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# Differences in ebullitive methane release from small, shallow ponds present challenges for scaling



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# HIGHLIGHTS

# GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

- Great Plains shallow pond ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release varied by four orders of magnitude.
- Warm season CH<sub>4</sub> release reached 40 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, higher than previously reported.
- CH<sub>4</sub> release at 15 sites across three regions was only weakly linked to temperature.
- Site-specific factors (e.g. SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> or pond management) appear to suppress CH<sub>4</sub> release.
- Caution is needed in efforts to scale these emissions according to temperature.

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# ABSTRACT

Small, shallow waterbodies are potentially important sites of greenhouse gas release to the atmosphere. The role of ebullition may be enhanced here relative to larger and deeper systems, due to their shallow water, but these features remain relatively infrequently studied in comparison to larger systems. Herein, we quantify ebullitive release of methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) in small shallow ponds in three regions of North America and investigate the role of potential drivers. Shallow ponds exhibited open-water season ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release rates as high as 40 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, higher than previously reported for similar systems. Ebullitive release of CH<sub>4</sub> varied by four orders of magnitude across our 15 study sites, with differences in flux rates both within and between regions. What is less clear are the drivers responsible for these differences. There were few relationships between open water–season ebullitive flux and physicochemical characteristics, including organic matter, temperature, and sulphate. Temperature was only weakly related to ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release across the study when considering all observation intervals. Only four individual sites exhibited significant relationships between temperature and ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release. Other sites were unresponsive to temperature, and region-specific factors may play a role. There is some evidence that where surface water sulphate concentrations are high, CH<sub>4</sub> production and release may be suppressed. Missouri sites (n = 5) had characteristically low ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release; here bioturbation could be important. While this work greatly expands the number of open-water season ebullition rates for small and

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shallow ponds, more research is needed to disentangle the role of different drivers. Further investigation of the potential thresholding behaviour of sulphate as a control on ebullitive  $CH_4$  release in lentic systems is one such opportunity. What is clear, however, is that efforts to scale emissions (e.g., as a function of temperature) must be undertaken with caution.

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#### 1. Introduction

Inland freshwater ecosystems are an active component of the global carbon (C) cycle and are receiving sites for C of both allochthonous and autochthonous origin. Consequently, a variety of freshwater systems are often considered C sinks in terms of potential for C sequestration via sediment deposition and plant biomass (e.g. Bridgham et al., 2006). Lakes, reservoirs and wetlands, however, are also known as sources of biogenic greenhouse gas (GHG) release to the atmosphere, including methane ( $CH_4$ ), carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ), and nitrous oxide ( $N_2O$ ) (Bastviken et al., 2004; Cole et al., 2007; Tranvik et al., 2009; Baulch et al., 2011; Tranvik et al., 2018). Considerable effort has been made to derive estimates of the annual release of different GHG from water bodies at large scales, including CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O from reservoirs (Deemer et al., 2016), CO<sub>2</sub> from inland waters (Raymond et al., 2013), CH<sub>4</sub> from wetlands (Bridgham et al., 2006; Denman et al., 2007), CH<sub>4</sub> from streams and rivers (Stanley et al., 2016), CH<sub>4</sub> from beaver ponds (Whitfield et al., 2015), and CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> from small ponds (Holgerson and Raymond, 2016). One of the challenges in all such efforts is devising meaningful ways to address the inherent variability in GHG emissions from the water body type investigated. Although not always quantified, uncertainty in estimates is large, often exceeding 100% (e.g., Bastviken et al., 2011; Bridgham et al., 2006).

In the case of CH<sub>4</sub>, where both lotic (Stanley et al., 2016) and lentic (Bastviken et al., 2011; Whitfield et al., 2011) water bodies are predominantly supersaturated, there are added challenges. Release of CH<sub>4</sub> to the atmosphere from lentic water bodies is known to occur via diffusion from the water column, plant-mediated transport (e.g., aquatic-atmosphere exchange of gas through plant aerenchyma), and ebullition (bubble-mediated transport). The presence and density of aquatic vegetation (Oliveira Junior et al., 2020) along with water depth, organic matter loading, availability of labile organic matter, and seasonal fluctuations in water and sediment temperature (Chanton, 2005) can determine the relative importance of CH<sub>4</sub> emission pathways.

In shallow water with organic-rich sediments and high CH<sub>4</sub> production rates, CH<sub>4</sub> emissions are often dominated by ebullition (Weyhenmeyer, 1999; Joyce and Jewell, 2003; Venkiteswaran et al., 2013). There is a growing body of literature reporting the timing and quantity of bubble release, as well as their drivers, including sediment temperature and particle size, and changes in hydrostatic pressure of the overlying water column, and nutrients (Weyhenmeyer, 1999; DelSontro et al., 2010; Bartosiewicz et al., 2015; DelSontro et al., 2016; Aben et al., 2017; Beaulieu et al., 2019). Similarly, the amount of sulphate  $(SO_4^{2-})$  available for reduction can also be an important determinant of methanogenesis rates (Watson and Nedwell, 1998). Among these drivers, temperature has perhaps received the most focus, and has been identified as an important driver of wetland CH<sub>4</sub> release (Knox et al., 2021). Methane production and bubble formation in sediments, and release to overlying water have all been shown to be temperature dependent (DelSontro et al., 2016).

Identifying patterns, predictors, and rates of ebullition in small water bodies nonetheless remains difficult due to high spatial and temporal variability of the underlying processes, both within and among water bodies. Investigations of ebullition require considerably more effort than sampling for dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations, and despite the importance of ebullition as an emission pathway, dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> data are often used to derive some of the aforementioned flux estimates, without explicitly quantifying the potential importance of ebullitive  $CH_4$  release in small and/or shallow water bodies. This points to a need for data collection and improved understanding of the rates of  $CH_4$  release via ebullition in these systems as well as investigation of the potential physicochemical drivers of this release pathway.

This study investigates CH<sub>4</sub> release via ebullition across surface water in shallow ponds in three regions in Canada and the United States. Our focus is on ponds as they have been identified as distinct from wetlands (Holgerson and Raymond, 2016), and the surface area of these small systems is important globally (Downing et al., 2006), but ebullition for these systems is rarely quantified. We quantified shallow water ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release rates during two open-water seasons (2017 and 2018) and explored patterns of across site variability. We hypothesized that temperature would be an important driver of emissions at individual sites, and investigated ebullition patterns across a gradient of  $SO_4^{2-}$  concentrations and organic matter (OM) content. This work provides a foundation to better quantify ebullition rates and associated GHG fluxes from shallow ponds in these regions, where seasonal to annual records documenting the role of ebullition in wateratmosphere CH<sub>4</sub> exchange are sparse. Moreover, by looking across regions, we can build on the foundation of work that identifies key drivers like temperature within a site or region, and better understand how or why some systems behave differently.

#### 2. Methods

#### 2.1. Study sites

Study ponds were chosen on the basis of having predominantly natural or semi-natural surrounding landcover (e.g., urban park, seminatural prairie, conservation area; Table 1) and landowner permission. Between 2017 and 2018, 15 shallow freshwater ponds were sampled in three locations in Saskatchewan (SK) and Manitoba (MB), Canada and Missouri (MO), USA (Table 1). In SK, three semi-permanent ponds in a semi-arid prairie pothole region in the City of Saskatoon were investigated. One of the SK ponds was located within a conservation area and nearby (~150 m) a residential neighbourhood. Another site in SK is situated upslope of, and adjacent to, the South Saskatchewan River with cropped fields and parkland forming the contributing area. The third SK pond is surrounded by cropped fields at the site of a former livestock husbandry research facility. In MB, seven permanent ponds with shoreline dominated by Typha spp. and underlain by clayey glaciolacustrine deposits were located within two conservation areas, one located in the City of Winnipeg (5 ponds), and another 20 km north of Winnipeg near Stonewall, MB (2 ponds). In MO, five sites situated in the Ozark border ecoregion around the city of Columbia, were selected. Two MO sites are small ponds situated on private pastureland, one is in a prairie conservation area, one is within a woodland conservation area that is a reclaimed coal mine, and the other is largely surrounded by an urban park.

Saskatchewan and MB sites are situated in close proximity to the northern (SK) and eastern (MB) edges of the (Canadian) Prairies ecoregion with cold semi-arid (SK) and humid continental (MB) climates. Mean annual air temperature for these regions is 3.3 and 3.0 °C, respectively. The MO sites are located in a climate region characterised as humid continental but with a mean annual air temperature of 12.9 °C (Table 1). Ice-free open-water periods are typically limited to May–October in SK and MB, whereas MO water bodies may only experience intermittent ice cover in December and January of some years.

#### Table 1

Study site IDs, region (Canadian province or US state), geographic coordinates, land-use surrounding the ponds, dates of sampling, and mean annual air temperatures.

Site	Region	Latitude	Longitude	Land-use	Sampling dates	Air temperature (°C)
MB1	MB	49.82	-97.22	Woodland conservation	2017-08-24-2017-10-30,	3.0
					2018-05-23-2018-10-10	
MB2	MB	49.82	-97.22	Woodland conservation	2017-08-24-2017-10-30,	3.0
					2018-05-23-2018-10-10	
MB3	MB	49.82	-97.22	Woodland conservation	2017-08-24-2017-10-30,	3.0
					2018-05-23-2018-10-10	
MB4	MB	49.82	-97.22	Woodland conservation	2017-08-24-2017-10-30,	3.0
					2018-05-23-2018-10-10	
MB5	MB	49.82	-97.22	Woodland conservation	2017-08-24-2017-10-30,	3.0
					2018-05-23-2018-10-10	
MB6	MB	50.18	-97.13	Semi-natural prairie	2018-06-11-2018-10-09	3.0
MB7	MB	50.18	-97.13	Semi-natural prairie	2018-06-11-2018-10-09	3.0
MO1	MO	38.90	-92.34	Urban park	2017-08-27-2017-11-22,	12.9
					2018-06-08-2018-10-26	
MO2	MO	39.19	-92.29	Pasture	2017-09-17-2017-12-02	12.9
MO3	MO	39.08	-92.32	Woodland conservation	2017-09-30-2017-12-14	12.9
MO4	MO	39.14	-92.28	Pasture	2017-10-07-2017-12-02	12.9
MO5	MO	38.89	-91.74	Prairie conservation	2018-06-15-2018-11-13	12.9
SK3	SK	52.18	-106.56	Prairie conservation, residential	2017-08-14-2017-11-04,	3.3
					2018-05-07-2018-10-15	
SK4	SK	52.17	-106.62	Agricultural	2017-08-14-2017-11-04,	3.3
					2018-05-07-2018-10-15	
SK5	SK	52.12	-106.67	Urban park, agricultural	2017-08-15-2017-10-30,	3.3
					2018-05-24-2018-10-15	

# 2.2. Field sampling

At each site, 2–4 bubble traps featuring a pair of collection chambers (Matthews et al., 2005; Baulch et al., 2011; Venkiteswaran et al., 2013) were deployed in the shallow (< 1.2 m) water margins of each pond during the 2017 and/or 2018 open-water seasons. Traps were used to quantify ebullitive fluxes of greenhouse gases and were distributed within each pond to capture spatial variability. Each bubble trap contained two open-bottomed chambers (e.g., water cooler jugs with ~0.26 m average diameter) attached to a steel stake. A rubber stopper was inserted into the top end of each jug, providing an airtight seal. Sampling was generally limited to the ice-free months (~May–October) in Canada, while this was not a limitation at MO sites. Wildlife disturbance to the traps was common at some sites, and where fewer than four observations were available for a single year, the data were excluded from the analyses. Seven of 15 sites included in this analysis (Table 1), had data available for both years.

Gas volumes accumulated between sampling intervals (~2–3 weeks) were measured by drawing air from the bubble traps with a 60 mL syringe. This process was repeated until all gas was expelled from the chamber (water appeared at the top of the stopper), and total volume was recorded. For large volumes, an inverted water-filled graduated cylinder was used to determine the air volume via displacement (Baulch et al., 2011). When necessary, due to fluctuations in water level, traps were repositioned nearby and reset.

Greenhouse gas concentrations in fresh bubbles accumulating in the sediments were collected by manually disturbing sediments (i.e., forced ebullition) while moving along a transect (typically three transects at each site per site visit). Gases were collected with an inverted funnel attached to the body of a 60 mL syringe sealed with a Luer lock. Short transects of a few meters were often sufficient for gas collection, although longer transects were required in areas with low ebullition rates. Where sufficient gas volume for analysis was not collected after 10 min, sample collection was terminated. Methane concentrations of gas collected using these methods is not statistically different from gas collected gas samples were immediately transferred to Exetainer® vials (6 or 12 mL). In 2017, Exetainers were unevacuated, and following revision to our analytical method that facilitated analysis of high CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations for 2018, evacuated Exetainers were used.

Sediment samples were collected using an Ekman dredge (AJAX AMS Ekman dredge sampler) at all sites in 2017 and in 2018. Samples were collected adjacent to transects where bubble gas samples were obtained. A single sediment grab was collected for each transect, and a sample (~40–100 g) from the centre of each grab (to minimize potential loss of finer particles from sediment outwash when removing the dredge from the water) was kept for analysis. Individual sediment samples for each transect were bagged and refrigerated until further analysis.

Water temperature, electrical conductivity (EC), and pH were measured at depth during each site visit (YSI Environmental, Inc., or Oakton Instruments, Inc.). Temperature at the sediment-water interface was measured every 10 min at two SK sites (SK3, SK4) using HOBO Pendant Temperature/Light 8 K Data Loggers from June–October 2018. Bulk water samples in 500–1000 mL HDPE bottles were obtained at least once per season at all sites and stored cool for transport to the laboratory.

#### 2.3. Laboratory analysis

Bulk water samples were analyzed for a suite of chemical parameters. Total dissolved phosphorus (TDP), and sulphate ( $SO_4^{2-}$ ) were analyzed in duplicate using a SMARTCHEM® discrete analyzer (MB and SK sites). For the MO sites, TDP was analyzed spectrophotometrically and  $SO_4^{2-}$  was analyzed on a Lachat QuikChem Flow Injection Analyzer. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was analyzed on a Shimadzu® TOC-L. Total dissolved nitrogen (TDN) was analyzed on a Shimadzu® TOC-L with TNM-L module (SK sites), using a SMARTCHEM® discrete analyzer (MB sites), or spectrophotometrically using the second derivative spectroscopy method (MO sites; Crumpton et al., 1992). Methane concentrations were analyzed by gas chromatography (GC) with a Scion 456 Gas Chromatograph (Bruker, Ltd.) either by flame ionization detector (FID), or where concentrations were sufficient to saturate the FID signal, via thermal conductivity detector (TCD).

Sediment samples were air-dried, disaggregated, and sieved to 2 mm, then analyzed to determine organic matter content (OM) and particle size. Organic matter content was determined via loss-onignition (LOI) by heating oven-dried (105 °C) subsamples (~5 g) at 400 °C for 16 h in a muffle furnace (Schumacher, 2002). Postcombustion samples were analyzed in triplicate for particle size via laser ablation (Horiba Partica LA-950) after soaking overnight (16 h) in a dispersing agent.

#### 2.4. Data and statistical analysis

Littoral volumetric ebullitive fluxes (mL m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) for individual bubble trap chambers were quantified using accumulated ebullition volume (mL), chamber area (m<sup>2</sup>), and length of accumulation period (d), where accumulation period was taken as number of days between site visits. To facilitate comparison of fluxes across season and sites, accumulated volumes were normalized to standard temperature and pressure (STP; 273.15 K, 1 atm) according to the combined gas law:

$$V_2 = \frac{P_1 V_1 T_2}{T_1 P_2} \tag{1}$$

where  $V_2$  (mL) is the normalized gas volume,  $V_1$  (mL) is collected gas volume,  $P_1$  (atm) is local atmospheric pressure,  $T_1$  (K) is water temperature at time of sample collection, and  $P_2$  and  $T_2$  are standard pressure and temperature. Because there were two collection chambers at each location (bubble trap) within a site, measurements for the chambers were averaged to yield a flux measurement for the bubble trap for each sampling period.

The ideal gas law was applied to quantify littoral ebullitive GHG fluxes (e.g., mol  $CH_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) for each chamber:

$$n_g = \frac{P_1 V_2}{RT_1} \tag{2}$$

where  $n_g$  (mol) is amount of gas in each chamber,  $P_1$ , and  $T_1$  are standard temperature and pressure, and R (L atm mol<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>) is the ideal gas constant. Moles of CH<sub>4</sub> released for each interval ( $n_{CH4}$ ) were then calculated using average CH<sub>4</sub> concentration of gas samples collected from sediments ([CH<sub>4</sub>]; ppmv).

$$n_{\rm CH4} = \frac{[\rm CH_4]}{10^6} \times n_g \tag{3}$$

Gas samples collected in 2017 required a correction to account for mixing with ambient atmospheric air in unevacuated vials:

$$C_2 = \frac{C_T V_T - C_1 V_1}{V_2} \tag{4}$$

where  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ , and  $C_7$ , refer to ambient atmospheric, corrected, and GCanalyzed CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations, respectively. Total volume ( $V_T$ ) corresponds to the sum of the unevacuated vial volume ( $V_1$ , 6 or 12 mL) and the gas volume collected via forced ebullition ( $V_2$ , 14 or 20 mL). Measured ambient atmospheric concentrations ( $C_1$ ) in the Exetainers were 1.85 ppmv CH<sub>4</sub>. Finally, sampling interval length (d) and chamber area (m<sup>2</sup>) were used to quantify the flux rate.

Calculations, statistical tests, and data visualisations (ggplot2 package, Wickham, 2016) were performed using R (R Core Team, 2020). Visual inspection of histograms and quantile-quantile plots, and Levene's test (car package, leveneTest function, Fox and Weisburg, 2019) were used to investigate normality and homogeneity of variance. The data were non-normal and heteroscedastic. A non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test (stats package, kruskal.test function, R Core Team, 2020) was used to compare overall differences in CH<sub>4</sub> flux rates and concentrations, due to its flexibility of variance (e.g., does not require equal variance between groups) and distributional assumptions (Konietschke et al., 2015). We note that a significant result, if obtained, should be interpreted with caution, as the data do not duly satisfy the parametric nor non-parametric tests' assumptions. To compare between-site differences post-hoc Dunn's test (dunn.test package, dunn.test function, Dinno, 2017) for multiple comparisons with Benjamini-Yekutieli p-value adjustment was used, with an alpha value

of 0.05. Inter-year differences for individual sites were not tested, owing to the different timing of sample collection between years. Spearman rank correlations (stats package, cor.test function, R Core Team, 2020) were used to assess relationships between (median) ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release rates for each site and site physicochemical characteristics, including water temperature,  $SO_4^{2-}$  and OM; the alpha value of 0.05 was adjusted for multiple comparisons as described above. Our analysis focussed on these three parameters, as they have the potential to be directly linked to ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release, whereas nutrient concentrations may only be indirectly related. We also investigated generalized additive models (GAM; mgcv package, Wood, 2017) as an approach for identifying multivariate drivers (temperature,  $SO_4^{2-}$ , OM) of ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release. Where CH<sub>4</sub> release data were available for two years, we used the mean of these observations. We used a GAM to fit models with temperature,  $SO_4^{2-}$ , and OM as individual predictors and also explored additive models with and without grouping, with the Canadian and US sites each forming a group (cold and warm climates, respectively), and transformations (log, square root) were explored in an effort to normalize data, as necessary. This grouping may also account for other (non-climate) differences between these regions (see discussion). Model fitting was performed using the restricted maximum likelihood penalization method. We used diagnostic plots to check our models (gratia package; Simpson, 2021) and AIC, coefficient of determination and deviance explained were used to compare models.

# 3. Results

Ebullition fluxes were monitored with average monitoring periods of 6 and 18 weeks in 2017 and 2018, respectively; seven sites were monitored in both years. The sites represented a wide range in chemical character (Table 2) and land-use (Table 1). Average water temperatures during the monitoring periods at individual sites ranged from 8.4 to 26.4 °C, with sites monitored in both years having higher temperatures in 2018, attributed principally to an earlier start and end to the observation period. The sites were circumneutral or slightly basic and EC ranged by approximately two orders of magnitude (51–4040  $\mu$ S cm<sup>-1</sup>). Sulphate concentrations across the sites also exhibited a wide range (6–2820 mg  $L^{-1}$ ) but were below 100 mg  $L^{-1}$  at most sites, corresponding closely to EC levels. Total dissolved phosphorus and DOC (select sites) were also variable. Sediment geometric mean particle size was similar across the sites, ranging from silt (11 sites) to very fine sand (3 sites), while OM was more variable, ranging from 4 to 30% (Table 2).

#### 3.1. Ebullition fluxes

Open-water season rates of ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release were measurable at all sites, but were highly variable. In 2017, median rates for the 10 sites spanned more than four orders of magnitude  $(3.33 \times 10^{-4}-26.4 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$ . In 2018 (12 sites) the pattern was similar (Fig. 1) and ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release was highly variable, but the lowest observed rates were somewhat higher, in part because data for MO sites with low ebullitive flux were not available in 2018 (median rates:  $1.67 \times 10^{-2}$ -40.4 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>). With the exceptions of the MO sites and SK3, median CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes did not exceed a 10-fold difference across sites. There were statistically significant differences in CH<sub>4</sub> flux rates among sites in both 2017 ( $\chi^2 = 20.8$ , df = 9, p < 0.05) and 2018 ( $\chi^2 = 27.5$ , df = 11, p < 0.01). Despite clear differences in magnitude between sites (Fig. 1), post-hoc results did not identify significant differences, possibly due to a large number of comparisons, and small group sizes (maximum of 4 bubble traps per pond).

Methane concentrations from gas collected directly from the sediments (Fig. 2) exhibited a similar pattern to  $CH_4$  fluxes (Fig. 1), which is expected given that these  $CH_4$  concentration observations were used to calculate fluxes. Fresh bubble  $CH_4$  concentrations were found

#### Table 2

Physicochemical characteristics of the study sites during the observation periods in 2017 and 2018. Organic matter and mean particle size represent measurements on sediments (both years) while all other parameters represent mean surface water conditions. Concentrations below detection limits are denoted by <DL.

Site	Year	Water temperature	рН	EC	$SO_4^{2-}$	TDN	TDP	DOC	Organic matter	Mean particle size
		(°C)		$(\mu S \text{ cm}^{-1})$	$(mmol L^{-1})$	$(\mu mol L^{-1})$	$(\mu mol L^{-1})$	$(mmol L^{-1})$	(%)	(µm)
MB1	2017, 2018	12.2, 19.1	8.8, 9.8	1140, 988	-, 0.36	-, 93	-, 0.21	_	9.6	32.4
MB2	2017, 2018	10.7, 16.2	8.4, 8.0	975, 964	-, 0.07	-, 64	-, 0.32	_	11.5	36.6
MB3	2017, 2018	9.8, 15.5	8.0, 7.9	1040, 980	-, 0.11	-, 64	-, 1.8	_	8.5	41.3
MB4	2017, 2018	8.5, 15.2	7.9, 7.8	1040, 981	-, 0.49	-, 35	-, 2.0	_	16.2	64.7
MB5	2017, 2018	9.3, 15.8	7.9, 7.9	1090, 993	-, 0.51	-, 38	-, 1.4	_	13.1	48.4
MB6	2018	17.1	8.4	924	1.0	120	0.07	_	29.5	53.7
MB7	2018	16.6	8.0	1290	0.68	80	0.13	_	27.1	71.7
MO1	2018	28.6	8.7	126	0.06	_	0.84	0.73	4.3	48.2
MO2	2017	15.6	7.6	339	<dl< td=""><td>60</td><td>1.2</td><td>0.72</td><td>11.6</td><td>47.0</td></dl<>	60	1.2	0.72	11.6	47.0
MO3	2017	11.4	7.4	1883	3.9	36	0.23	0.40	11.3	19.3
MO4	2017	8.9	8.2	79	<dl< td=""><td>51</td><td>0.57</td><td>0.68</td><td>9.6</td><td>62.8</td></dl<>	51	0.57	0.68	9.6	62.8
MO5	2018	24.8	8.0	51	0.02	_	0.39	0.73	-	-
SK3	2017, 2018	11.3, 16.2	7.7, 8.1	4040, 3870	28, 29	160, 180	0.81, 1.3	2.3, 2.3	18.7	36.8
SK4	2017, 2018	14.0, 17.1	8.9, 8.6	506, 534	0.95, 0.92	46, 120	-, 2.2	0.81, 1.1	6.9	46.4
SK5	2018	17.2	9.1	1130	4.2	200	16	2.1	7.8	31.8

to be significantly different between sites in both 2017 ( $\chi^2 = 80.2$ , df = 9, p < 0.001) and 2018 ( $\chi^2 = 167$ , df = 11, p < 0.001). Observed CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations of fresh gas collected directly from the sediments were notably lower at the MO sites and SK3, which also had lower ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release rates (Fig. 2). Median CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations for these five sites were less than 50,000 ppmv, while the remaining sites (MB sites, SK4 and SK9) exhibited median concentrations greater than 500,000

ppmv. Post-hoc tests identified that these differences between sites were significant in many cases. This included across region differences; for example, MO4 and SK3 had significantly lower CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations than all MB sites in 2017 (p < 0.05). There were also within region differences; for example, SK4 CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations were higher than SK3 in 2017 (p < 0.05), and MB2, MB3 and MB5 were higher than MB6 in 2018 (p < 0.05).



Fig. 1. Littoral ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> flux rates for study sites in MO (MO1, MO2, MO3, MO4, MO5), SK (SK3, SK4, SK5), and MB (MB1, MB2, MB3, MB4, MB5, MB6, MB7) during 2017 and 2018 open-water seasons. (Note that while a log scale is used here for clarity, no flux rates were zero).



Region 🖨 Missouri 🖨 Saskatchewan 🖨 Manitoba

Fig. 2. Fresh bubble CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations from study sites in MO (MO1, MO2, MO3, MO4, MO5), SK (SK3, SK4, SK5), and MB (MB1, MB2, MB3, MB4, MB5, MB6, MB7) during 2017 and 2018 open-water seasons.

#### 3.2. Physicochemical conditions

Across our study, median ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release rates were not significantly related to potential drivers including temperature (r = 0.27, p = 0.23) and OM (r = 0.24, p = 0.42; Fig. 3). At our sites in MB, ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release was consistently high, despite contrasting temperatures and OM among sites. We also observed that sites with both very low (e.g., MO sites) and very high SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> were found to have very low

ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release rates (Fig. 4), and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> was not related to ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release across the study sites (r = 0.099, p = 0.70). We did, however, observe high variability in CH<sub>4</sub> release at lower SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentrations (~0–1 mmol L<sup>-1</sup>), whereas for the lone site with very high SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> (SK3: >25 mmol L<sup>-1</sup>), volumes collected in the ebullition traps and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations (Fig. S1) were both consistently low (both years).

Average pond temperature and efflux rates were not significantly correlated at the site level (over the period of observation; Fig. 3)







**Fig. 4.** Median ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> flux for different surface water SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentrations for A) study sites with SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentrations below 5 mmol L<sup>-1</sup>, B) all study sites. Correlation statistics for the study sites are shown. Data points representing small agricultural reservoirs in Tobacco Creek (TCR), southern Manitoba, generated using methods analogous to the current study, are also shown.

suggesting that temperature is not a driver of inter-site differences. When considering all ebullition observations and the temperatures of their respective observation intervals (and thus temporal variability), we did find a significant, albeit weak, positive correlation (r = 0.26, p < 0.001). When investigating temperature and CH<sub>4</sub> release at individual sites, significant correlations were observed for only four of the 15 sites (Fig. 5). For some of the sites where correlations were not significant (e.g., MB1 and SK4), ebullition remains elevated for weeks after temperature begins dropping toward minima (below 10 °C; Fig. S1). At other sites, periods of maximum ebullition occurred at moderate temperatures (e.g., MB5, MB7). In contrast, ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release rates were low and relatively static across the period of observation for some sites (MO1 through MO5, SK3), and ebullition appears to be largely independent of temperature. Analysis of CH<sub>4</sub> concentration

and temperature across the sites and observation periods indicated they were not significantly correlated (r = -0.085, p = 0.11).

A multivariate GAM including temperature,  $SO_4^{2-}$ , and OM was not significant; however, when grouping the sites according to warm and cold region (Canada and US sites, respectively), we found a model with a significant coefficient for region, and significant smooth terms for  $SO_4^{2-}$  and OM (Fig. S2; adjusted  $r^2 = 0.88$ ; deviance explained = 91%, edf = 1). This model had the strongest performance of the models tested (including a model with region, temperature,  $SO_4^{2-}$ , and OM; Table S1); however, the distributional assumptions were not met (Fig. S3), and we were unable to meet the assumptions by transforming the data. Thus, while the model is interpretable from a mechanistic standpoint, its robustness has not been confirmed.



**Fig. 5.** Median  $CH_4$  release rates according to average water temperature of individual sampling intervals for all sites and both years. Correlations for sites with semi-transparent points are non-significant. Sites with non-transparent points (MB2, MB3, MB4, and MB5) indicate significant Spearman correlations (r > 0.6, p < 0.05).

# 4. Discussion

This work quantifies multi-season ebullitive  $CH_4$  fluxes in 15 ponds in three regions across the Great Plains and bordering landscapes. Most studies to date focus on individual ponds, or similar ponds within a single region or landscape type. Our study quantifies openwater season ebullitive  $CH_4$  release rates with a view to contrasting rates across different regions and physicochemical pond characteristics. This work illustrates local and regional between-pond variability in ebullitive fluxes, while also suggesting that temperature is not a dominant driver across the range of system behaviour observed. The results also suggest that  $CH_4$  release is suppressed at high  $SO_4^{2-}$ . Likewise, other potential controls including OM were not clearly linked to differences in ebullitive  $CH_4$  release, as the study sites demonstrated considerable differences in behaviour.

#### 4.1. Methane emission

Small, shallow ponds like those investigated herein have been identified as important sources of  $CH_4$  (Holgerson and Raymond, 2016; Davidson et al., 2018). Much of the work on  $CH_4$  release from small ponds has been on natural systems in the boreal ecoregion, and there is a particular need for measurements from productive systems and those located in urban or agriculturally impacted regions (DelSontro et al., 2018). Small ponds are often compared to or miscategorized as wetlands, owing to limitations of remote signal interpretation (Lehner and Döll, 2004). Nonetheless, processes occurring in small ponds are distinct (Holgerson and Raymond, 2016), and we have focussed on ponds rather than a broader suite of aquatic systems. Studies of  $CH_4$  emissions from ponds often employ methods that collect discrete samples over short time periods (e.g., Bansal et al., 2016). Low temporal resolution sampling is likely to underestimate emissions (Wik et al., 2016), as these methods do not adequately account for ebullition from open water, which can be event-based and a dominant flux pathway for  $CH_4$  (Weyhenmeyer, 1999; Venkiteswaran et al., 2013). As such, these fluxes remain poorly quantified.

The data reported in this study add to the sparse but growing number of measurements of CH<sub>4</sub> ebullition from ponds globally, and suggest that both rates of ebullition and controls on this process are extremely variable. The CH<sub>4</sub> ebullition rates from 15 sites in three distinct regions span a wider range  $(3.3 \times 10^{-4}-40 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$  than previously reported for similar pond systems (~0–27 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>; Table 3). The seven ponds in MB exhibited consistently high ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release (Fig. 1), the five ponds in MO had characteristically low ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release. Mean flux rates for both MB (21.7 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>)

#### Table 3

Ebullitive  $CH_4$  release rates for open-water ponds reported in the literature<sup>a</sup> as well as details on the nature of the sampling and study sites. Only studies of freshwater ponds with repeat measurements over an extended period (e.g., totalling >1 month, either continuously, or via regular multi-day sampling intervals that collectively span >1 month) were included. Other water bodies (lakes, reservoirs, tailings ponds) and wetland sites where water is not ponded above the surface were excluded.

Pond type	Ebullitive CH <sub>4</sub> flux	Location	Sites	Traps	Measurements	Ponded water depth(s)	Pond area(s)	Contributing Area/Land	Source
	$(mmol m^{-2} d^{-1})$			(per site)	(total)	(m)	(ha)	cover	
Mesotrophic ponds	0.22-0.47 (range for all sites)	Finland	2	1	_	1.8-3.2	1.0	Boreal forest, peatland	Huttunen et al. (2003)
Northern boreal ponds	$4.6 \pm 4.1$ (mean $\pm$ SD for all sites)	Québec, Canada	10	1	77	0.6-0.8	0.12-4.2	Mixed boreal forest	DelSontro et al. (2016)
Northern boreal beaver pond	1.32, 7.14 (means; vegetated, open water)	Thompson, Manitoba, Canada	1	_	_	0.5–2.3	5.0	Boreal forest, peatland	Dove et al. (1999)
Boreal beaver pond	$1.42 \pm 1.04$ (mean $\pm$ SD)	Ontario, Canada	1	9	-	1.4	3.8	Mixed boreal forest	Weyhenmeyer (1999)
Thaw ponds	0–3.34; 1.25 (range; mean for all sites)	Abisko, Sweden	8	2-4	2063	0.18–0.85	0.0013-0.045	Sporadic permafrost peatland complex	Burke et al. (2019)
Ombrotrophic bog	0–15.8; 0.686 (range; median)	Siikaneva peatland, Finland	1	11–13	50	1	_	Peatland	Männistö et al. (2019)
Emergent freshwater marsh	0.07 (0.03–0.09); 1.03 (0.78–1.36) (median, Q <sub>1</sub> –Q <sub>3</sub> for each site)	Sacramento Delta, California, USA	2	6	588	1–2	121	Restored wetland; previously agricultural peatland	McNicol et al. (2017)
Farm ponds, swamp	$22 \pm 12$ ; $27 \pm 13$ ; $22 \pm 12$ (mean $\pm$ SD of multiple day intervals for three sites)	Michigan, USA	3	1	32	1	0.0025; 0.015; 8.8	Agricultural	Baker-Blocker et al. (1977)
Permanent ponds	10.2–40.4; 21.7 $\pm$ 15.4 (range; mean $\pm$ SD)	Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada	7	2–4	244	1–2	0.014–147	Woodland conservation; semi-natural prairie	This study
Semi-permanent pothole ponds	$5.0 \cdot 10^{-4}$ -26.4; 12.5 ± 13.9 (range; mean ± SD)	Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, Canada	3	3	149	1-2	0.16-1.31	Prairie Conservation, residential; Agricultural; Urban park, agricultural	This study
Pasture, woodland or urban ponds	$3.33 \cdot 10^{-4}$ -0.43; 0.144 ± 0.332 (range; mean ± SD)	Columbia, Missouri, USA	5	3	114	1–2	0.26–2.7	Urban park; Pasture; Woodland conservation	This study

<sup>a</sup> Keywords used in Web of Science search were methane, ebullition, and pond OR wetland.

<sup>1</sup>) and SK ponds (12.5 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) were higher than in all regions previously reported, with the exception of farm ponds in Michigan (Table 3). With few exceptions, including tropical reservoirs (Keller and Stallard, 1994; DelSontro et al., 2011) and sites that feature CH<sub>4</sub> seeps (Spulber et al., 2010; Walter Anthony et al., 2010), the seven MB sites as well as SK4 and SK9 are among the highest reported ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> flux rates for open-water seasons, with MB7 (40 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) having the highest known rate of ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release for a freshwater pond.

Ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release from MO ponds (mean: 0.14 mmol  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ) were comparable to other sites with low CH<sub>4</sub> production, including mesotrophic ponds in Finland (Huttunen et al., 2003). This ran counter to initial predictions, given that these sites are warm and nutrient-rich. In contrast to the MB and SK sites, MO sites do not undergo a prolonged period of ice-cover, which could contribute to lower but less (temporally) variable rates over the course of a full year. Nonetheless, we note that CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations were significantly different between systems (Fig. 2), and the MO sites featured significantly lower  $CH_4$ concentrations than most MB and SK sites. Methane concentrations at the four MO sites and SK3 are lower than reported in previous studies (Walter Anthony et al., 2010; Baulch et al., 2011). We found a weak (r = 0.43, p < 0.001) but significant relationship between CH<sub>4</sub> concentration and volumetric flux across the study (Fig. S4), suggesting that the CH<sub>4</sub> concentration of gases collected in sediments could be used as a coarse proxy for indicating the relative potential for shallow sites to release CH<sub>4</sub>.

#### 4.2. Drivers of methane emission

We did not observe consistent relationships between temperature and CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes; only four of the sites had significant positive relationships with temperature, and in some cases these sites were adjacent to ones where no relationship with temperature was observed. This is despite the sites in MB and SK having temperature ranges of >15 °C during the observed open-water periods. The MO sites had consistently low fluxes, despite sustained high temperatures during the observation period for some sites.

While some studies have found clear exponential increases in CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes with temperature in a variety of freshwater systems (Aben et al., 2017; van Bergen et al., 2019), others have reached similar conclusions to ours, namely that the effects of rising temperatures are mediated by other environmental factors. There are a number of studies that have found an interaction between eutrophication and temperature, suggesting that substrate availability may be more limiting to CH<sub>4</sub> ebullition than temperature in some ponds (DelSontro et al., 2016), while there may be synergistic effects of eutrophication and temperature in highly productive ponds (Davidson et al., 2018). Results from urban ponds are mixed and at times conflicting, suggesting that in systems with substantial human influence, teasing apart individual drivers may be more difficult than in more pristine systems. There are examples of a clear relationship between CH<sub>4</sub> flux and temperature (Natchimuthu et al., 2014; McPhillips and Walter, 2015), and where no clear temperature relationship was observed (Gorsky et al., 2019). In the current study, pond management practices such as fish stocking or redox constraints (see below) may be more important than temperature in controlling CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes at individual sites. We suggest that these factors may constrain CH<sub>4</sub> release and may result in ebullition flux being unresponsive to temperature at select sites. For similar reasons, site-specific factors governing CH<sub>4</sub> production could confound our ability to detect a temperature relationship across sites.

There is some indication from our data that seasonal patterns of CH<sub>4</sub> concentration in sediments and bubble formation may not be entirely synchronous. At the SK and MB sites, where there was a marked seasonal pattern in air temperatures, the sediment CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations remained high through the end of the season, while volumetric

ebullitive flux tended to decrease as water temperatures cooled down in the fall. Both CH<sub>4</sub> production and bubble formation and release have been shown to be temperature dependent, especially in ponds (DelSontro et al., 2016). Bubble release is affected by myriad biological, physical, and chemical processes, many of which depend on temperature to greater or lesser degrees (Wik et al., 2018). While this analysis did not investigate factors such as hydrostatic pressure due to changing water levels, water level drawdown was notable for only two sites (SK3 and SK9). For SK3, which had among the highest temperatures and OM, ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release was uniformly low, suggesting that another top-down control plays a role. Part of the challenge of identifying relationships between temperature and ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> flux is that the temperature dependence of each of the component processes may be more or less important, depending on other environmental drivers (DelSontro et al., 2016).

Previous work from a wide variety of systems has suggested that  $SO_4^{2-}$  concentrations can mediate  $CH_4$  emissions as sulphate-reducing bacteria can be superior competitors for substrates used by methanogens (Abram and Nedwell, 1978). High SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2–</sup> concentrations as a result of hydrological inputs (Bansal et al., 2016) or soil characteristics (Dunmola et al., 2010) have been related to low CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from Prairie ponds. The ponds in our study featured a wide range in  $SO_4^{2-}$  (Table 2), and ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> flux was highly variable at low SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentration, including at levels previously suggested to be potentially CH<sub>4</sub> limiting (0.031 mmol  $L^{-1}$ , Pennock et al., 2010). We demonstrate that relatively high ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release can occur at  $SO_4^{2-}$  concentrations approaching 4 mmol L<sup>-1</sup>. Our analysis featured sites with both low and high ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release across this SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> range (0–4 mmol L<sup>-1</sup>). In contrast, while our analysis featured only one site with very high  $SO_4^{2-}$  concentration (>25 mmol L<sup>-1</sup>), ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release at this site was very low ( $<0.1 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ). Sulphate was significant in the GAM, but the single high  $SO_4^{2-}$  site may have been overly influential on this relationship given the relatively small number of sites (Fig. S2). Likewise, while OM was also included in the best GAM, we caution that a group of sites exhibiting such a diversity of ebullition behaviour and physicochemical character as shown here can present a challenge for multivariate analyses generally, as the strength of multivariate analysis lies in having very large numbers of observations to explain complex underlying patterns; datasets of this nature for ebullition in these small systems do not yet exist. Nonetheless, the behaviour for the high  $SO_4^{2-}$  pond (SK3) could suggest that  $SO_4^{2-}$ acts as a top-down control when at sufficiently high levels. This may be important for the Prairie Pothole Region where pothole pond dissolved  $CH_4$  is strongly related to  $SO_4^{2-}$  concentration (L.T. Dyck unpublished data). Using our data, along with those from Helmle et al. (In review) for small (<1 ha) agricultural reservoirs in southern MB suggests that SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> may only be important as a control at relatively high concentrations (>4 mmol  $L^{-1}$ ). This result highlights the still poorly understood role of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> as a methanogenesis suppressant in pond systems, and more data from  $SO_4^{2-}$  rich ponds are needed to investigate this mechanism. For the MO sites that exhibit a range of  $SO_4^{2-}$  (<DL to 3.9 mmol L<sup>-1</sup>), but consistently low ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release, other factors may also be important.

Urban ponds are typically highly managed systems, and these management practices can interfere with typical controls on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions observed in more natural systems. Mesocosm experiments have shown that ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> emissions decreased by 67% as a result of the addition of benthivorous fish (i.e., carp), where increased sediment oxidation was attributed to bioturbation by the carp, resulting in fishinduced reduction in ebullition (Oliveira Junior et al., 2019). The MO ponds were likely all stocked with carp, as this practice is very common in ponds in MO (Jones et al., in review). Notably, the MO1 pond was stocked with thirty 20–25 cm long grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*) in September 2017 to control aquatic vegetation (Pers Comm, Darby Niswonger, Fisheries Management Biologist, Missouri Department of Conservation, Columbia, MO). We hypothesize that this fish management practice enhanced CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation, contributing to the low CH<sub>4</sub> ebullitive emissions in MO ponds. Vegetation management practices in these MO ponds may also have enhanced sediment aeration; like many ponds and reservoirs in the Midwest, the MO ponds were stocked with American water willow (*Justicia americana*) in order to improve fish habitat (Jones et al., in review; Strakosh et al., 2005). This emergent macrophyte can substantially alter the sediment structure (Fritz and Feminella, 2003), and its aerenchymous stems may alter pathways of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Waldo et al., 2019). Water hyacinth (*Eichhornia crassipes*) is ubiquitous in MO, and has also been implicated in altering CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Oliveira-Junior et al., 2018). These results point to the complexity of unraveling competing drivers in highly managed systems and the need to include site-specific factors when estimating CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from small ponds.

#### 5. Conclusions

The results of this study have several important implications for estimating CH<sub>4</sub> ebullition from small ponds. Our study is unique in its focus on capturing open-water season rates for multiple years across three distinct regions of the Great Plains. This diverse set of study sites exhibits a wide range in rates of ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> release. Identifying clear drivers of differing behaviour among the sites proved difficult. While temperature is significantly related to ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> emissions at some sites, this relationship is far from universal. Other factors including trophic status and OM availability (DelSontro et al., 2016; Dalcin Martins et al., 2017; Davidson et al., 2018) have been identified in other studies as important in mediating this temperature-CH<sub>4</sub> relationship; however, this was less clear in the present dataset. Rather, redox constraints from SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentrations and management practices seem to have resulted in low CH<sub>4</sub> emissions at some sites where OM levels were moderate, even at higher temperatures. These results have several important implications. First, the results affirm that rates of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from small ponds can be very high, and given the importance of these water bodies globally, should be carefully considered in estimates of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from aquatic systems. Second, given the range of ebullitive CH<sub>4</sub> emissions within regions, accurate scaling, for example to quantify regional emissions from water bodies, will be predicated on having sufficient and representative data. Third, caution must be exercised when using observed relationships with temperature to extrapolate to other water bodies, even within the same region, as other environmental drivers can disrupt this relationship. Finally, these results suggest that the effects of rising global temperatures on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from ponds will not be uniform, and investigations into site-specific controls are critical for predicting the trajectory of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from ponds.

#### **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

**A.A.P. Baron:** Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **L.T. Dyck:** Data curation, Investigation, Writing – review & editing. **H. Amjad:** Data curation, Investigation. **J. Bragg:** Data curation, Investigation. **E. Kroft:** Data curation, Investigation. **J. Newson:** Data curation, Investigation. **K. Oleson:** Data curation, Investigation. **J. Newson:** Data curation, Investigation. **K. Oleson:** Data curation, Investigation. **J. Venkiteswaran:** Resources, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **R.L. North:** Resources, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **C.J. Whitfield:** Methodology, Resources, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing.

# **Declaration of competing interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary information

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