH₄ were effectively removed in the water column during summer stratification. Apart from MBI-driven uplift of CH₄-enriched bottom water to the surface (see below), wind-driven upwelling events can lead to a ventilation of the accumulated CH₄ to the atmosphere. For example, Gülzow et al. (2013) observed elevated CH₄ concentrations in the Gotland Basin as a result of wind-induced upwelling. The influence of upwelling at the BE time-series station, however, is more prominent due to the shallow water depth. In September 2012 and 2017, when upwelling occurred (see Sect. 4.1), sea-to-air CH₄ flux densities were 65.9 μmol m⁻² d⁻¹ and 132.3 μmol m⁻² d⁻¹, respectively, which were about 50 % and 200 % higher than the mean value.

Enhanced CH₄ saturations and associated emissions at the BE time-series station were also strongly promoted by saline inflows (see Sect. 4.2). We found very high surface CH₄ saturation and flux density in November 2013 and December 2014 (Fig. 6). In December 2014, surface CH₄ saturations were as high as 19,770 % and the calculated flux density reached 3104.5 μmol m⁻² d⁻¹. Inflows of saline waters usually occur in winter, when the well-ventilated water column, relatively low CH₄ oxidation rates and high wind speeds are all favorable for high CH₄ emissions (Wanninkhof, 2014; Steinle et al., 2017). Assuming that there was no continuous mixing or supply of CH₄ to the surface layer, it took about 3.3 days for the accumulated CH₄ to come back to equilibrium values under the calculated flux density, during which the annual CH₄ emissions from the Eckernförde Bay would increase by approximately 66 % in 2014. This is also in line with our speculation in Sect. 4.2 that the monthly sampling at the BE time-series station might have missed some of the short-lived CH₄ pulses. Moreover, methanogenesis in the sediments of the Eckernförde Bay is sufficient for CH₄ bubble formation (Whiticar, 2002). Hydrostatic pressure fluctuations associated with saline water inflow could have triggered CH₄ seepage and gas bubble plumes from the seafloor to the atmosphere (Wever et al., 2006; Lohrberg et al., 2020). Gas ebullition sites were usually found accompanied by pockmark structures (Schneider von Deimling et al., 2011) and Jackson et al. (1998) provided sonar evidences for CH₄ ebullition in the Eckernförde Bay. However, recently Lohrberg et al. (2020) reported a widespread CH₄ ebullition event in the Eckernförde Bay and found no direct linkage between pockmarks and ebullitions. They estimated the bubble-driven CH₄ flux during a weak storm in the fall of 2014 was 1916 μmol m⁻² d⁻¹. These findings point to the fact that ebullition might be an important, but highly variable, additional CH₄ efflux to the atmosphere. However, our measurements did not capture gas bubbles and, thus, the estimate of the overall CH₄ emissions resulting from the MBI might be too low. In this case, a time-series monitoring of saline inflows and sea level variations, combined with a continuous observation of CH₄ variability, especially in winter, are essential in quantifying CH₄ emissions from the Eckernförde Bay.

4.4 Comparison with other time-series measurements

Besides this study, time-series measurements of CH₄ have also been reported from Saanich Inlet (SI), British Columbia, Canada (Capelle et al., 2019) and ALOHA station in the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre (Wilson et al., 2017).

290 Located in a seasonally anoxic fjord, the time-series station in SI has a similar hydrographic setting compared to BE, but a deeper water depth (230 m, Capelle et al., 2019). Surface CH₄ saturations at SI fell in the lower end of the range observed here for BE (Fig. 7). Despite the fact that the mean surface saturation in SI was higher, CH₄ flux densities were much lower than at BE. Since the air-sea exchange approach of Nightingale et al. (2000) was used in both studies, the discrepancy is resulting from the higher wind speeds at BE. CH₄ saturations from ALOHA were only slightly supersaturated (close to the equilibrium saturation) and the flux densities were consequently low as well, which is resulting from the fact that ALOHA is
295 a deep water (~4800 m) station located in the oligotrophic open ocean where potential strong CH₄ sources such as sedimentary release or methanogenesis under low O₂ in the water column are negligible (Wilson et al., 2017).

Wilson et al. (2017) analyzed the time-series CH₄ data from ALOHA during 2008–2016 and observed a decline in the surface CH₄ concentrations since 2013. They attributed the potential decrease in CH₄ production to fluctuations in phosphate concentrations. Capelle et al. (2019) also detected a significant decline of CH₄ concentrations in the upper water column over
300 time at SI and proposed a link with the shoaling of the boundary of the hypoxic layer. However, no significant trend was detected in CH₄ concentrations or flux densities at the BE time-series station (Fig. 6), despite of the relatively long observation period. The different situations can be explained by the shallow water depth in the Eckernförde Bay, which makes the CH₄ distribution sensitive to the variability of its sedimentary release and events such as MBI and wind-driven upwelling.

305 **5. Conclusions**

The CH₄ measurements at the BE time-series station showed a strong temporal variability and variations with depths. A pronounced enhancement of the CH₄ concentrations was usually found in the bottom layer (15–25 m) during February, May–June and October which indicates that the release from the sediments is the major source of CH₄. Organic matter and dissolved O₂ are usually considered as the main controlling factors for CH₄ production and consumption pathways, but we
310 did not detect correlations of CH₄ with Chlorophyll *a* or O₂ during 2006–2017.

Obviously non-biological processes such as local wind-driven-upwelling and the inflow of saline North Sea waters play a significant role for the observed variability of CH₄ at BE. However, these phenomena, which occur on relatively short time scales of day or weeks, were not frequently detected; most probably due to the monthly sampling frequency. The surface layer at BE was always supersaturated with CH₄ and therefore, BE was a persistent and strong, but highly variable, source of
315 CH₄ to the atmosphere. We did not detect significant temporal trends in CH₄ concentrations or emissions, despite of ongoing environmental changes (warming, deoxygenation) in the Eckernförde Bay. Overall, the CH₄ variability at BE is driven by a complex interplay of various biological (i.e. methanogenesis, oxidation) and physical (i.e. upwelling, inflow events) processes. Continuous observations at the BE time-series station, with an emphasis on the period when upwelling and saline inflow usually occur is therefore, of great importance in quantifying CH₄ variability and the associated emissions as well as
320 for predicting future CH₄ variability in the SW Baltic Sea.

Data availability. Data are available from the Boknis Eck Database: <https://www.bokniseck.de> (Bange and Malien, 2020) and MEMENTO (the MarinE MethanE and NiTrous Oxide database, <https://memento.geomar.de> (Kock and Bange, 2015).

325 **Author contributions.** XM, MS, STL, and HWB designed the study and participated in the fieldwork. CH₄ measurements and data processing were done by XM, MS and STL. XM wrote the article with contributions from MS, STL and HWB.

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340

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Table 1. Annual mean (arithmetic average \pm standard deviation) of water temperature, salinity, wind speed and dissolved CH₄ concentrations at the BE time-series station during 2006–2017. Water temperatures, salinity and CH₄ concentrations were averaged over the water column (0–25 m). Wind speeds were recorded at Kiel lighthouse.

<u>year</u>	<u>Temperature (°C)</u>	<u>Salinity</u>	<u>Wind speed (u₁₀, m s⁻¹)</u>	<u>CH₄ (nM)</u>
<u>2006</u>	<u>9.19±5.75</u>	<u>20.14±3.11</u>	<u>7.5±2.6</u>	<u>39.3±38.1</u>
<u>2007</u>	<u>9.68±4.55</u>	<u>17.78±2.14</u>	<u>7.5±2.5</u>	<u>44.9±45.5</u>
<u>2008</u>	<u>10.11±4.20</u>	<u>19.14±3.43</u>	<u>6.2±2.1</u>	<u>36.9±41.9</u>
<u>2009</u>	<u>9.20±4.81</u>	<u>18.36±2.22</u>	<u>7.3±2.3</u>	<u>27.8±26.2</u>
<u>2010</u>	<u>8.47±5.20</u>	<u>17.80±3.22</u>	<u>5.5±2.7</u>	<u>34.8±39.3</u>
<u>2011</u>	<u>8.74±5.16</u>	<u>19.14±2.78</u>	<u>6.8±3.1</u>	<u>36.9±29.1</u>
<u>2012</u>	<u>9.47±3.89</u>	<u>18.67±2.63</u>	<u>8.7±2.1</u>	<u>46.4±44.3</u>
<u>2013</u>	<u>9.04±5.45</u>	<u>17.89±3.74</u>	<u>5.9±2.8</u>	<u>67.7±83.1</u>
<u>2014</u>	<u>10.38±4.93</u>	<u>19.17±2.79</u>	<u>7.0±3.3</u>	<u>101.4±183.3</u>
<u>2015</u>	<u>9.19±4.28</u>	<u>19.71±3.30</u>	<u>6.1±2.8</u>	<u>35.7±36.3</u>
<u>2016</u>	<u>10.09±4.71</u>	<u>18.80±3.19</u>	<u>5.9±1.7</u>	<u>52.6±111.4</u>
<u>2017</u>	<u>10.21±4.86</u>	<u>19.50±2.11</u>	<u>6.8±2.4</u>	<u>30.5±22.9</u>

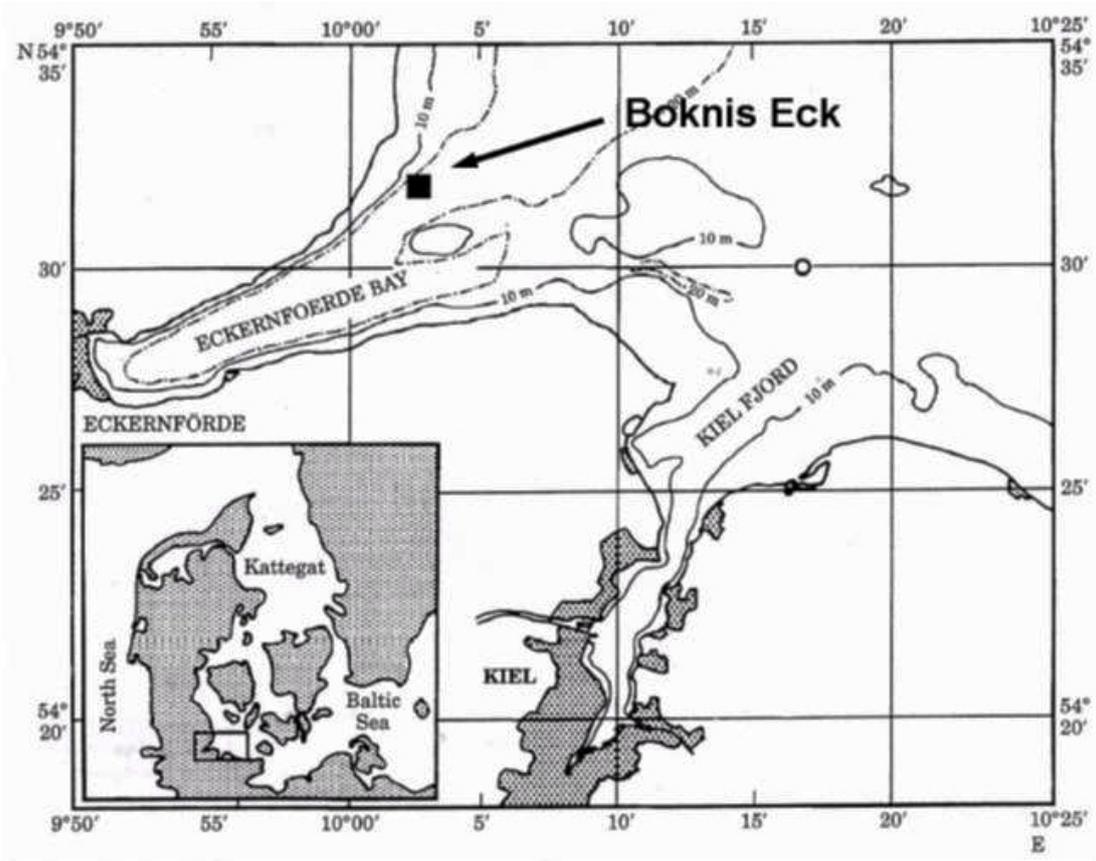
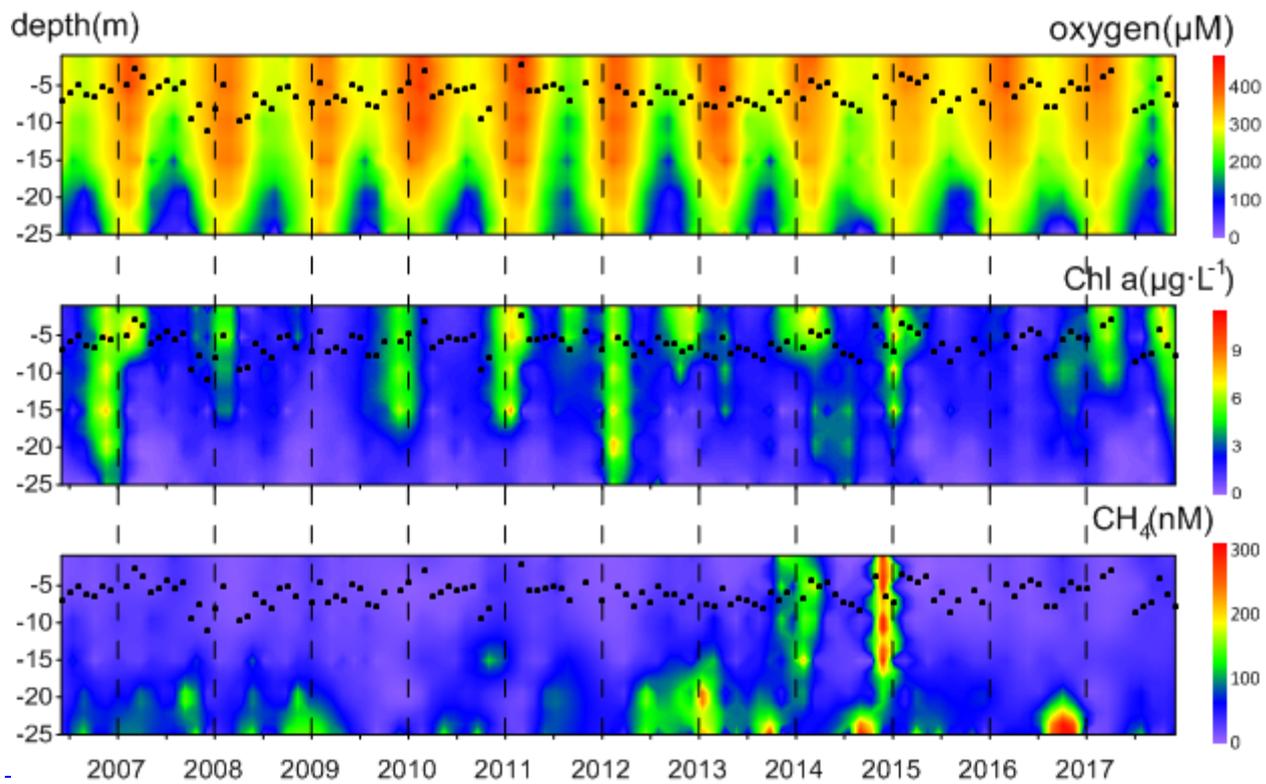
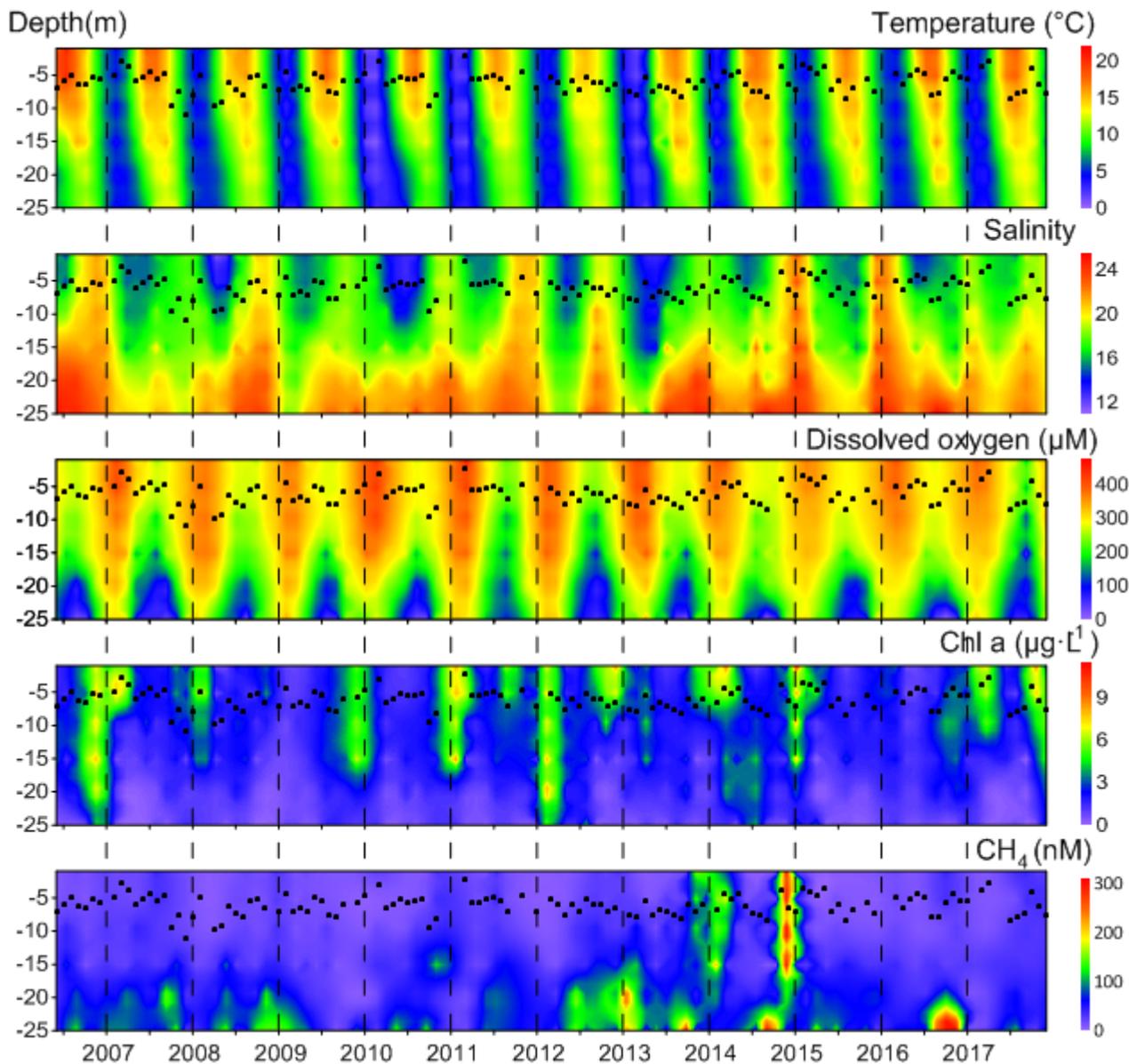
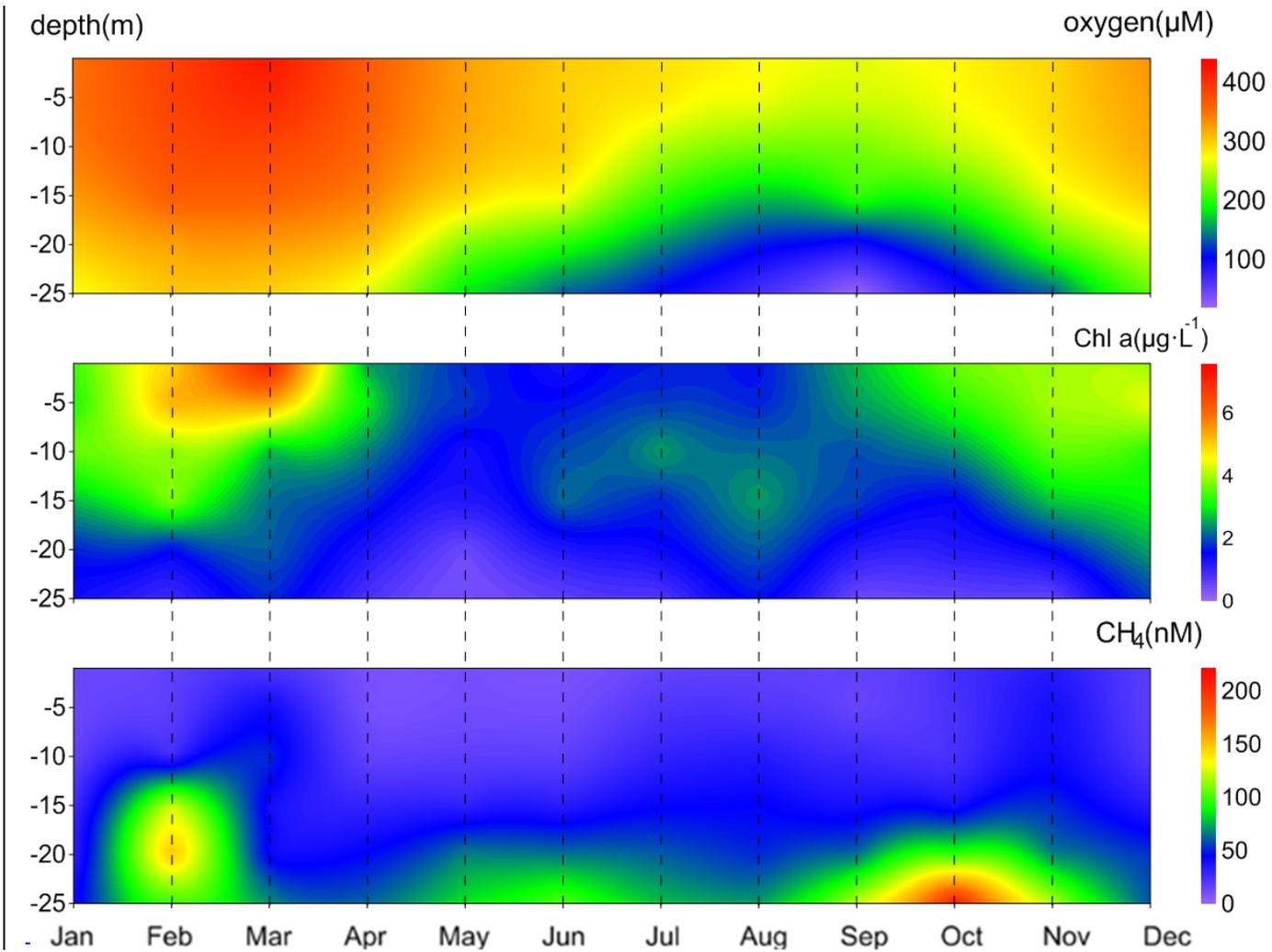


Fig. 1 Location (black square) of the Boknis Eck time-series station in the Eckernförde Bay, southwestern Baltic Sea. (from Hansen et al., 1999)





515 Fig 2. Distributions of [temperature](#), [salinity](#), dissolved O₂, Chlorophyll *a* and CH₄ at the BE time-series station during 2006–2017. Black dots indicate the monthly measurements of Secchi depth. To get a better visualization, the maximum color bar for CH₄ concentration is 300 nM, but some of the actual concentrations are higher (for example, in December 2014 and in autumn 2016).



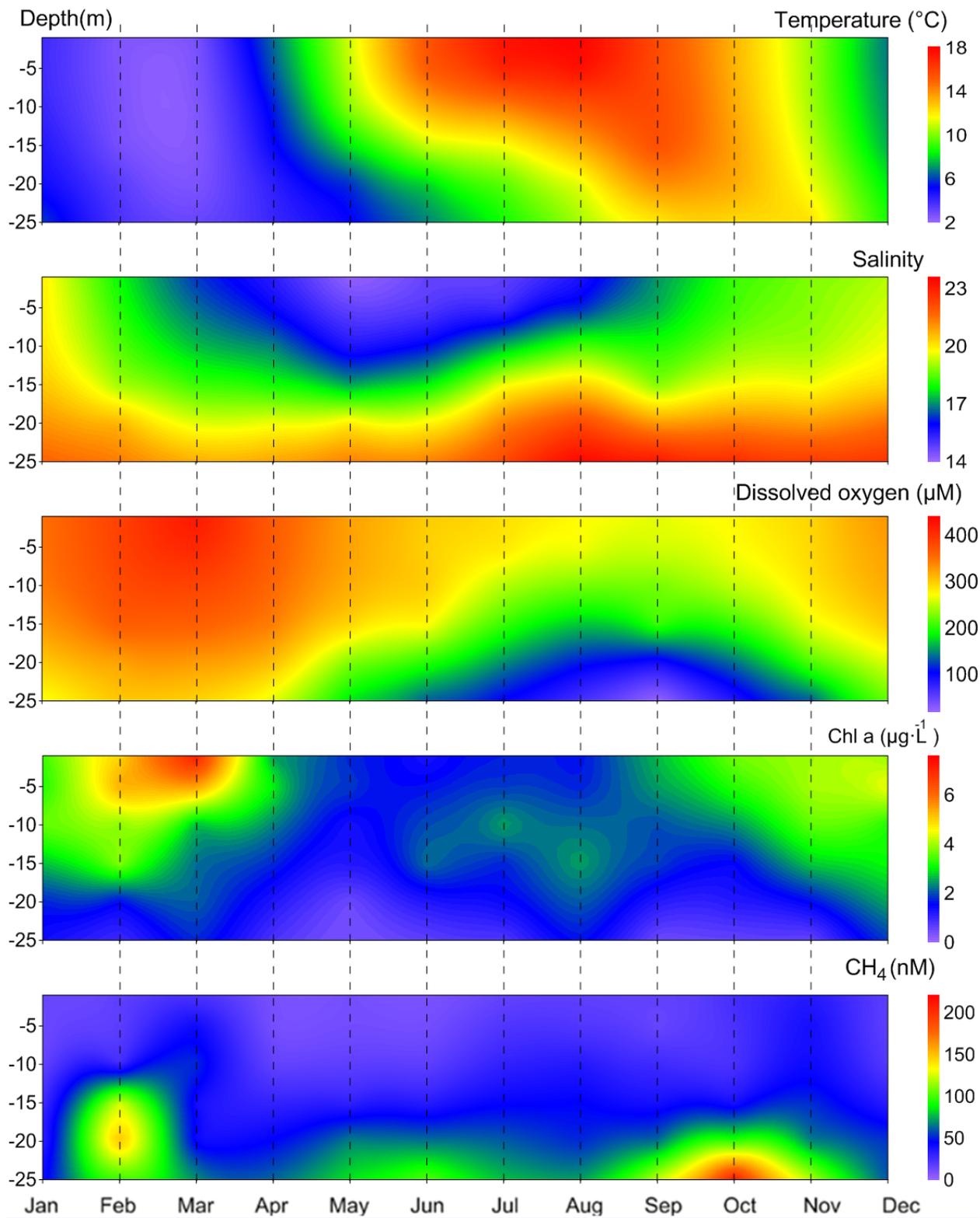
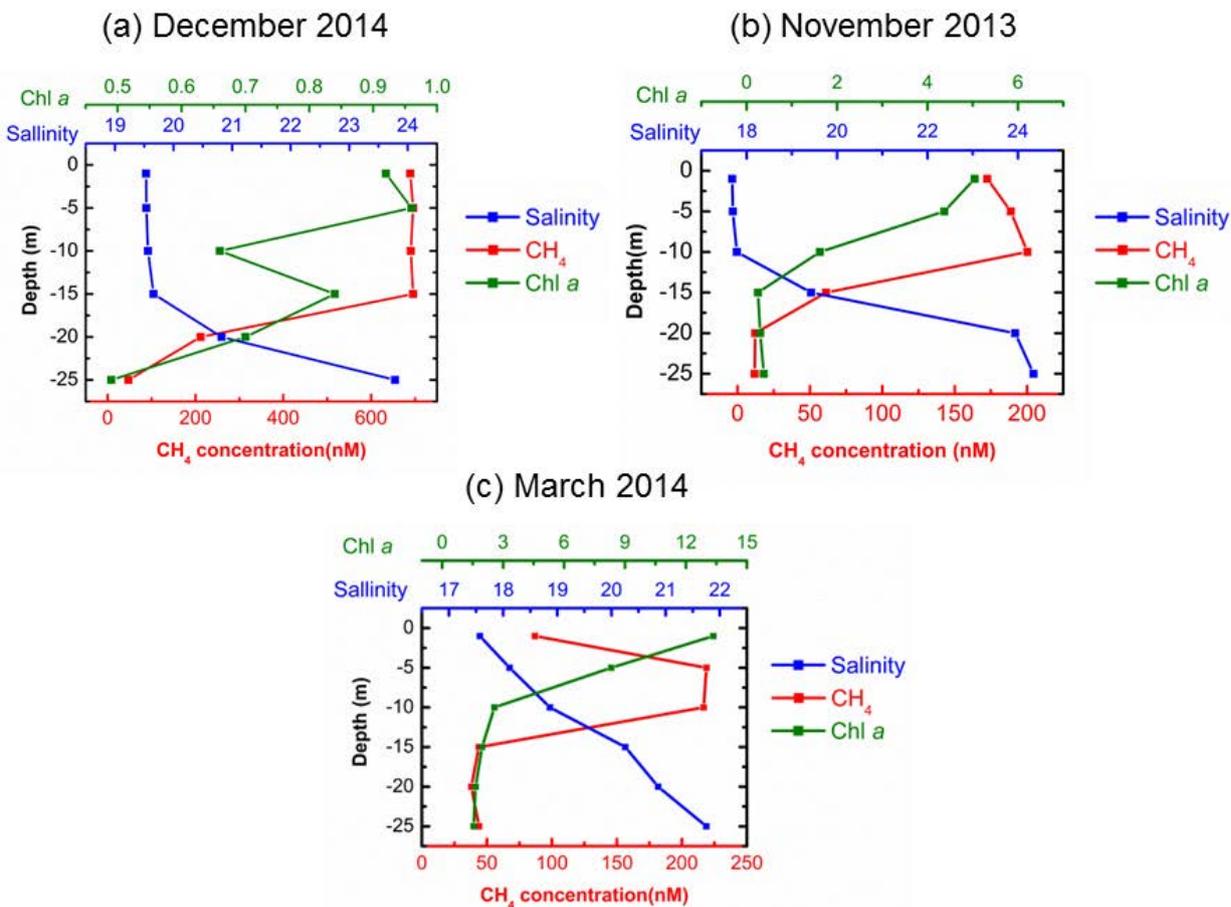
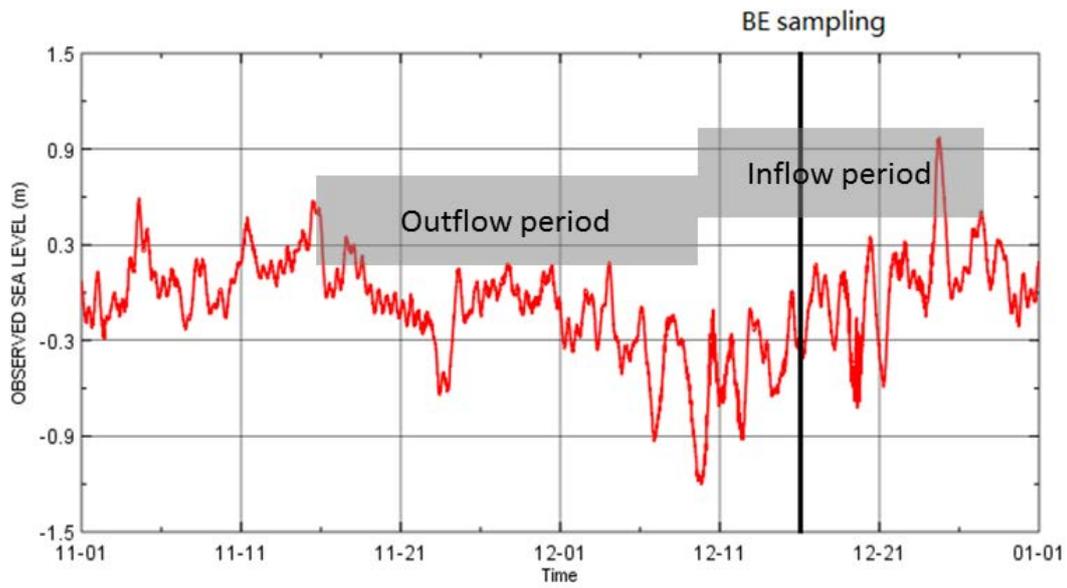


Fig 3. Mean seasonal variations of [temperature](#), [salinity](#), dissolved O₂, Chlorophyll *a* and CH₄ at the BE time-series station during 2006–2017. CH₄ concentrations in December 2014 were excluded in plotting.



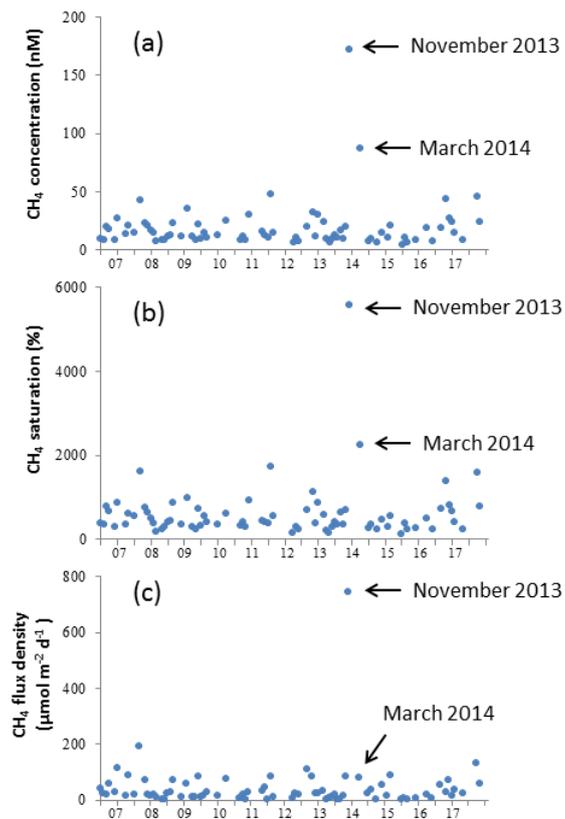
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Fig 4. Vertical distribution of Chlorophyll *a*, salinity and CH₄ concentrations in the water column in December 2014 (a), November 2013 (b) and March 2014 (c).



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Fig 5. Sea level variations in November and December, 2014. The black line indicates the occurrence of BE sampling in December 2014.



530 **Fig 6. Inter-annual variations of dissolved CH₄ concentration (a), saturation (b) and flux density (c) at the BE time-series station during 2006–2017. Data collected from December 2014 were not shown.**

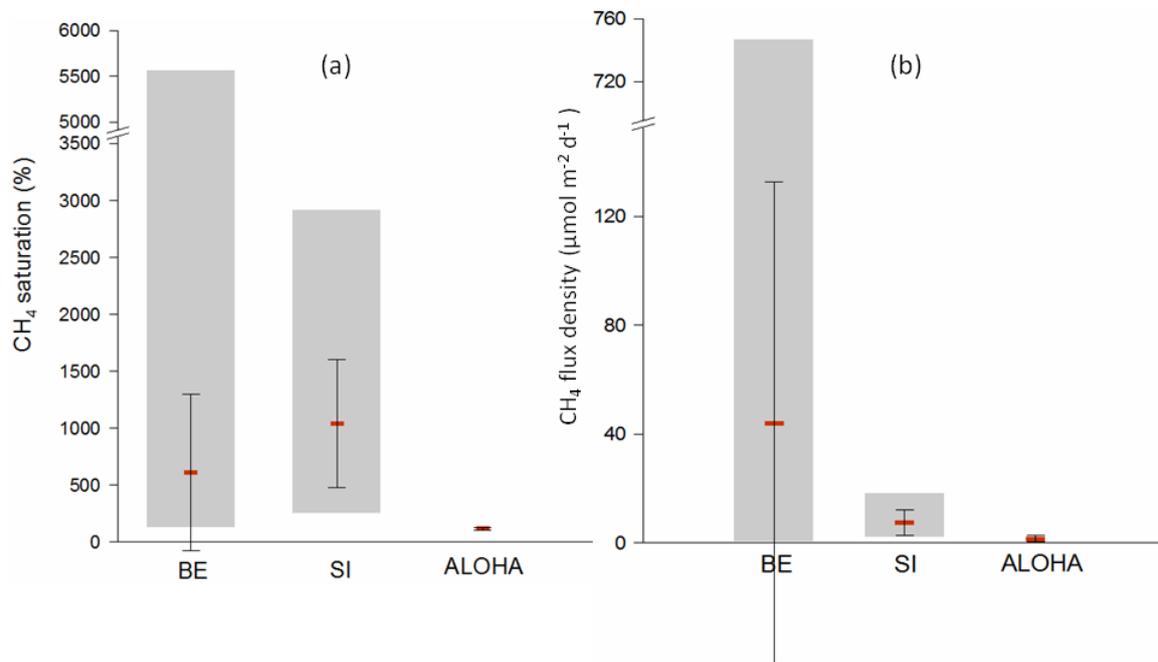


Fig 7. Comparison of surface CH₄ saturations (a) and flux densities (b) from time-series stations of BE, Saanich Inlet (SI) and ALOHA. For the computation of flux density, the equations of Nightingale et al. (2000) and Wanninkhof (2014) were used for SI and ALOHA, respectively. Data in December 2014 at the BE time-series station were not included. Please note the break on the y axis for both charts.

535