



1	Diel and seasonal variability of methane emissions from a shallow
2	and eutrophic pond
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17 Abstract

18	Ponds play a critical role in biogeochemical carbon cycling and have been identified as hot
19	spots of methane (CH4) emission. Yet, most existing studies focused on ponds in the boreal
20	zone and current estimates of the relevance of ponds in global CH4 budgets as well as
21	knowledge of the environmental factors regulating their emissions are poorly constrained. Both
22	nutrient concentration and temperature can potentially alter CH4 dynamics in shallow ponds,
23	but there are still few investigations into the response of CH4 emission to nutrient enrichment
24	and rising temperatures. Here we studied the magnitude and regulation of two CH4 pathways
25	(diffusion and ebullition) from a shallow and eutrophic pond located in the subtropical zone in
26	Central China. Ebullitive fluxes were on average 96.4 mg CH ₄ ·m ⁻² ·d ⁻¹ and contributed 88.6%
27	to the total (diffusive + ebullition) CH4 emissions. Daily CH4 fluxes were related to daily mean
28	water temperature, with ebullition having a stronger temperature dependence than diffusion
29	(Q_{10} of 5.52 vs. 2.05). Relationships between temperature and CH ₄ emission were affected by
30	seasonal variation of the concentration of total phosphorus. The temperature dependence of
31	both ebullitive and diffusive fluxes increased with increasing phosphorous concentration. Our
32	study highlights that increasing eutrophication by anthropogenic impacts and climate warming
33	will increase CH4 emissions from ponds, thus representing a positive feedback mechanism to
34	global warming.

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Keywords: Subtropical pond; eutrophication; Diel pattern; Temperature dependence; CH₄
ebullition;





39 1. Introduction

Methane (CH₄) is an important climate forcing as well as a sensitive indicator of climate change due to its increasing atmospheric concentration and its strong global warming potential, which is 28–36 times higher compared to CO₂ (Houghton et al., 2001; Loulergue et al., 2008). Recent estimates report a 150% increase of atmospheric CH₄ concentration since 1750, which is unprecedented over the last 800,000 years (IPCC, 2014). Therefore, a better understanding of CH₄ sources and sinks is urgently needed.

46 Freshwater ecosystems are important for the biogeochemical processes involved in the cycling of CH₄ (Kirschke et al., 2013; Davidson et al., 2015). There is increasing evidence 47 that freshwaters are a globally significant source of CH₄ (e.g. Lundin et al., 2013). But global 48 CH₄ estimates of freshwaters are based on upscaling of few measurements and still highly 49 uncertain (Rasilo et al., 2015). And before that, numerous ponds and lakes were often 50 51 considered as minor emitters and their importance was neglected compared to wetland emissions (Wik et al., 2016b). Even small ponds were excluded from most estimates of global 52 carbon budgets (Hanson et al., 2007). However, existing observations of CH4 fluxes from 53 lakes and ponds suggest that they are emission hot spots (Bastviken et al., 2011; Natchimuthu 54 55 et al., 2014; Wik et al., 2016a). Especially the small ponds, comprising the majority of lentic aquatic systems (Downing et al., 2006), tend to have higher dissolved CH4 concentration than 56 larger lakes (Downing et al., 2008; Holgerson, 2015). Holgerson and Raymond (2016) found 57 58 that very small ponds accounted for 40.6% of diffusive CH₄ emissions from lakes and ponds globally, due to their shallow depth, high sediment to water volume ratios, and frequent 59 mixing. Wik et al. (2016a) compared CH₄ emissions from water bodies north of 50°N, and 60





found that small ponds are an important source of CH₄ in northern latitudes. Nevertheless,
current data on the abundance, size, and rate of carbon emissions of small ponds are scarce,
which may lead to considerable bias at the regional and global scale (Hanson et al., 2007).
More research on the cycling of the CH₄ in ponds will be beneficial to more accurately quantify
carbon fluxes from inland waters (Holgerson and Raymond, 2016).

Several studies have explored the dynamics of CH₄ concentrations and fluxes and have 66 linked them to the pond depth and size, weather variables, organic carbon loading and 67 68 nutrient status (Hamilton and Kelly, 1994; Kankaala et al., 2013; Xiao et al., 2014; 69 Natchimuthu et al., 2014; Holgerson, 2015; Burger et al., 2016). Yet, some studies often relied on short term (30 min) measurements at monthly intervals and temporal variability was poorly 70 resolved (Peixoto et al., 2015). There is still a lack of robust relationships between pond CH4 71 and its potential drivers that could facilitate temporal prediction and spatial extrapolation. In 72 73 addition, most of the studies on CH4 fluxes from ponds are from the boreal zone, which limits our understanding of inland water carbon cycling at larger scales. 74

CH₄ can be emitted from aquatic systems through different pathways, including ebullition 75 (bubble emission from sediments) and diffusion (gas exchange at the air-water interface). 76 77 Small and shallow ponds are expected to become hot spots of ebullition due to limited stratification, sediment temperature being strongly related to atmospheric temperature, and 78 direct solar warming of the sediments (Aben et al., 2017). However, most studies focused on 79 80 diffusive fluxes and neglected the large emission component of ebullition (Aben et al., 2017). In fact, eutrophic ponds have greater potential for CH₄ ebullition because they accumulate 81 82 more organic carbon (Downing et al., 2008; Anderson et al., 2014). Increasing eutrophication





- of aquatic ecosystems by human activities may eventually promote CH₄ ebullition, and the
 strongest increase in ebullition can be expected in shallow water bodies (West et al., 2016;
 Aben et al., 2017).
- In addition, carbon dynamics in small ponds may be more sensitive to seasonal variation, 86 87 such as temperature change (Holgerson, 2015). The proportion of ebullitive and diffusive fluxes to total CH₄ emissions may be disproportionally affected by changes in temperature 88 and the temperature dependence of CH4 fluxes is different with different degrees of aquatic 89 90 eutrophication (DelSontro et al., 2016). However, there is still no corresponding model basis to evaluate how the magnitude and relative contributions of CH₄ ebullition and diffusion may 91 respond to climatic and environmental changes, including global warming and cultural 92 eutrophication. 93

This study analyzes CH₄ emissions from a subtropical, shallow and small eutrophic pond in Central China, measured with floating chambers at high temporal resolution (diel variations). We aim at: 1) quantifying CH₄ emissions including diffusive flux and ebullition, with a particular focus on ebullition and its contribution to total CH₄ fluxes; 2) identifying their main influencing factors; and 3) assessing the temperature dependence of ebullitive and diffusive fluxes with different degrees of aquatic eutrophication.

100 2. Materials and methods

101 2.1 Study area and monitoring sites

The study was conducted in a small and shallow pond, which is located on the campus of China Three Gorges University, Yichang city, Hubei province, Central China (111°18′23″E, 30°43′24″N). The region is under a subtropical continental monsoon climate regime. The





105	average depth of the pond is 1.2 m, and its area is approximately 4000 m^2 . The pond bottom
106	was solidified with concrete in 2002-2003 and is now covered with about 20 cm of soft
107	sediments. The main sources of water are natural rainfall and drainage water from streets.
108	Twelve monthly field campaigns, resolving diurnal variations respectively, were conducted
109	between 19 January and 29 December, 2016. All measurements were done at the same sampling
110	site, which was located 0.5 m away from the bank where water depth was ~ 0.7 m.
111	2.2 In situ CH ₄ flux measurement
112	CH4 flux was measured using a static floating chamber and followed the methods described
113	in Xiao et al. (2014). The chamber was made of a non-transparent, thermally insulated vertical
114	tube with a volume of 43.30 L and a surface area of 0.096 m^2 (diameter and height are 0.35 and
115	0.45 m respectively). Two fans (12 V, 0.22 A) were fixed in the upper part of the chamber to
116	properly mix the air in the chamber headspace while not disturbing the water surface. The
117	chamber was connected to a CH4 Analyzer (G2301, Picarro, USA), which was used to monitor
118	the CH ₄ concentrations inside the chamber continuously at a frequency of 1 Hz. One buoy was
119	fixed at the lower portion of the chamber, allowing for precise adjustment of the penetration
120	depth of the chamber edge into the water. We used 5 cm penetration depth and only the
121	headspace volume above the water surface was taken into account when calculating the gas
122	flux.
123	Each field campaign was conducted for 24 hours. A single flux measurement was usually
124	finished within 20 minutes and 48 consecutive measurements were conducted during each field
125	campaign. When there was no or little ebullition, CH ₄ concentration in the chamber headspace

126 increased nearly linearly over time and single linear regression was used to estimate the





127	diffusive flux of CH ₄ (D_{CH4} , mg CH ₄ ·m ⁻² ·h ⁻¹) (Lambert and Fréchette, 2005). When gas bubbles
128	occurred, the gas concentration in the chamber increased abruptly. Under this situation, the
129	flux due to bubble emission (CH4 ebullition, B_{CH4} , mg CH4·m ⁻² ·h ⁻¹) was estimated using the
130	method described in detail by Xiao et al. (2014). Bubbles were not observed in all 48 chamber
131	deployments during the daily campaigns. Thus, the frequency of daily CH ₄ bubbling (F_{BCH4})
132	was estimated as:
133	$F_{BCH4} = \frac{Deployments with Bubbles}{48} \times 100\% $ (Eq.1)
134	The daily total CH ₄ flux (T_{CH4} , mg CH ₄ ·m ⁻² ·d ⁻¹) was the sum of daily total D _{CH4} and daily
135	total B _{CH4} .
136	2.3 Model approach
137	To describe the temperature dependence of CH4 fluxes, we used a modified Arrhenius
138	equation (Aben et al., 2017):
139	$F_{CH4} = F_{20} \times e^{b \times (T-20)}$ (Eq.2)
140	F_{CH4} is the CH ₄ flux at temperature $T(^{\circ}C)$; F_{20} and b are the empirical coefficients; F_{20} is the
141	CH ₄ flux at 20 °C. This model can be reorganized as a Q_{10} relationship with b:
142	$b = (\ln Q_{10})/10 $ (Eq.3)
143	Q_{10} corresponds to the proportional change in the process per 10 °C change in temperature.
144	2.4 Other measurements
145	Air temperature (Ta, °C), air pressure (Pa, hPa), wind speed (w, m s ⁻¹) and water
146	temperatures (<i>Tw</i> , °C), and chlorophyll a concentration (<i>Chl-a</i> , μ g L ⁻¹) were measured every
147	20 minutes during all diel field campaigns. Ta, and Pa were measured using a handheld weather
148	meter (YGY-QXY, China). Tw was measured using a multi-parameter probe (Hydrolab DS5,





149	HACH, US). Water samples were collected at the beginning of each field campaign. These
150	samples were used to measure the concentrations of Chl-a, total nitrogen (TN) and total
151	phosphorus (TP). Chl-a was determined by using the national standard method (Wang et al.,
152	2002). TN and TP were analyzed spectrophotometrically with a continuous flow autoanalyzer
153	(Skalar Analytical, B.V., Breda, Netherlands). Wind speed was measured with a portable aero
154	vane at 2 m height.
155	2.5 Statistical analysis

All data were checked for normality using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Pearson's correlations coefficients and linear regressions were used to study the relationships between CH₄ flux and environmental factors. Stepwise linear regressions were performed for relevant combinations of variables. We further estimated seasonal average of variable and defined December, January and February as winter, March to May as spring, June to August as summer, and September to November as autumn.

162 **3. Results**

163 3.1 Variations in environmental factors

Diel and seasonal variations in environmental parameters are summarized in Fig.1. Wind speed was too low to be measured during most campaigns (maximum wind speed was < 1.5 m s⁻¹) and disregarded from further analysis. Air temperature (*Ta*) and water temperature (*Tw*) had significant diel and seasonal changes. The diurnal variation of *Ta* (Δ *Ta*) was greater than that of *Tw* (Δ *Tw*) (Table 1). The maximum Δ *Ta* (27.5°C) and Δ *Tw* (10.1°C) occurred on 28 February and the minimum Δ *Ta* (3.4°C) and Δ *Tw* (1.3°C) occurred on 20 November. The maximum daily mean air temperature (*Ta*) was 29.6°C and was recorded on 17 July, and the

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171	minimum value was 5.5°C and was measured on 19 January. The extremes in the daily mean
172	water temperatures (\overline{Tw}), 30.5 and 8.6°C, were recorded on 29 August and 19 January (Table
173	1). There were significant seasonal changes of air pressure (Pa) and chlorophyll a (Chl-a) (Fig
174	1). The diurnal variation of air pressure (ΔPa) was small. The maximum ΔPa occurred in 29
175	December and the minimum in 27 October. The maximum daily mean air pressure (\overline{Pa}) was
176	recorded on 29 December, and the minimum value was measured on 17 July. Both diurnal and
177	seasonal variations of chlorophyll a (Chl-a) ranged widely (Table 1). The maximum diurnal
178	variations of Chl-a occurred in 26 April and the minimum in 29 December. The maximum and
179	the minimum daily mean chlorophyll a ($\overline{Chl-a}$) were recorded on 29 June and 20 November,
180	respectively (27.6 μ g L ⁻¹ to 477.7 μ g L ⁻¹). With <i>TN</i> and <i>TP</i> ranging from 1.36 mg·L ⁻¹ to 5.3
181	$mg \cdot L^{-1}$ and 0.04 $mg \cdot L^{-1}$ to 0.86 $mg \cdot L^{-1}$, respectively, the pond can be classified as eutrophic.
182	Both nutrient concentrations were highest in September (Table 1).

We averaged environmental factors in the different seasons and found that Ta, Tw and Chl-a 183 were the highest in summer and the lowest in winter, while Pa was the highest in winter and 184 the lowest in summer. There were no significant differences in Ta, Tw, Pa and Chl-a between 185 spring and autumn. TN and TP were highest in autumn and lowest in winter (supplemental 186 187 Table 1).

188 3.2 CH₄ fluxes

Diffusive CH₄ fluxes 189

190 The diffusive flux of CH₄ (D_{CH4}) from the pond showed obvious but irregular diurnal and seasonal variations (Fig 1). The maximum daily mean diffusive flux $(\overline{D_{CH4}})$ was 0.207 ± 0.009 191 mg CH₄·m⁻²·h⁻¹ (mean ± standard error), observed on 18 May. The minimum $\overline{D_{CH4}}$ (0.011 ± 192





193 0.001 mg CH₄·m⁻²·h⁻¹) was on 20 November. D_{CH4} was highest in spring (0.146 ± 0.005 mg 194 CH₄·m⁻²·h⁻¹) and lowest in winter (0.103 ± 0.006 mg CH₄·m⁻²·h⁻¹). D_{CH4} in summer was higher 195 than that in autumn. On average, the daily diffusive CH₄ flux of the pond in 2016 was 2.4 ± 0.5 196 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹ (Table 2).

The highest diel variability in D_{CH4} (ΔD_{CH4}) was observed on 28 February, ranged from 197 0.083 to 0.455 mg CH₄·m⁻²·h⁻¹. The lowest ΔD_{CH4} was observed on 20 November, ranged from 198 0.005 to 0.022 mg CH₄·m⁻²·h⁻¹. The peak value in 24 h was different during each diel field 199 200 campaigns. Most of the highest fluxes were observed in the middle of the day or afternoon, 201 when temperatures were higher, such as on 28 February, when D_{CH4} peaked at 16:00 h. Some 202 of the daily maxima occurred when temperatures began to rise rapidly, such as on 16 July, when D_{CH4} peaked at 8:30 h. Accordingly, most of the lowest diffusive fluxed occurred at night or 203 early in the morning, when temperatures were lowest or temperatures began to decrease (Fig 204 205 1).

206 *CH*₄*ebullition fluxes*

Ebullition mainly occurred from May to September, when CH4 bubbling was not only more 207 frequent (F_{BCH4} exceeding 70%) but also more abundant (Fig 1). Variations of CH4 ebullition 208 were rather random and irregular. Most of the maximum CH₄ ebullition fluxes (B_{CH4}) during 209 the daily campaign occurred between 0:00 h and 4:00 h, when temperatures were decreasing 210 211 (such as on 28 February). Some of the maximum B_{CH4} were observed in the afternoon (between) 212 (15:00 h and 16:00 h), when temperatures were higher (such as on 17 July), while the maximum $B_{\rm CH4}$ were observed in the morning (about at 6:00 h), when temperatures were lower during 213 other sampling campaigns (such as on 26 April). The relative frequency of occurrence of CH4 214



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216	January and 20 November) to 97.9% (observed on 29 June) (Table 2). Daily total CH ₄ ebullition
217	fluxes ranged from 0.3 (on November 20) to 319.9 (on June 29) mg $CH_4 \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1}$. On average,
218	the daily total CH ₄ ebullition flux in 2016 was 96.4 ± 30.5 mg CH ₄ ·m ⁻² ·d ⁻¹ .
219	The total daily CH ₄ flux ($T_{CH4} = D_{CH4+} B_{CH4}$) ranged from 0.5 (on 20 November) to 322.7
220	(on 29 June) mg CH ₄ ·m ⁻² ·d ⁻¹ , and the mean daily T_{CH4} was 98.7 ± 30.7 mg CH ₄ ·m ⁻² ·d ⁻¹ (Table
221	2). The contribution of ebullition (B_{CH4}) to the total flux ranged from 51.8% (on 20 November)
222	to 99.1% (on 29 June). The average daily total CH4 bubble emissions accounted for 88.6% of

bubbling during the diurnal sampling campaigns (F_{BCH4}) ranged from 4.2% (observed on 19

- the total CH_4 flux (Table 2).
- 224 3.3 CH₄ fluxes and environmental factors

Correlation analysis was conducted for D_{CH4} and B_{CH4} obtained from individual chamber 225 deployments, and environmental variables sampled at sub-daily resolution (Table 3). D_{CH4} was 226 positively correlated (p < 0.01) with Tw, Ta and Chl-a, while negatively (p < 0.01) correlated 227 with Pa and the temperature difference between water and air ($\Delta T = Tw - Ta$). B_{CH4} was 228 positively correlated with Tw, Ta and Chl-a, and negatively correlated with Pa, but not 229 230 significantly correlated with $\Delta T (p = 0.372)$. There was a significant positive correlation between D_{CH4} and B_{CH4} (p < 0.01). We explored potential drivers of D_{CH4} and B_{CH4} using 231 stepwise linear regressions (Table 4 and 5). Ta could explain most variations in D_{CH4} ($r^2 = 0.25$, 232 p < 0.001) and the best multiple regression model included Ta, Pa, and B_{CH4}, which increased 233 the r^2 to 0.28 (p < 0.001). Tw could explain most variations in B_{CH4} ($r^2 = 0.14$, p < 0.001) and 234 the best multiple regression model included Tw, Chl-a, and $\Delta T (r^2 = 0.20, p < 0.001)$. 235

236 Correlations between CH₄ fluxes and environmental factors in different seasons were





analyzed (Table 3, 4 and 5). The result showed that Tw was the main factor determining CH₄ fluxes of the pond in autumn, while *Chl-a* was the main factor in summer. Moreover, the main factors determining CH₄ fluxes varied slightly according to CH₄ emission pathway in different season. For diffusion, *Ta* was the main factor in winter; while *Tw* and *Chl-a* were the main factors in spring. For ebullition, *Chl-a* was the main but not strong factor in winter; while the ΔT and *Ta* were the main factors in spring.

We additionally analyzed the relationships between daily total diffusive CH₄ flux (T_{DCH4}), daily total CH₄ ebullition (T_{BCH4}), the frequency of daily CH₄ bubbling (F_{BCH4}) and daily mean values of environmental factors (Table 6). Daily T_{BCH4} and F_{BCH4} were positively correlated with each other and both were positively correlated with \overline{Tw} , \overline{Ta} and \overline{Chl} - \overline{a} , while negatively correlated with \overline{Pa} . Daily T_{DCH4} was marginal positively correlated with \overline{Tw} , \overline{Ta} , T_{BCH4} and F_{BCH4} , while negatively correlated with \overline{Pa} . Through stepwise regression, we only obtained a model for daily T_{BCH4} : $T_{BCH4} = -110.47 + 10.17$ \overline{Tw} ($r^2 = 0.49$, p = 0.011).

The magnitude of the diurnal variation of diffusive CH₄ fluxes (ΔD_{CH4} is difference between 250 maximum flux and minimum flux), daily total B_{CH4}, the frequency of daily CH4 bubbling 251 (F_{BCH4}) was analyzed with respected to the diel variation of measured parameters (see 252 253 supplemental Table 2). These analyses showed that ΔD_{CH4} was positively correlated with ΔT_W and Δ Ta. Through stepwise regression, the best multiple regression model for Δ D_{CH4} was 254 obtained: $\Delta D_{CH4} = 0.01 + 0.036 \Delta T_W (r^2 = 0.63, p < 0.001)$. F_{BCH4} was positively correlated 255 256 with ΔD_{CH4} , and daily total B_{CH4} was positively correlated with F_{BCH4} . Although daily total $B_{\rm CH4}$ was not significantly correlated with ΔTw , we found larger ebullition rates for larger Δ 257 Tw for conditions with nearly equal water temperature. For example, the daily mean Tw on 28 258





259	February (16.1°C) was close to that on 25 March (16.3°C), yet ΔTw on 28 February was much
260	higher (10.1°C) than that on 25 March (2.8°C). As a result, daily amount of CH ₄ ebullition on
261	28 February (T_{BCH4} , 52.0 mg CH ₄ ·m ⁻² ·d ⁻¹) was obviously higher than that on 25 March (18.3
262	mg CH ₄ ·m ⁻² ·d ⁻¹). This phenomenon was also seen on 29 December and 19 January (Table 1and
263	2).
264	3.4 Influence of temperature on diffusion and ebullition
265	We bin-averaged gas fluxes according to the temperature difference between the surface
266	water and air ($\Delta T = Tw - Ta$) (Fig 2). The results showed that under $\Delta T < 0$ °C, there was a
267	significant negative linear relationship between D_{CH4} and $\Delta T (R^2 = 0.70)$. While ΔT was
268	positive but smaller than 5 °C, D_{CH4} increased slowly. When ΔT was exceeding 5 °C, D_{CH4}
269	decreased. Besides, when ΔT was nearly zero ($-1 < \Delta T < 1$ °C), the averaged diffusive CH ₄
270	fluxes $(0.091 \pm 0.011 \text{ mg CH}_4 \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{h}^{-1})$ was not significantly different from the mean diffusive
271	CH ₄ flux for the entire year (0.098 \pm 0.019 mg CH ₄ ·m ⁻² ·h ⁻¹). We also compared the averaged
272	diffusive CH ₄ fluxes under $-1 \le \Delta T \le 1$ °C with daily mean diffusive CH ₄ flux each month
273	(See supplemental Table 3), and found that there were no significant differences between them
274	except for 29 August.
275	CH4 ebullition (B_{CH4}) and the frequency of CH4 bubbling (F_{BCH4}) under different ΔT

showed that when ΔT was near zero ($-1 < \Delta T < 1$ °C), F_{BCH4} was about 30%, and ebullition ranged between 117 ~ 136 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹, which was close to the average CH₄ ebullition flux (96.4 ± 30.5 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹). When $\Delta T > 1$ °C and $\Delta T < -1$ °C, F_{BCH4} started to increase. Meanwhile the ebullition flux increased substantially when $1 < \Delta T < 5$ °C and $-3 < \Delta T < -1$ °C; yet when $\Delta T > 5$ °C and $\Delta T < -3$ °C, the bubbling flux decreased sharply (Fig. 3).





281 3.5 Temperature dependency of CH₄ fluxes

Temperature was the strongest predictor for seasonal variations of D_{CH4} and B_{CH4} . We 282 calculated the temperature dependence of CH4 fluxes in terms of Q_{10} (Fig 4). The results 283 showed that the Q_{10} of daily total D_{CH4} of \overline{Tw} and \overline{Ta} were 2.05 and 1.87, respectively. While 284 the Q_{10} of daily total B_{CH4} of \overline{Tw} and \overline{Ta} were 5.52 and 4.38, respectively. 285 We further explored Q_{10} of ebullition and diffusive emissions for a range of TP 286 concentrations (Table 7). Both ebullition and diffusion responded slightly stronger to Tw than 287 288 to Ta regardless of TP concentrations. For diffusion, Q_{10} increased with TP concentration when the averaged TP was below 0.4 mg·L⁻¹. For example, when the averaged TP was 0.05 mg·L⁻¹, 289 the Q_{10} of the diffusive CH₄ flux for Tw and Ta were 1.29 and 1.27, respectively. When the 290 averaged TP was 0.4 mg·L⁻¹, the Q_{10} of the diffusive CH₄ flux to Tw and Ta increased to 7.52 291 and 5.23, respectively. However, when averaged TP was higher than 0.8 mg·L⁻¹, its Q_{10} tended 292 293 to decline. For ebullition, although there was no exponential relationship when TP was $0.2 \sim$ $0.4 \text{ mg} \cdot L^{-1}$, Q_{10} also tended to increase with TP concentration. For example, when averaged TP 294 was 0.05 mg·L⁻¹, Q_{10} of CH₄ ebullition flux to Tw and Ta were 1.32 and 1.15, respectively. 295 When averaged TP was exceeding $0.8 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$, Q_{10} increased to 3.29 and 2.06, respectively. 296 297 4. Discussion

298 4.1 Contribution of diffusion and ebullition to total CH₄ emissions

The diffusive CH₄ fluxes from the studied pond were on average 2.36 ± 0.07 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹, which is close to the mean diffusive CH₄ fluxes of ponds and small lakes with sizes between 0.1 and 1 km² (2.56 mg CH₄ m⁻²·d⁻¹, Holgerson and Raymond, 2016). However, the diffusive CH₄ fluxes were lower than what has been reported. The diffusive fluxes from a shallow





eutrophic lake in southern Brazil, estimated from summer and winter, were 9.35 and 2.17 mg CH₄ m⁻²·d⁻¹, respectively (Palma-Silva et al., 2013). The mean diffusive flux from a tropical pond in India was 49.6 mg CH₄ m⁻²·d⁻¹ (the high diffusive flux from one pond was 324.8 mg CH₄ m⁻²·d⁻¹) (Panneer Selvam et al., 2014). DelSontro et al. (2016) found an average diffusive CH₄ flux of 57.6 mg CH₄ m⁻²·d⁻¹ (from May to November) from ten shallow and vegetated beaver ponds in Canada, which was more than one order of magnitude higher than the diffusive fluxes observed in the present study.

310 CH₄ ebullition fluxes both in summer and winter in the study (See supplemental Table 1) ranged within the bubble CH₄ emissions reported by PalmaSilva et al. (2013) from a shallow 311 eutrophic lake in southern Brazil. The average CH₄ ebullition flux in our study was 96.4 ± 30.5 312 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹, comparable to the mean ebullition flux from the tropical region in India (112 313 mg m⁻² d^{-1})(Panneer Selvam et al., 2014), while obviously higher than the fluxes reported from 314 lakes in northern Sweden (22.0 mg $CH_4 \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1}$) (Wik et al., 2013), shallow beaver ponds in 315 Canada (73.6 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹) (DelSontro et al., 2016), and eight small thaw ponds in northern 316 Sweden (20.0 mg CH₄·m^{-2·d⁻¹}) (Burke et al., 2019), all of which are located at high latitudes. 317 The mean total CH₄ flux of the pond (T_{CH4}) during the whole field investigations was 98.7 318 $[0.5 - 322.7] \pm 30.7$ mg·CH₄·m⁻² d⁻¹ (mean [range] \pm SD, Table 2), which was lower than the 319 ponds (286.4 [3.2 - 833.6] mg·CH₄·m⁻² d⁻¹), and higher than the lakes (64 [0.32 - 284.8]320 mg·CH₄·m⁻² d⁻¹) from the tropical region in India (Panneer Selvam et al., 2014) and from a 321 322 small shallow pond in Sweden (128 [52.8 – 241.6] mg·CH₄·m⁻²d⁻¹) (Natchimuthu et al., 2014). A growing body of research has found that ebullition contributed largely to the total CH₄ 323

emissions, such as on average 91 % of the total CH4 emissions from a small pond in Sweden





325	(its average depth was 1.2 m) (Natchimuthu et al., 2014), 56% from the beaver ponds in Canada
326	(DelSontro et al., 2016), 75% from forty-five aquatic systems in the tropical region of India
327	(Panneer Selvam et al., 2014), and 40-60 % in lakes (Bastviken et al., 2004). In our study,
328	the average contributions of CH ₄ ebullition to the total CH ₄ flux was at the higher range of
329	observations (88.6%), indicating that ebullition played a major role in CH_4 emissions from the
330	shallow pond studied here. The result confirms that ebullition is an important pathway for CH_4
331	transport to the atmosphere in shallow aquatic systems, such as ponds (Casper et al., 2000;
332	DelSontro et al., 2016). The larger importance of ebullition in shallow water can be related to
333	the low hydrostatic pressure in the sediment (Bastviken et al., 2004), which reduces the
334	dissolved gas concentration that is required for bubble formation.

Eutrophication could be a contributing factor in the relatively high contribution of ebullition to overall CH₄ flux in our study. The pond studied here was highly eutrophic, with *TP*, *TN* and *Chl-a* exceeding those observed for the beaver ponds in Canada (DelSontro et al., 2016). Eutrophic systems tend to accumulate more organic carbon (Anderson et al., 2014). When substrate is not limiting, there is a greater potential for CH₄ ebullition, thus leading to higher total CH₄ emissions as bubbles directly transport CH₄ to the atmosphere with limited exposure to oxidation (DelSontro et al., 2010).

342 4.2 Influence of temperature on CH₄ flux

Many studies, including field measurements, indicated that temperature affects CH4 emissions (Duc et al., 2010; Xing et al., 2005; Natchimuthu et al., 2014; Wik et al., 2014; Aben et al., 2017). In our case, both diffusive and ebullition CH₄ fluxes were positively correlated with *Tw* and *Ta*. For example, variations in *Tw* explained as much as 71 % of the variation in





diffusion and 33 % of the variation in ebullition in autumn and variations in Ta explained 54 % 347 348 of the variation in diffusion in winter. Besides, diurnal variation of Tw (ΔTw) explained 63 % of the variation of the diurnal pattern of diffusive CH₄ emissions (ΔD_{CH4}). Altogether, our 349 findings confirm that temperature is among the strongest predictors for CH₄ emissions. 350 351 Methanogenesis is highly temperature dependent (Zimov et al., 1997; Van Hulzen et al., 1999), and higher temperature results in higher CH₄ production rates. In our study, the correlation 352 between Tw and diffusive CH₄ flux was almost as strong that with Ta. Yet, ebullition was more 353 strongly correlated with Tw than Ta (Table 3 and Table 6), variations in daily Tw explained 354 355 49 % of the variation in daily total CH₄ ebullition (p = 0.011). Wik et al. (2014) determined sediment temperature to be a significant driver of ebullitive CH₄ flux from shallow lakes. 356 Although the temperature of sediment was not measured in our study, it was mainly controlled 357 by water temperature. For shallow ponds, CH₄ is mainly formed in anoxic sediments, and 358 359 sediment temperature is likely to increase with air and water temperature. CH₄ emissions may increase with increasing temperature due to the direct temperature effect on methanogenesis in 360 shallow sediments (Bastviken et al., 2008). In addition, ebullition dominated the CH4 emission 361 in our pond, which might be another reason that CH4 flux depends on the temperature. Because 362 363 ebullition largely escapes methane oxidation in the system, it is more directly related to methane production rates in sediments than diffusive emissions (Natchimuthu et al., 2014; 364 Wilkinson et al., 2015). Thus, ebullition responds more directly to Tw because of the 365 366 stimulatory effects of high temperature on methanogenesis without the confounding effect of methane oxidation. 367

368 Convective mixing during nighttime cooling of the water column has been found to coincide





369	with pulses of CH ₄ emissions in wetlands (Poindexter, 2016). When the difference between
370	water and air temperature was positive, the diffusive gas fluxed can be expected to be enhanced
371	by high gas exchange velocities (MacIntyre et al., 2001). In our study, when $0 < \Delta T < 5$ °C,
372	the diffusive CH4 flux increased slowly, but CH4 ebullition increased substantially, indicating
373	that the CH ₄ flux might be strongly enhanced due to thermal convection. However, when ΔT
374	was exceeding 5 °C, both diffusion and ebullition tended to decrease. That time was mainly
375	concentrated in the early morning, the temperature was usually the lowest, and lower CH4 flux
376	was mainly limited by low temperature. When $\Delta T < -3$ °C, the bubbling flux decreased sharply,
377	while diffusive CH ₄ flux increased linearly, indicating that diffusion was an important pathway
378	for CH ₄ transport to the atmosphere when the weather was sunny, and air temperature increased
379	more quickly than water temperature. Furthermore, when air temperature was close to water
380	temperature, diffusive fluxes and ebullition were close to their long-term mean values.

381 4.3 Effects of eutrophication on temperature dependence of CH₄ fluxes

We calculated the temperature dependence of CH₄ fluxes in terms of the temperature 382 coefficient Q_{10} , which was defined by DelSontro et al. (2016) as an "ecosystem-level" Q_{10} , 383 representing the combining effects of multiple biotic and abiotic factors. O_{10} values in beaver 384 ponds varied slightly according to CH4 emission pathway and bubbling appeared to be more 385 sensitive to temperature than the diffusive pathway (DelSontro et al., 2016). In our study, the 386 Q_{10} of CH₄ diffusion in respect to \overline{Tw} and \overline{Ta} were 2.05 and 1.87, respectively; while the Q_{10} 387 of CH₄ ebullition of \overline{Tw} and \overline{Ta} were 5.52 and 4.38, respectively. Our values were 388 comparable to those estimated for subtropical and temperate eutrophic city ponds (Q_{10} ranged 389 from $1.63 \sim 6.73$) (Aben et al., 2017). In contrast to the beaver ponds in Canada, whose average 390





 Q_{10} values for ebullition and diffusion fluxes to sediment temperature were 13 and 10, respectively (DelSontro et al., 2016), our Q_{10} values were lower. Our study also showed that there was a higher temperature sensitivity of bubbling from the ponds, compared to diffusive fluxes. The reason could be due to its very shallow nature and shallow sediment layer, which could cause frequent ebullition and thus promote a more erratic ebullition versus temperature pattern (Wik et al., 2018).

The strong temperature dependence of CH₄ fluxes in our study might be related to its higher 397 398 productivity. High nutrient concentration promotes the productivity and algal growth (West et al., 2012). The study from the beaver ponds in Canada showed that the temperature dependence 399 of CH₄ fluxes increased with TP, and the temperature dependence of ebullition was 400 disproportionately enhanced by ecosystem productivity relative to diffusion (DelSontro et al., 401 2016). The authors pointed out that as system productivity and the supply of organic matter 402 403 increased, the CH₄ production was increasingly regulated by temperature (DelSontro et al., 2016). A mesocosm-based study in shallow aquatic systems revealed synergistic effect from 404 combination of nutrient enrichment and experimental warming, causing an increasing mean 405 annual ebullition rate; while the diffusive flux remained unaffected by nutrient enrichment but 406 407 had a largely positive response to temperature treatment (Davidson, 2018). In our case, Q_{10} of both ebullitive and diffusive fluxes increased with system TP within a certain TP range. 408 However, the temperature dependence of diffusive fluxes was more sensitive to ecosystem 409 410 productivity when compared to ebullition. A likely reason for this may be the low frequency of bubbles, which needs more work to be verified. 411

412 **5. Conclusions**





413	The subtropical, shallow, small and eutrophic pond emitted on average $98.7 \pm 30.7 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-1}$
414	2 ·d ⁻¹ of CH ₄ . Ebullition was quantitatively most important, accounting for 51.8% to 99.1% of
415	the total CH4 emission. A positive correlation between temperature and CH4 fluxes shows that
416	there are likely positive feedbacks of aquatic CH4 fluxes to global warming. The temperature
417	dependence of the CH ₄ fluxes increased with increasing nutrient concentration. By combing
418	these facts, we conclude that the increasing cultural eutrophication and global warming
419	promote increasing atmospheric CH4 emissions from these vastly abundant aquatic
420	ecosystems.
421	6. Data availability
422	The data published in this contribution can be accessed by email request to the corresponding
423	author.

424 7. Author contribution

- 425 In this work, W.L.Z analyzed the data and wrote the article, S.B.X designed the experiment,
- 426 H.X, J.L and D.L performed the experiment, and A.L revised the article.
- 427 8. Competing interests
- 428 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

429 Acknowledgements

- 430 This work was financially supported by the National Science Foundation of China (No.
- 431 41273110), Natural Science Foundation of Hubei Province, China (2014CFB672), and Hubei
- 432 Provincial Department of Education Scientific research projects (Q20151209). The Hubei
- 433 province Chutian Scholar program (granted to AL) provided additionally financial support for
- 434 this study. We thank Li Long and Junwei Zhang for their help with fieldwork.





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603	Table 1 Daily averaged and diurnal variation of physical and chemical characteristics for each
604	sampling date. Daily mean air temperature (\overline{Ta}) , daily mean water temperatures (\overline{Tw}) , daily
605	mean air pressure (\overline{Pa}), daily mean chlorophyll a ($\overline{Chl-a}$), diurnal variation of Ta (ΔTa),
606	diurnal variation of $Tw(\Delta Tw)$, diurnal variation of air pressure (ΔPa), diurnal variation of
607	chlorophyll a (ΔChl -a), daily mean total nitrogen (\overline{TN}) and daily mean total phosphorus (\overline{TP}).
608 609	Note: TN and TP were invalid on 29 December.

Data	Ta	Tw	Pa	Chl-a	ΔTa	ΔTw	ΔPa	$\Delta Chl-a$	\overline{TP}	\overline{TN}
Date	(°C)	(°C)	(hPa)	$(\mu g L^{-1})$	(°C)	(°C)	(hPa)	$(\mu g L^{-1})$	(mg L ⁻¹)	(mg L ⁻¹)
Jan 19	5.5	8.6	1019	181.3	4.8	1.3	5.1	143	0.04	2.13
Feb 28	15.8	16.1	1013	96.9	27.5	10.1	6.9	81	0.04	2.13
Mar 25	12.8	16.3	1020	180.6	15.0	2.8	4.3	134	0.13	2.98
Apr 26	19.3	21.2	1003	311.6	6.1	2.2	3.0	1091	0.22	2.49
May 18	22.7	24.8	1003	256.7	12.9	3.8	3.5	564	0.33	3.34
Jun 29	24.9	26.5	998	477.7	10.1	3.8	3.1	663	0.10	2.81
Jul 17	29.6	29.4	995	211.2	9.5	5.7	4.0	366	0.07	1.36
Aug 29	25.8	30.5	1003	181.1	15.0	7.4	3.9	341	0.34	3.39
Sep 24	26.3	26.2	1003	420.6	9.7	3.3	3.5	567	0.86	5.30
Oct 27	15.6	17.8	1010	261.5	4.3	1.6	2.9	261	0.86	5.30
Nov 20	16.2	16.9	1009	27.6	3.4	1.3	6.4	76	0.56	4.09
Dec 29	5.7	9.5	1024	53.9	14.6	4.2	9.4	61		





612	Table 2 Daily total diffusive CH ₄ flux (T_{DCH4}), diel variability in D_{CH4} (ΔD_{CH4}),
613	frequency of daily CH4 bubbling (FBCH4), daily total CH4 ebullition flux (TBCH4),
614	and daily total CH ₄ flux (T_{CH4}) for all sampling campaigns. Bold letters indicated
615	larger ebullition rates for larger ΔTw for conditions with nearly equal water
616	temperature.

Data	$\Delta D_{ m CH4}$	$T_{\rm DCH4}$	$F_{ m BCH4}$	$T_{\rm BCH4}$	$T_{\rm CH4}$	$T_{ m BCH4}/T_{ m CH4}$
Date	$(mg \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1})$	$(mg \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1})$	(%)	$(mg \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1})$	$(mg \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1})$	(%)
Dec 29	0.03	0.5	39.6	43.6	44.2	98.8
Jan 19	0.07	1.8	4.2	3.8	5.6	67.8
Feb 28	0.37	4.1	45.8	52.0	56.1	92.6
Mar 25	0.09	1.5	12.5	18.3	19.8	92.4
Apr 26	0.12	2.8	10.4	6.8	9.6	71.1
May 18	0.33	5.0	89.6	235.2	240.2	97.9
Jun 29	0.17	2.7	97.9	319.9	322.7	99.1
Jul 17	0.18	3.2	72.9	134.5	137.8	97.6
Aug 29	0.27	4.2	70.8	149.4	156.7	97.2
Sep 24	0.15	1.7	93.8	174.5	176.3	99.0
Oct 27	0.02	0.4	27.1	17.9	18.3	97.8
Nov 20	0.02	0.3	4.2	0.3	0.5	51.8
All	0.2	2.4±0.5	47.4	96.4 ± 30.5	98.7 ± 30.7	88.6





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Table 3 Correlations coefficients among diffusive $(D_{CH4}, mg \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1})$ and ebullition

622 $(B_{CH4}, mg \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1})$ fluxes observed during individual chamber deployments (576

623 deployments in total) and environmental variables these variables (water temperatures

624 (*Tw*, °C), air temperature (*Ta*, °C), chlorophyll a concentration (*Chl-a*, μ g L⁻¹), air

625 pressure (*Pa*, hPa), the temperature difference between water and air ($\Delta T = Tw - Tw$)

 $626~~Ta,\,^{\circ}\mathrm{C})$). Correlations are presented for all data and grouped by season.

 $\Delta \mathrm{T}$ CH₄ flux Tw Та Chl-a Pa BCH4 -0.242** All data 0.492** 0.499** 0.114** -0.199** 0.224** D_{CH4} 0.372** 0.294** 0.350** -0.118** 0.042 BCH4 0.679** 0.584** 0.413** Spring 0.171* -0.640**-0.161 D_{CH4} 0.223** B_{CH4} 0.400** 0.125 -0.269**0.104 Summer 0.379 ** 0.319** -0.446** -0.246** -0.053 - 0.199* D_{CH4} 0.356** -0.194*-0.258**0.078 0.104 $B_{CH4} \\$ 0.527** 0.844** 0.818** 0.662** -0.760** -0.412** Autumn D_{CH4} 0.577** 0.558** 0.463** -0.507** -0.276** B_{CH4} Winter D_{CH4} 0.726** 0.733** 0.024 -0.725**-0.591** 0.007 0.243** -0.011 B_{CH4} 0.133 -0.141-0.133

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⁶²⁹ **denotes a significant correlation at the 0.01 level; * denotes a significant correlation

at the 0.05 level





Table 4 Stepwise regressions between diffusive flux of CH₄ (D_{CH4} , mg·m⁻²·d⁻¹), and CH₄ ebullition fluxes (B_{CH4} , mg·m⁻²·d⁻¹), air temperature (Ta, °C), water temperature (Tw, °C), the temperature difference between water and air ($\Delta T =$ Tw - Ta, °C), air pressure (Pa, hPa) and chlorophyll a concentration (Chl-a, µg L⁻¹).

Dependent variable	Independent variable	Intercept	Slope	r ²	р
All data					
D _{CH4}	Та	0.02	0.004	0.25	< 0.001
	Ta + Pa	0.07	0.004 - 0.00005	0.27	< 0.001
	$Ta + Pa + B_{CH4}$	0.07	0.004 - 0.00005 + 0.001	0.28	< 0.001
Spring					
D _{CH4}	Pa	7.81	-0.008	0.28	< 0.001
	Pa + Chl-a	6.87	-0.007 + 0.000	0.43	< 0.001
	Pa + Chl - a + Tw	-2.17	0.002 + 0.000 + 0.019	0.52	< 0.001
	Chl-a + Tw	-2.45	0.000 + 0.016	0.52	< 0.001
Summer					
D _{CH4}	Chl-a	0.18	0.000	0.20	< 0.001
	Chl-a + Tw	0.08	-0.0001 + 0.003	0.23	< 0.001
Autumn					
D _{CH4}	Tw	-0.10	0.007	0.71	< 0.001
Winter					
D _{CH4}	Та	0.02	0.007	0.54	< 0.001
	Ta + Pa	6.05	0.004 - 0.006	0.63	< 0.001
	$Ta + Pa + B_{CH4}$	6.21	0.004 - 0.006 - 0.003	0.64	< 0.001
	Ta + Pa+ B _{CH4} + Chl-a	7.58	0.004 - 0.007 - 0.003 + 0.000	0.65	< 0.001





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Table 5 Stepwise regressions between CH₄ ebullition fluxes (B_{CH4} , mg·m⁻²·d⁻¹) and

642 diffusive flux of CH₄ (D_{CH4} , mg·m⁻²·d⁻¹), air temperature (Ta, °C), water temperature

643 (*Tw*, °C), the temperature difference between water and air ($\Delta T = Tw - Ta$, °C), air

644 pressure (*Pa*, hPa) and chlorophyll a concentration (*Chl-a*, μ g L⁻¹).

645

Dependent variable	Independent variable	Intercept	Slope	r ²	р
All data					
B_{CH4}	Tw	-3.80	0.39	0.14	< 0.001
	Tw + chl-a	-4.28	0.292 + 0.011	0.19	< 0.001
	$Tw + chl \textbf{-}a + \Delta T$	-4.99	0.315 + 0.010 + 0.188	0.20	< 0.001
	$Tw + chl-a + \Delta T + D_{CH4}$	-5.04	0.271+0.010+0.206+ 8.687	0.20	< 0.001
Spring					
B _{CH4}	D _{CH4}	-1.62	40.67	0.17	< 0.001
	D_{CH4} + ΔT	-2.98	43.45 ± 0.411	0.20	< 0.001
	$D_{CH4} + \Delta T + Ta$	-16.29	15.78 + 1.406 + 0.787	0.26	< 0.001
	$\Delta T + Ta$	-19.56	1.695 + 1.038	0.25	0.027
	Δ T +Ta +Pa	-502.71	2.74 + 1.998 + 0.459	0.32	0.013
Summer					
BCH4	Chl-a	2.59	0.02	0.13	< 0.001
Autumn					
BCH4	Tw	-13.73	0.807	0.33	< 0.001
Winter					
B _{CH4}	Chl-a	2.53	-0.01	0.04	0.015





Table 6 Correlation coefficients between daily total diffusive CH₄ flux (T_{DCH4} , mg·m⁻²·d⁻¹), daily total CH₄ ebullition (T_{BCH4} , mg·m⁻²·d⁻¹), the frequency of daily CH₄ ebullition (F_{BCH4} , %) and mean daily environmental variables (Daily mean air temperature (\overline{Ta} , °C), daily mean water temperatures (\overline{Tw} , °C), daily mean air pressure (\overline{Pa} , hPa), daily mean chlorophyll a ($\overline{ChI-a}$, µg L⁻¹), daily mean concentrations of total nitrogen (\overline{TN} , mg L⁻¹) and daily mean concentrations of total phosphorus (\overline{TP} , mg L⁻¹)).

654 655

Variable	Tw	Ta	chl-a	Pa	TN	TP	FBCH4	T _{BCH4}
T	0.568	0.537	0.208	-0.510	- 0.499	- 0.494	0.551	0.538
I DCH4	(0.054)	(0.072)	(0.517)	(0.091)	(0.118)	(0.123)	(0.063)	(0.071)
T	0.703**	0.684**	0.660*	- 0.650*	0.008	- 0.054	0.932**	
I BCH4	(0.011)	(0.014)	(0.02)	(0.022)	(0.982)	(0.874)	(0.000)	
E	0.738**	0.735**	0.579**	- 0.635*	0.086	0.083		
Г ВСН4	(0.006)	(0.007)	(0.048)	(0.026)	(0.802)	(0.808)		

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** denotes a significant correlation at the 0.01 level; * denotes a significant correlation
at the 0.05 level





660	Table 7 Pa	aramet	ers of re	egre	ssic	on models	(us	ed in s	upplement Fig	g.1) of	diffi	usive and
661	ebullitive	CH_4	fluxes	as	а	function	of	water	temperatures	(Tw)	at	different
662	concentrations of total phosphorous (TP)											

Emissions	Averaged TP		Tw			Та		
$(ma \cdot m^{-2} \cdot h^{-1})$	$(\text{mg}\cdot\text{I}^{-1})$	n	010	n	P ²	010	n	P ²
(ing in in)	(ing L)		Q10	p	K	Q_{10}	p	K
CH4 diffusive	0.05	144	1.29	< 0.001	0.26	1.27	< 0.001	0.36
	0.1	96	1.79	< 0.001	0.46	1.62	< 0.001	0.58
	0.2	48	5.29	0.002	0.23	1.86	< 0.001	0.29
	0.4	144	7.52	< 0.001	0.69	5.23	< 0.001	0.43
	0.8	96	5.24	< 0.001	0.76	3.24	< 0.001	0.71
CH ₄ ebullition	0.05	51	1.32	0.046	0.08	1.15	0.192	0.02
	0.1	52	1.85	0.211	0.04	1.27	0.407	0.02
	0.2							
	0.4							
	0.8	53	3.29	< 0.001	0.21	2.06	0.001	0.17

-- indicates that no exponential relationships were found





- 670 Figure Captions
- 671
- 672 Fig. 1 Diurnal and seasonal variability of the main environmental factors and
- 673 CH₄ fluxes during the monitoring periods.
- 674
- Fig. 2 Bin-averaged diffusive CH_4 flux (D_{CH4}) and the difference between water and
- air temperature ($\Delta T = Tw Ta$). Symbols showed mean values within each
- 677 temperature bin, error bars showed the respective standard deviation (SD represented
- the degree to which the data value deviates from the mean). The ellipse of the dotted
- 679 line indicated D_{CH4} when ΔT was close zero.
- 680
- Fig. 3 Changes of CH_4 ebullition (B_{CH4} , histograms) and frequency of daily CH_4
- bubbling (grey area) versus the temperature difference between water and air (Δ
- 683 T).
- 684

Fig. 4 (a) Daily total diffusive CH₄ flux (T_{DCH4}), and (b) daily total CH₄ ebullition (T_{BCH4}) as a function of mean daily water temperature (\overline{Tw} , black circles) and air temperature (\overline{Ta} , open circles). The solid lines represent the exponential relationships between pond fluxes and \overline{Tw} , the dashed lines represent the exponential relationships between pond fluxes and \overline{Ta} . The values of the temperature coefficient Q_{10} and the coefficients of determination (R^2) for the exponential fits are provided as labels in each graph.











- Fig. 2 Bin-averaged diffusive CH_4 flux (D_{CH4}) and the difference between water and air
- temperature ($\triangle T = Tw Ta$). Symbols showed mean values within each temperature bin,
- ros error bars showed the respective standard deviation (SD represented the degree to which the
- data value deviates from the mean). The ellipse of the dotted line indicated D_{CH4} when ΔT
- 707 was close zero.







- Fig. 3 Changes of CH₄ ebullition (*B*_{CH4}, histograms) and frequency of daily CH₄ bubbling (grey
- area) versus the temperature difference between water and air (ΔT).
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- 720







Fig. 4 (a) Daily total diffusive CH₄ flux (T_{DCH4}), and (b) daily total CH₄ ebullition (T_{BCH4}) as a function of mean daily water temperature (\overline{Tw} , black circles) and air temperature (\overline{Ta} , open circles). The solid lines represent the exponential relationships between pond fluxes and \overline{Tw} , the dashed lines represent the exponential relationships between pond fluxes and \overline{Ta} . The values of the temperature coefficient Q_{10} and the coefficients of determination (R^2) for the exponential fits are provided as labels in each graph.





