



Diel and seasonal variability of methane emissions from a shallow 1 and eutrophic pond 2 Wenli Zhang¹, Shangbin Xiao^{2*}, Heng Xie¹, Jia Liu², Dan Lei², Andreas Lorke³ 3 4 5 6 1 Hubei International Scientific and Technological Cooperation Center of Ecological Conservation and Management in Three Gorges Area, China Three Gorges University, 7 8 Yichang, 443002, China; 2 College of Hydraulic & Environmental Engineering, China Three Gorges University, 9 Yichang, 443002, China; 10 3 Institute for Environmental Sciences, University of Koblenz-Landau, Landau, Germany 11 12 13 Email address for each author listed: 14 15 zhangwenli@ctgu.edu.cn; shangbinx@163.com; 1182696787@qq.com; ljia@ctgu.edu.cn; leidan@ctgu.edu.cn; lorke@uni-landau.de; 16

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Abstract

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

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

37 ebullition;





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1. Introduction

change due to its increasing atmospheric concentration and its strong global warming 41 potential, which is 28-36 times higher compared to CO₂ (Houghton et al., 2001; Loulergue 42 43 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 44 understanding of CH₄ sources and sinks is urgently needed. 45 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

Methane (CH₄) is an important climate forcing as well as a sensitive indicator of climate





62 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). 63 More research on the cycling of the CH₄ in ponds will be beneficial to more accurately quantify 64 65 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

found that small ponds are an important source of CH₄ in northern latitudes. Nevertheless,





of aquatic ecosystems by human activities may eventually promote CH4 ebullition, and the 83 84 strongest increase in ebullition can be expected in shallow water bodies (West et al., 2016; Aben et al., 2017). 85 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 94 95 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 96 particular focus on ebullition and its contribution to total CH₄ fluxes; 2) identifying their main 97 influencing factors; and 3) assessing the temperature dependence of ebullitive and diffusive 98 99 fluxes with different degrees of aquatic eutrophication. 2. Materials and methods 100 101 2.1 Study area and monitoring sites 102 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, 103

30°43′24″N). The region is under a subtropical continental monsoon climate regime. The

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average depth of the pond is 1.2 m, and its area is approximately 4000 m². The pond bottom was solidified with concrete in 2002-2003 and is now covered with about 20 cm of soft sediments. The main sources of water are natural rainfall and drainage water from streets. Twelve monthly field campaigns, resolving diurnal variations respectively, were conducted between 19 January and 29 December, 2016. All measurements were done at the same sampling site, which was located 0.5 m away from the bank where water depth was \sim 0.7 m. 2.2 In situ CH₄ flux measurement CH₄ flux was measured using a static floating chamber and followed the methods described in Xiao et al. (2014). The chamber was made of a non-transparent, thermally insulated vertical tube with a volume of 43.30 L and a surface area of 0.096 m² (diameter and height are 0.35 and 0.45 m respectively). Two fans (12 V, 0.22 A) were fixed in the upper part of the chamber to properly mix the air in the chamber headspace while not disturbing the water surface. The chamber was connected to a CH₄ Analyzer (G2301, Picarro, USA), which was used to monitor the CH₄ concentrations inside the chamber continuously at a frequency of 1 Hz. One buoy was fixed at the lower portion of the chamber, allowing for precise adjustment of the penetration depth of the chamber edge into the water. We used 5 cm penetration depth and only the headspace volume above the water surface was taken into account when calculating the gas flux. Each field campaign was conducted for 24 hours. A single flux measurement was usually finished within 20 minutes and 48 consecutive measurements were conducted during each field campaign. When there was no or little ebullition, CH₄ concentration in the chamber headspace increased nearly linearly over time and single linear regression was used to estimate the





- diffusive flux of CH₄ (D_{CH4} , mg CH₄·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
- flux due to bubble emission (CH₄ ebullition, B_{CH4}, mg CH₄·m⁻²·h⁻¹) was estimated using the
- method described in detail by Xiao et al. (2014). Bubbles were not observed in all 48 chamber
- deployments during the daily campaigns. Thus, the frequency of daily CH₄ bubbling ($F_{\rm BCH4}$)
- was estimated as:

$$F_{BCH4} = \frac{Deployments \ with \ Bubbles}{48} \times 100\% \tag{Eq.1}$$

- The daily total CH₄ flux (T_{CH4} , mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹) was the sum of daily total D_{CH4} and daily
- total B_{CH4} .
- 136 2.3 Model approach
- To describe the temperature dependence of CH₄ fluxes, we used a modified Arrhenius
- 138 equation (Aben et al., 2017):

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$$F_{CH4} = F_{20} \times e^{b \times (T-20)}$$
 (Eq.2)

- F_{CH4} is the CH₄ flux at temperature T (°C); F₂₀ and b are the empirical coefficients; F_{20} is the
- 141 CH₄ flux at 20 °C. This model can be reorganized as a Q_{10} relationship with b:

$$b = (\ln Q_{10})/10$$
 (Eq.3)

- 143 Q_{10} corresponds to the proportional change in the process per 10 °C change in temperature.
- 144 2.4 Other measurements
- Air temperature (Ta, °C), air pressure (Pa, hPa), wind speed (w, m s⁻¹) and water
- 146 temperatures (Tw, °C), and chlorophyll a concentration (Chl-a, μg L⁻¹) were measured every
- 147 20 minutes during all diel field campaigns. Ta, and Pa were measured using a handheld weather
- meter (YGY-QXY, China). Tw was measured using a multi-parameter probe (Hydrolab DS5,





HACH, US). Water samples were collected at the beginning of each field campaign. These 149 150 samples were used to measure the concentrations of Chl-a, total nitrogen (TN) and total phosphorus (TP). Chl-a was determined by using the national standard method (Wang et al., 151 2002). TN and TP were analyzed spectrophotometrically with a continuous flow autoanalyzer 152 153 (Skalar Analytical, B.V., Breda, Netherlands). Wind speed was measured with a portable aero 154 vane at 2 m height. 2.5 Statistical analysis 155 156 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 157 CH₄ flux and environmental factors. Stepwise linear regressions were performed for relevant 158 combinations of variables. We further estimated seasonal average of variable and defined 159 December, January and February as winter, March to May as spring, June to August as summer, 160 161 and September to November as autumn. 3. Results 162 3.1 Variations in environmental factors 163 Diel and seasonal variations in environmental parameters are summarized in Fig.1. Wind speed 164 was too low to be measured during most campaigns (maximum wind speed was < 1.5 m s⁻¹) 165 and disregarded from further analysis. Air temperature (Ta) and water temperature (Tw) had 166 significant diel and seasonal changes. The diurnal variation of Ta (ΔTa) was greater than that 167 168 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 ΔTa (3.4°C) and ΔTw (1.3°C) occurred on 20 November. The 169 maximum daily mean air temperature (\overline{Ta}) was 29.6°C and was recorded on 17 July, and the 170





minimum value was 5.5°C and was measured on 19 January. The extremes in the daily mean 171 water temperatures (\overline{Tw}), 30.5 and 8.6°C, were recorded on 29 August and 19 January (Table 172 1). There were significant seasonal changes of air pressure (Pa) and chlorophyll a (Chl-a) (Fig 173 1). The diurnal variation of air pressure (ΔPa) was small. The maximum ΔPa occurred in 29 174 December and the minimum in 27 October. The maximum daily mean air pressure (\overline{Pa}) was 175 recorded on 29 December, and the minimum value was measured on 17 July. Both diurnal and 176 seasonal variations of chlorophyll a (Chl-a) ranged widely (Table 1). The maximum diurnal 177 178 variations of Chl-a occurred in 26 April and the minimum in 29 December. The maximum and the minimum daily mean chlorophyll a ($\overline{Chl-a}$) were recorded on 29 June and 20 November, 179 respectively (27.6 µg L⁻¹ to 477.7 µg L⁻¹). With TN and TP ranging from 1.36 mg·L⁻¹ to 5.3 180 mg·L⁻¹ and 0.04 mg·L⁻¹ to 0.86 mg·L⁻¹, respectively, the pond can be classified as eutrophic. 181 Both nutrient concentrations were highest in September (Table 1). 182 183 We averaged environmental factors in the different seasons and found that Ta, Tw and Chl-a 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). 3.2 CH₄ fluxes 188 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 \pm standard error), observed on 18 May. The minimum $\overline{D}_{\text{CH4}}$ (0.011 \pm 192





 $0.001 \text{ mg CH}_4 \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$) was on 20 November. D_{CH_4} was highest in spring $(0.146 \pm 0.005 \text{ mg})$ 193 $CH_4 \cdot m^{-2} \cdot h^{-1}$) and lowest in winter $(0.103 \pm 0.006 \text{ mg } CH_4 \cdot m^{-2} \cdot h^{-1})$. D_{CH_4} in summer was higher 194 than that in autumn. On average, the daily diffusive CH₄ flux of the pond in 2016 was 2.4 ± 0.5 195 mg $CH_4 \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1}$ (Table 2). 196 The highest diel variability in D_{CH4} (Δ D_{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 of the daily maxima occurred when temperatures began to rise rapidly, such as on 16 July, when 202 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). *CH*₄ *ebullition fluxes* 206 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 208 209 were rather random and irregular. Most of the maximum CH₄ ebullition fluxes (B_{CH4}) during 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_{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





bubbling during the diurnal sampling campaigns ($F_{\rm BCH4}$) ranged from 4.2% (observed on 19 215 216 January and 20 November) to 97.9% (observed on 29 June) (Table 2). Daily total CH₄ ebullition fluxes ranged from 0.3 (on November 20) to 319.9 (on June 29) mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹. On average, 217 the daily total CH₄ ebullition flux in 2016 was 96.4 ± 30.5 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹. 218 219 The total daily CH₄ flux ($T_{CH4} = D_{CH4} + B_{CH4}$) ranged from 0.5 (on 20 November) to 322.7 (on 29 June) mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹, and the mean daily T_{CH4} was 98.7 ± 30.7 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹ (Table 220 221 2). The contribution of ebullition (BCH4) 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 the total CH₄ flux (Table 2). 223 3.3 CH₄ fluxes and environmental factors 224 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). DCH4 was 226 227 positively correlated (p < 0.01) with Tw, Ta and Chl-a, while negatively (p < 0.01) correlated 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 significantly correlated with $\Delta T (p = 0.372)$. There was a significant positive correlation 230 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 ΔT ($r^2 = 0.20$, p < 0.001). 235 236 Correlations between CH4 fluxes and environmental factors in different seasons were





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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 ($T_{\rm DCH4}$), 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} -a, while negatively correlated with \overline{Pa} . Daily T_{DCH4} was marginal positively correlated with \overline{Tw} , \overline{Ta} , T_{BCH4} and $F_{\rm BCH4}$, 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 maximum flux and minimum flux), daily total BCH4, the frequency of daily CH4 bubbling (F_{BCH4}) was analyzed with respected to the diel variation of measured parameters (see 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 obtained: $\Delta D_{\text{CH4}} = 0.01 + 0.036 \Delta Tw$ ($r^2 = 0.63, p < 0.001$). F_{BCH4} was positively correlated 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 Δ Tw, we found larger ebullition rates for larger Δ Tw for conditions with nearly equal water temperature. For example, the daily mean Tw on 28





February (16.1°C) was close to that on 25 March (16.3°C), yet ΔTw on 28 February was much 259 260 higher (10.1°C) than that on 25 March (2.8°C). As a result, daily amount of CH₄ ebullition on 28 February (T_{BCH4}, 52.0 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹) was obviously higher than that on 25 March (18.3 261 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹). This phenomenon was also seen on 29 December and 19 January (Table 1 and 262 263 2). 3.4 Influence of temperature on diffusion and ebullition 264 We bin-averaged gas fluxes according to the temperature difference between the surface 265 266 water and air ($\Delta T = Tw - Ta$) (Fig 2). The results showed that under $\Delta T < 0$ °C, there was a significant negative linear relationship between D_{CH4} and $\Delta T (R^2 = 0.70)$. While ΔT was 267 positive but smaller than 5 °C, D_{CH4} increased slowly. When ΔT was exceeding 5 °C, D_{CH4} 268 decreased. Besides, when Δ T was nearly zero (-1 < Δ T < 1 °C), the averaged diffusive CH₄ 269 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 270 CH₄ flux for the entire year $(0.098 \pm 0.019 \text{ mg CH}_4 \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{h}^{-1})$. We also compared the averaged 271 diffusive CH₄ fluxes under $-1 < \Delta T < 1$ °C with daily mean diffusive CH₄ flux each month 272 (See supplemental Table 3), and found that there were no significant differences between them 273 except for 29 August. 274 275 CH₄ ebullition (B_{CH4}) and the frequency of CH₄ bubbling (F_{BCH4}) under different Δ T showed that when Δ T was near zero (-1 < Δ T < 1 °C), F_{BCH4} was about 30%, and ebullition 276 ranged between 117 ~ 136 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹, which was close to the average CH₄ ebullition flux 277 $(96.4 \pm 30.5 \text{ mg CH}_4 \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{d}^{-1})$. When $\Delta T > 1$ °C and $\Delta T < -1$ °C, $F_{\text{BCH}4}$ started to increase. 278 Meanwhile the ebullition flux increased substantially when $1 < \Delta T < 5$ °C and $-3 < \Delta T < -1$ 279 °C; yet when $\Delta T > 5$ °C and $\Delta T < -3$ °C, the bubbling flux decreased sharply (Fig. 3). 280





3.5 Temperature dependency of CH₄ fluxes 281 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 TP286 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 $0.2 \sim$ $0.4 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$, 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 4.1 Contribution of diffusion and ebullition to total CH₄ emissions 298 The diffusive CH₄ fluxes from the studied pond were on average 2.36 ± 0.07 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d· 299 300 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 301 CH₄ fluxes were lower than what has been reported. The diffusive fluxes from a shallow 302





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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. 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 eutrophic lake in southern Brazil. The average CH₄ ebullition flux in our study was 96.4 ± 30.5 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹, comparable to the mean ebullition flux from the tropical region in India (112 mg m⁻² d⁻¹)(Panneer Selvam et al., 2014), while obviously higher than the fluxes reported from lakes in northern Sweden (22.0 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹) (Wik et al., 2013), shallow beaver ponds in Canada (73.6 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹) (DelSontro et al., 2016), and eight small thaw ponds in northern Sweden (20.0 mg CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹) (Burke et al., 2019), all of which are located at high latitudes. The mean total CH₄ flux of the pond (T_{CH4}) during the whole field investigations was 98.7 $[0.5 - 322.7] \pm 30.7$ mg·CH₄·m⁻² d⁻¹ (mean [range] \pm SD, Table 2), which was lower than the ponds (286.4 [3.2 - 833.6] mg·CH₄·m⁻² d⁻¹), and higher than the lakes (64 [0.32 - 284.8] mg·CH₄·m⁻² d⁻¹) from the tropical region in India (Panneer Selvam et al., 2014) and from a 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 emissions, such as on average 91 % of the total CH₄ emissions from a small pond in Sweden





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(its average depth was 1.2 m) (Natchimuthu et al., 2014), 56% from the beaver ponds in Canada (DelSontro et al., 2016), 75% from forty-five aquatic systems in the tropical region of India (Panneer Selvam et al., 2014), and 40–60 % in lakes (Bastviken et al., 2004). In our study, the average contributions of CH₄ ebullition to the total CH₄ flux was at the higher range of observations (88.6%), indicating that ebullition played a major role in CH₄ emissions from the shallow pond studied here. The result confirms that ebullition is an important pathway for CH₄ transport to the atmosphere in shallow aquatic systems, such as ponds (Casper et al., 2000; DelSontro et al., 2016). The larger importance of ebullition in shallow water can be related to the low hydrostatic pressure in the sediment (Bastviken et al., 2004), which reduces the 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). 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 https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-2020-178 Preprint. Discussion started: 1 July 2020 © Author(s) 2020. CC BY 4.0 License.



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diffusion and 33 % of the variation in ebullition in autumn and variations in Ta explained 54 % 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 (Δ D_{CH4}). Altogether, our findings confirm that temperature is among the strongest predictors for CH4 emissions. 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 between Tw and diffusive CH4 flux was almost as strong that with Ta. Yet, ebullition was more strongly correlated with Tw than Ta (Table 3 and Table 6), variations in daily Tw explained 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. Although the temperature of sediment was not measured in our study, it was mainly controlled by water temperature. For shallow ponds, CH4 is mainly formed in anoxic sediments, and 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 shallow sediments (Bastviken et al., 2008). In addition, ebullition dominated the CH₄ emission in our pond, which might be another reason that CH4 flux depends on the temperature. Because 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; Wilkinson et al., 2015). Thus, ebullition responds more directly to Tw because of the stimulatory effects of high temperature on methanogenesis without the confounding effect of methane oxidation.

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





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water and air temperature was positive, the diffusive gas fluxed can be expected to be enhanced by high gas exchange velocities (MacIntyre et al., 2001). In our study, when $0 < \Delta T < 5$ °C, the diffusive CH₄ flux increased slowly, but CH₄ ebullition increased substantially, indicating that the CH₄ flux might be strongly enhanced due to thermal convection. However, when ΔT was exceeding 5 °C, both diffusion and ebullition tended to decrease. That time was mainly concentrated in the early morning, the temperature was usually the lowest, and lower CH4 flux was mainly limited by low temperature. When $\Delta T < -3$ °C, the bubbling flux decreased sharply, while diffusive CH₄ flux increased linearly, indicating that diffusion was an important pathway for CH₄ transport to the atmosphere when the weather was sunny, and air temperature increased more quickly than water temperature. Furthermore, when air temperature was close to water temperature, diffusive fluxes and ebullition were close to their long-term mean values. 4.3 Effects of eutrophication on temperature dependence of CH₄ fluxes We calculated the temperature dependence of CH₄ fluxes in terms of the temperature coefficient O_{10} , which was defined by DelSontro et al. (2016) as an "ecosystem-level" O_{10} , representing the combining effects of multiple biotic and abiotic factors. O₁₀ values in beaver ponds varied slightly according to CH₄ emission pathway and bubbling appeared to be more sensitive to temperature than the diffusive pathway (DelSontro et al., 2016). In our study, the Q_{10} of CH₄ diffusion in respect to \overline{Tw} and \overline{Ta} were 2.05 and 1.87, respectively; while the Q_{10} of CH₄ ebullition of \overline{Tw} and \overline{Ta} were 5.52 and 4.38, respectively. Our values were comparable to those estimated for subtropical and temperate eutrophic city ponds (O_{10} ranged from $1.63 \sim 6.73$) (Aben et al., 2017). In contrast to the beaver ponds in Canada, whose average

with pulses of CH₄ emissions in wetlands (Poindexter, 2016). When the difference between





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 Q_{10} values for ebullition and diffusion fluxes to sediment temperature were 13 and 10, respectively (DelSontro et al., 2016), our O_{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 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 of CH₄ fluxes increased with TP, and the temperature dependence of ebullition was disproportionately enhanced by ecosystem productivity relative to diffusion (DelSontro et al., 2016). The authors pointed out that as system productivity and the supply of organic matter 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 combination of nutrient enrichment and experimental warming, causing an increasing mean annual ebullition rate; while the diffusive flux remained unaffected by nutrient enrichment but 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. However, the temperature dependence of diffusive fluxes was more sensitive to ecosystem productivity when compared to ebullition. A likely reason for this may be the low frequency of bubbles, which needs more work to be verified.

5. Conclusions





The subtropical, shallow, small and eutrophic pond emitted on average 98.7 ± 30.7 mg m 413 ²·d⁻¹ of CH₄. Ebullition was quantitatively most important, accounting for 51.8% to 99.1% of 414 the total CH₄ emission. A positive correlation between temperature and CH₄ fluxes shows that 415 there are likely positive feedbacks of aquatic CH₄ fluxes to global warming. The temperature 416 417 dependence of the CH₄ fluxes increased with increasing nutrient concentration. By combing these facts, we conclude that the increasing cultural eutrophication and global warming 418 promote increasing atmospheric CH4 emissions from these vastly abundant aquatic 419 420 ecosystems.

421 6. Data availability

- The data published in this contribution can be accessed by email request to the corresponding
- 423 author.

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424 7. Author contribution

- 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

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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

Date	Ta	Tw	Pa	Chl-a	Δ Τα	Δ Tw	ΔPa	Δ Chl-a	\overline{TP}	TN
Date	(°C)	(°C)	(hPa)	(μg L ⁻¹)	(°C)	(°C)	(hPa)	(μgL^{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		





Table 2 Daily total diffusive CH₄ flux ($T_{\rm DCH4}$), diel variability in $D_{\rm CH4}$ ($\Delta D_{\rm CH4}$), frequency of daily CH₄ bubbling ($F_{\rm BCH4}$), daily total CH₄ ebullition flux ($T_{\rm BCH4}$), and daily total CH₄ flux ($T_{\rm CH4}$) for all sampling campaigns. Bold letters indicated larger ebullition rates for larger ΔT_W for conditions with nearly equal water temperature.

Data	$\DeltaD_{ m CH4}$	$T_{ m DCH4}$	FBCH4	$T_{ m BCH4}$	$T_{ m CH4}$	$T_{ m BCH4}/T_{ m CH4}$
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





Table 3 Correlations coefficients among diffusive (D_{CH4} , $\text{mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$) and ebullition (B_{CH4} , $\text{mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$) fluxes observed during individual chamber deployments (576 deployments in total) and environmental variables these variables (water temperatures (Tw, °C), air temperature (Ta, °C), chlorophyll a concentration (Chl-a, $\mu g L^{-1}$), air pressure (Pa, hPa), the temperature difference between water and air ($\Delta T = Tw - Ta$, °C)). Correlations are presented for all data and grouped by season.

	CH ₄ flux	Tw	Та	Chl-a	Pa	ΔΤ	Всн4
All data	D _{CH4}	0.492**	0.499**	0.114**	- 0.242**	- 0.199**	0.224**
	Всн4	0.372**	0.294**	0.350**	-0.118**	0.042	
Spring	D_{CH4}	0.679**	0.584**	0.171*	-0.640**	-0.161	0.413**
	$\mathrm{B}_{\mathrm{CH4}}$	0.400**	0.223**	0.125	-0.269**	0.104	
Summer	D _{CH4}	0.379 **	0.319**	-0.446**	-0.246**	-0.053	-0.199*
	$\mathrm{B}_{\mathrm{CH4}}$	- 0.194*	-0.258**	0.356**	0.078	0.104	
Autumn	$\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{CH4}}$	0.844**	0.818**	0.662**	-0.760**	-0.412**	0.527**
	$\mathrm{B}_{\mathrm{CH4}}$	0.577**	0.558**	0.463**	-0.507**	-0.276**	
Winter	$\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{CH4}}$	0.726**	0.733**	0.024	-0.725**	- 0.591**	0.007
	$\mathrm{B}_{\mathrm{CH4}}$	0.133	0.243**	-0.011	-0.141	-0.133	

**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, μ g 636 L⁻¹).

Dependent variable	Independent variable	Intercept	Slope	r^2	ŗ
All data					
D _{CH4}	Ta	0.02	0.004	0.25	<0.0
	Ta + Pa	0.07	0.004 - 0.00005	0.27	<0.0
	$Ta + Pa + B_{CH4}$	0.07	0.004 - 0.00005 + 0.001	0.28	<0.0
Spring					
D_{CH4}	Pa	7.81	-0.008	0.28	<0.
	Pa + Chl-a	6.87	-0.007 + 0.000	0.43	<0.
	Pa + Chl - a + Tw	-2.17	0.002 + 0.000 + 0.019	0.52	<0.
	Chl-a + Tw	-2.45	0.000 + 0.016	0.52	<0.
Summer					
$\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{CH4}}$	Chl-a	0.18	0.000	0.20	<0.
	Chl-a + Tw	0.08	-0.0001 + 0.003	0.23	<0.
Autumn					
D _{CH4}	Tw	-0.10	0.007	0.71	<0.
Winter					
$\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{CH4}}$	Ta	0.02	0.007	0.54	<0.
	Ta + Pa	6.05	0.004 - 0.006	0.63	<0.
	$Ta + Pa + B_{CH4}$	6.21	0.004 - 0.006 - 0.003	0.64	<0.
	$Ta + Pa + B_{CH4} + Chl-a$	7.58	0.004 - 0.007 - 0.003 + 0.000	0.65	<0.0

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

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Dependent variable	Independent variable	Intercept	Slope	r^2	p
All data					
$\mathrm{B}_{\mathrm{CH4}}$	Tw	-3.80	0.39	0.14	< 0.001
	Tw + chl-a	-4.28	0.292 + 0.011	0.19	< 0.001
	$Tw + chl-a + \Delta T$	-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					
Всн4	$\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{CH4}}$	-1.62	40.67	0.17	< 0.001
	$D_{CH4} + \Delta T$	-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					
Всн4	Chl-a	2.59	0.02	0.13	< 0.001
Autumn					
Всн4	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{Chl} -a, μ g L⁻¹), daily mean concentrations of total nitrogen (\overline{TW} , mg L⁻¹) and daily mean concentrations of total phosphorus (\overline{TP} , mg L⁻¹)).

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Variable	Tw	Ta	chl-a	Pa	\overline{TN}	$\overline{\text{TP}}$	Fвсн4	Твсн4
Тосн4	0.568	0.537	0.208	-0.510	- 0.499	- 0.494	0.551	0.538
	(0.054)	(0.072)	(0.517)	(0.091)	(0.118)	(0.123)	(0.063)	(0.071)
Твсн4	0.703**	0.684**	0.660*	- 0.650*	0.008	- 0.054	0.932**	
	(0.011)	(0.014)	(0.02)	(0.022)	(0.982)	(0.874)	(0.000)	
F _{ВСН4}	0.738**	0.735**	0.579**	- 0.635*	0.086	0.083		
	(0.006)	(0.007)	(0.048)	(0.026)	(0.802)	(0.808)		

 $^{^{**}}$ denotes a significant correlation at the 0.01 level; * denotes a significant correlation at the 0.05 level





Table 7 Parameters of regression models (used in supplement Fig.1) of diffusive and ebullitive CH₄ fluxes as a function of water temperatures (*Tw*) at different concentrations of total phosphorous (*TP*).

Emissions	Averaged TP	n	Tw			Та		
$(mg \cdot m^{-2} \cdot h^{-1})$	$(mg \cdot L^{-1})$		Q ₁₀	p	\mathbb{R}^2	Q_{10}	p	\mathbb{R}^2
	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
CH ₄ diffusive	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
	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
CH ₄ ebullition	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





Figure Captions 670 671 Fig. 1 Diurnal and seasonal variability of the main environmental factors and 672 CH₄ fluxes during the monitoring periods. 673 674 Fig. 2 Bin-averaged diffusive CH_4 flux (D_{CH4}) and the difference between water and 675 air temperature ($\triangle T = Tw - Ta$). Symbols showed mean values within each 676 677 temperature bin, error bars showed the respective standard deviation (SD represented 678 the degree to which the data value deviates from the mean). The ellipse of the dotted line indicated D_{CH4} when ΔT was close zero. 679 680 Fig. 3 Changes of CH₄ ebullition (B_{CH4}, histograms) and frequency of daily CH₄ 681 682 bubbling (grey area) versus the temperature difference between water and air (Δ T). 683 684 Fig. 4 (a) Daily total diffusive CH₄ flux (T_{DCH4}), and (b) daily total CH₄ ebullition (T_{BCH4}) 685 as a function of mean daily water temperature (\overline{Tw} , black circles) and air temperature 686 $(\overline{Ta}$, open circles). The solid lines represent the exponential relationships between pond 687 fluxes and \overline{Tw} , the dashed lines represent the exponential relationships between pond 688 fluxes and \overline{Ta} . The values of the temperature coefficient Q_{10} and the coefficients of 689 determination (R^2) for the exponential fits are provided as labels in each graph. 690 691





Fig. 1 Diurnal and seasonal variability of the main environmental factors and CH_4 fluxes during the monitoring periods.

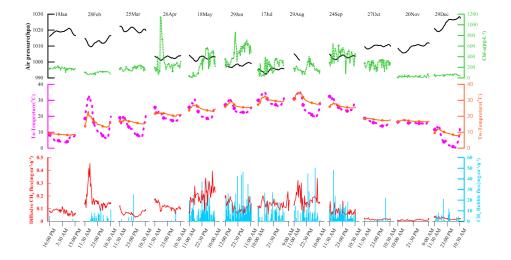
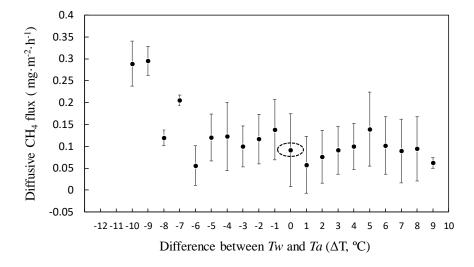






Fig. 2 Bin-averaged diffusive CH₄ flux (D_{CH4}) and the difference between water and air temperature (Δ T = Tw – Ta). Symbols showed mean values within each temperature bin, error bars showed the respective standard deviation (SD represented the degree to which the data value deviates from the mean).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





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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).

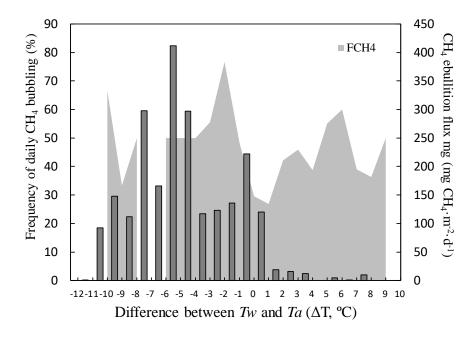






Fig. 4 (a) Daily total diffusive CH₄ flux ($T_{\rm DCH4}$), and (b) daily total CH₄ ebullition ($T_{\rm BCH4}$) as a function of mean daily water temperature (\overline{Tw} , black circles) and air temperature (\overline{Ta} , open circles). The solid lines represent the exponential relationships between 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.

