Understanding Methane Emissions from Impounded Rivers - A Process-based Approach to Quantify Methane Emission Rates in Space and Time

by

Andreas Mäck

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Thesis examiners:

Prof. Dr. Andreas Lorke, University of Koblenz-Landau

Prof. Dr. Hermann Jungkunst, University of Koblenz-Landau

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Declaration

I herewith declare that I autonomously carried out the PhD dissertation entitled *"Understanding Methane Emissions from Impounded Rivers – A Process-based Approach to Quantify Methane Emission Rates in Space and Time"*. All used assistances are declared and parts of involved contributors and other authors are clearly indicated. This dissertation has never been submitted elsewhere for an exam, as dissertation or for evaluation in a similar context; neither to any department of this university nor to any other scientific institution.

This dissertation is based on the following publications:

1. Maeck, A., DelSontro, T., McGinnis, D. F., Fischer, H., Flury, S., Schmidt, M., Fietzek, P. and Lorke, A., 2013. Sediment Trapping by Dams creates Methane Emission Hot Spots, *Environmental Science and Technology*, 47, 8130-8137, dx.doi.org/10.1021/es4003907
2. Maeck, A. and Lorke, A., 2013. Ship-lock induced surges in an impounded river and their impact on sub-daily flow velocity variation. *River Research and Applications*, doi: 10.1002/rra.2648
3. Maeck, A., Hofmann, H. and Lorke, A., 2014, Pumping methane out of aquatic sediments – Ebullition forcing mechanisms in an impounded river. *Biogeosciences*.

Landau, 1.4.2014 Andreas Maeck

Place, Date Signature

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The earth´s mean temperature would be around -18°C if no greenhouse gases (GHG) were in the atmosphere (Mitchell 1989). However, GHG gases like water vapor, carbon dioxide (CO_2), methane (CH_4) and nitrous oxide (N_2O) convert the outgoing infrared radiation of the earth into heat so that the global mean temperature is around +14.5°C (Forster et al. 2007). The efficiency of the conversion and thus heat generation by GHGs depends on the gas concentration. As concentrations of anthropogenic GHGs (mostly CO_2, CH_4, N_2O) increased strongly since pre-industrial times, they affected the earth´s heat budget and are very likely primarily responsible for the increase in the global mean temperature since the mid-20th century (Susan 2007).

Of the combined radiative forcing of all GHGs (+2.63 ±0.26 W m^{-2}), CO_2 (+1.66 ±0.17 W m^{-2}) and CH_4 (+0.48 ±0.05 W m^{-2}) contribute the most (Forster et al. 2007) and play therefore a key role for the future magnitude of global warming. Presently, atmospheric CO_2 and CH_4 concentrations are 393.8 ppm (in 2012, NOAA 2013) and 1803 ppb, substantially above pre-industrial levels of 278 and 720 ppb, respectively (Susan 2007). While the increase in atmospheric CO_2 is primarily caused by the use of fossil fuel and land-use changes, the relative contribution of different sources of CH_4 are not well established (Susan 2007).

CH_4 is produced and emitted to the atmosphere from various terrestrial and aquatic sources. Three classes of CH_4 formation pathways can be distinguished; biogenic, thermogenic and pyrogenic CH_4. Biogenic CH_4 is produced by microorganisms mainly in anoxic environments or micro-niches. This includes various source types ranging from termites and ruminants to wetlands and aquatic ecosystems, but also organic waste deposits (e.g. landfills). Subsurface geological processes generate thermogenic CH_4 over millions of years. This gas

can be transported to earth surface systems via natural features like marine seeps or via anthropogenic exploitation as a fossil fuel resource. Incomplete combustion of carbon, e.g. from biomass during wildfires or from fossil fuel in combustion engines, produces pyrogenic CH_4. All sources together emitted in the last decades between 548 and 678 Tg CH_4 yr^{-1} (Kirschke et al. 2013), which is to over 90% balanced by the photochemical reduction of CH_4 by hydroxyl radicals in the atmosphere (Forster et al. 2007, Kirschke et al. 2013).

To quantify the contribution of the three classes of methanogenesis; biogenic, pyrogenic and thermogenic, isotopic ratios and inverse modeling techniques are used (for examples see Bousquet et al. 2006 or Dlugokencky et al. 2009). However, since the spatial resolution of this method is too coarse for the quantification of single sources, like freshwater systems, bottom-up approaches are used for global CH_4 emission estimates of ecosystem type sources. For example, Bastviken et al. (2011) estimated the contribution of freshwater systems by up-scaling of many individual studies to be around 103 Tg CH_4 yr^{-1}.

Freshwater systems have a strong impact on the global carbon cycle despite their limited areal extent since they transport and transform large amounts of carbon (Battin et al. 2009; Tranvik et al. 2009; Regnier et al. 2013). Additionally, they are susceptible to anthropogenic changes like river damming or flow regulation which alters the systems physical and chemical environment and therefore impacts nutrient and carbon cycling (Regnier et al. 2013).

Organic carbon (C_{org}) enters freshwater systems either as dissolved C_{org} transported via groundwater or tributary inflow or as particulate C_{org} imported for example via surface run off or wastewater sewage plant discharge. The fate of carbon entering freshwater systems depends on the physical and chemical properties of the system. For example, in nutrient poor, fast flowing streams or rivers, most of the allochthonous carbon entering the system is

transformed aerobically into CO_2. Contrarily, C_{org} stored in anoxic sediments, e.g. in reservoirs, is mostly degraded to CH_4 (Sobek et al. 2012). In terms of the contribution of freshwaters to GHG emissions, CH_4 is the most important species since carbon which is transformed into CH_4 instead of CO_2 and emitted to the atmosphere has a 25-fold stronger impact on global warming on a 100 year timescale per mass compared to CO_2 (Forster et al. 2007).

The production rate of CH_4 depends on various parameters including the degradability of the substrate, temperature, and the concentration of alternative electron acceptors e.g. sulfate (Segers 1998). For total CH_4 production per area, the amount of substrate, for example the thickness of sediments, may also play an important role.

From the sediment, CH_4 can be transported to the atmosphere via three transport modes; diffusion, ebullition and plant-mediated flux (Fig. 1-1). Dissolved CH_4 diffuses from the sediment to the water column. At the oxycline, either located within or at the top layer of the sediment or in the water column, a large fraction of the upward diffusing CH_4 can be oxidized by methane oxidizing bacteria (Liikanen and Martikainen 2003). From the water column, CH_4 diffuses across the water surface to the atmosphere (Fig. 1-1) since in most cases the water is supersaturated with CH_4 compared to the atmosphere (Bastviken et al. 2004). The diffusive surface emissions depend on the concentration difference between dissolved CH_4 in the water phase and atmospheric CH_4 and on the exchange or piston velocity, which is a function of the near-surface turbulence (Gschwend and Imboden 2005). A special case of diffusive fluxes are the emissions at hydraulic structures, e.g. dams, where due to enormous turbulence the exchange velocity is strongly enhanced (Fig. 1-1). Additionally, pressure reduction of the water passing through turbines or dams can increase the magnitude this flux path (Fearnside

and Pueyo 2012). The so-called storage-flux can be grouped into this flux category, where CH_4 enriched hypolimnic water is brought to the surface by deep-water convective mixing or lake turnover and emitted subsequently by surface diffusion (Bastviken et al. 2004, Fig. 1-1).

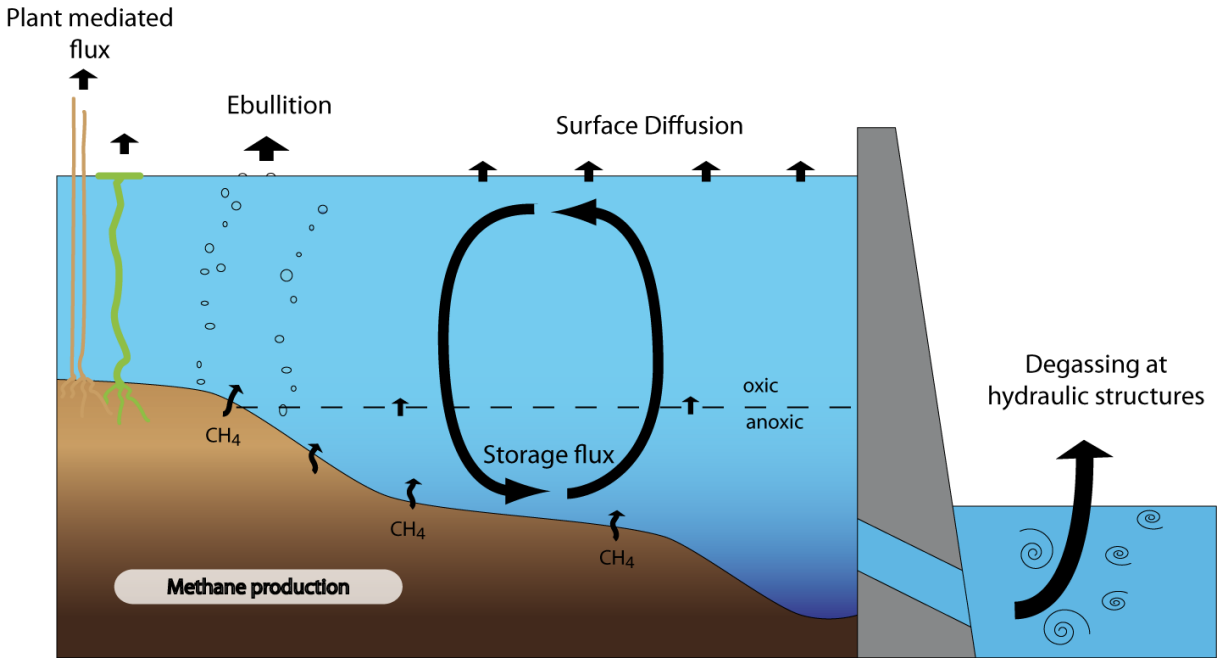

Fig. 1-1: CH_4 transport pathways in aquatic systems.

If the partial pressure of all dissolved gases in the sediment exceeds ambient pressure, e.g. due to ongoing CH_4 production, free gas will be formed (Boudreau et al. 2005). This gas can evade the sediment as rising bubbles which transport their content to the atmosphere (Fig. 1-1). However, along the rise of the bubbles, gas exchange across the bubble surface occurs which can, for example in case of long rise tracks in deeper waters, lead to the dissolution of bubbles (McGinnis et al. 2006a; Ostrovsky et al. 2008). Gas exchange of bubbles and ambient water can increase water column CH_4 levels and thus enhance the diffusive flux of CH_4 to the atmosphere (DelSontro et al. 2010).

The plant-mediated transport of CH_4 from the sediments to the atmosphere via the aerenchyme of macrophytes represents the third major pathway (Fig. 1-1). On a global scale,

this transport mode contributes ~ 10% to the total freshwater CH_4 emissions, while CH4 diffusive surface emissions emit ~35% and ebullition ~55% (Bastviken et al. 2011).

On a global scale, most river systems are altered anthropogenically and over 58% of all large river systems are fragmented by dams (Nilsson et al. 2005), leading to a reduction of the terrestrial flux of carbon to the ocean by 26% (Syvitski et al. 2005). Large amounts of carbon (1 to 3 Pg C) (Syvitski et al. 2005) are stored behind dams and CH_4 emission rates of reservoirs are typically higher compared with natural lakes or free-flowing rivers (Bastviken et al. 2011; Mendonca et al. 2012). The impoundment of rivers as seen for example in central Europe, lead to increased water residence times, lower flow velocities and subsequent sedimentation in basins of reduced flow velocities, e.g. upstream of dams (McGinnis et al. 2006b; Schöl 2006). Especially high sedimentation rates lead to enhanced CH_4 production, since easily degradable organic matter is also available in deeper anoxic sediment layers (Sobek et al. 2012).

Combining the continuous trapping of organic material in impounded rivers with the subsequent build-up of thick sediment layers with potential high CH_4 production rates leads to the hypothesis that impounding rivers leads to higher CH_4 emission rates. However, up to now, studies of CH_4 emissions in impounded rivers covering all relevant flux pathways are lacking.

Therefore, the aims of this thesis are 1) the quantification of all relevant CH_4 emission pathways of an impounded river over large spatial (basin-wide) and long temporal (seasonal) scales, 2) the identification of all relevant processes responsible for the magnitude of surface emissions and 3) the identification of the processes controlling the spatial and temporal variability.

This thesis consists of three publications reporting the results of the DFG funded project "MethaneFlux – Methane emissions from impounded rivers – A process-based case study at the River Saar".

In chapter 2, the results of a 93-km longitudinal survey in combination with seasonal measurements in one impoundment are presented. With this dataset, it is shown on a quantitative basis that intensive sedimentation upstream of dams led to high CH_4 emission rates. Chapter 3 discusses the hydrodynamics and hydrostatic pressure variations in response to ship-locking in the River Saar. Ship-locking induces gravity waves, called surges, which strongly influence the hydrostatic pressure and flow velocity variability at the impoundment Serrig. Chapter 4 investigates the temporal variability of ebullition, which is strongly influenced by hydrostatic pressure changes caused by ship-lock induced surges and ship-passages.

Chapter 2: Sediment Trapping by Dams Creates Methane Emission Hot Spots

Andreas Maeck[|], *Tonya DelSontro*[†], *Daniel F. McGinnis*[‡||], *Helmut Fischer*[§], *Sabine Flury*[¶&], *Mark Schmidt*[‡], *Peer Fietzek*[‡⊥] *and Andreas Lorke*[|]

[|] University of Koblenz-Landau, Institute for Environmental Sciences, 76829 Landau, Germany, maeck@uni-landau.de

[†] Eawag, Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and Technology, 6047 Kastanienbaum, Switzerland & Institute of Biogeochemistry and Pollutant Dynamics, ETH, 8092 Zurich, Switzerland

[‡] GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research, RD2 Marine Biogeochemistry, 24148 Kiel, Germany

[||] University of Southern Denmark, Institute of Biology, Nordic Center for Earth Evolution (NordCEE), 5230 Odense M, Denmark

[§] Federal Institute of Hydrology (BfG), 56068 Koblenz, Germany

[¶] Aarhus University, Center for Geomicrobiology, Department of Bioscience, 8000 Aarhus C, Denmark

[⊥] CONTROS Systems and Solutions GmbH, 24148 Kiel, Germany

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Maeck, A., DelSontro, T., McGinnis, D. F., Fischer, H., Flury, S., Schmidt, M., Fietzek, P. and Lorke, A., 2013. Sediment Trapping by Dams creates Methane Emission Hot Spots, *Environmental Science and Technology*, 47, 8130-8137, dx.doi.org/10.1021/es4003907

Click here to see the paper on the publisher´s website.

Chapter 3: Ship-lock induced surges in an impounded river and their impact on sub-daily flow velocity variation

Andreas Maeck[1] *and Andreas Lorke*[1]

[1] University of Koblenz-Landau, Institute for Environmental Sciences, 76829 Landau, Germany, maeck@uni-landau.de

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Chapter 4: Pumping methane out of aquatic sediments – Forcing mechanisms that affect the temporal dynamics of ebullition

Andreas Maeck[|], *Hilmar Hofmann*[†] *and Andreas Lorke*[|]

[|] University of Koblenz-Landau, Institute for Environmental Sciences, 76829 Landau, Germany, maeck@uni-landau.de

[†] University of Konstanz, Limnological Institute, Mainaustr. 252, 78464 Konstanz, Germany

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Abstract

Freshwater systems contribute significantly to the global atmospheric methane budget. A large fraction of the methane emitted from freshwaters is transported via ebullition. However, due to its strong variability in space and time, accurate measurements of ebullition rates are difficult; hence, the uncertainty of its contribution to global budgets is large. Here, we analyze measurements made by continuously recording automated bubble traps in an impounded river in central Europe and investigate the mechanisms affecting the temporal dynamics of bubble release from cohesive sediments. Our results show that the main mechanisms for bubble release were pressure changes, originating from the passage of ship-lock induced surges and ship-passages. The response to physical forcing was strongly affected by previous outgassing. Ebullition rates varied strongly over all relevant timescales from minutes to days; therefore, representative ebullition estimates could only be inferred with continuous sampling over long periods. Since ebullition was found to be episodic, short sampling intervals of a few days or weeks will likely underestimate ebullition rates, which may result in an uncertainty of over 50% in current global freshwater emission estimates.

Introduction

Methane (CH_4) is regarded as the second most important anthropogenic greenhouse gas with global emissions between 500 and 600 Tg yr^{-1} (Forster et al. 2007). The contribution of freshwater systems is estimated to be around 103 Tg CH_4 yr^{-1}, of which over 53% are emitted via gas bubbles (Bastviken et al. 2011).

Gas bubbles released from anoxic freshwater sediments often consist of a large proportion of CH_4 (Baulch et al. 2011). In these sediments where alternative electron acceptors, e.g. nitrate or sulfate, are lacking or depleted and degradable organic carbon (C_{org}) is available, CH_4 is produced by organisms of the domain archaea. The rate of production depends on the amount and quality of C_{org} and temperature (Segers 1998; Liikanen and Martikainen 2003; Duc et al. 2010; Sobek et al. 2012). Produced CH_4 can dissolve into the porewater and thus, continuous production in combination with low efflux rates can lead to high concentrations of CH_4 within the porewater (Maeck et al. 2013). If the partial pressure of all dissolved gases (mainly CH_4 and N_2) in the porewater exceeds the ambient pressure and the surface tension of water, free gas is formed. Due to ongoing production of CH_4, bubbles within the sediments grow and form fractures or disc shaped cavities (Johnson et al. 2002; Boudreau et al. 2005).

The transport mode of CH_4 from the sediments to the atmosphere has important implications. Transport via diffusion is relatively slow and methane oxidizing bacteria can oxidize a large proportion of the produced CH_4 (Segers 1998). Surface waves are known to increase the near-bottom current velocities and to cause sediment resuspension in the shallow littoral, which triggers and accelerates the flux of methane across the sediment-water interface (Hofmann et al. 2010). Further, evading free gas in form of rising bubbles is transported too fast for microbial oxidation at the sediment-water interface. However, if bubbles are slowly

transported through the upper layer of sediment, where O_2, NO_3^- or SO_4^{2-} is present, a fraction of the free CH_4 gas can be oxidized, which was shown by carbon isotopic signatures (Venkiteswaran et al. 2013). In terms of atmospheric emissions, physical and chemical parameters like the water depth, bubble size and the concentration of CH_4 in the ambient water determine what fraction of the initially released CH_4 reaches the atmosphere (Leifer and Patro 2002; McGinnis et al. 2006a). While the fate of rising CH_4 bubbles in the water column is well understood (Leifer and Patro 2002; McGinnis et al. 2006a), studies investigating the mechanisms responsible for the temporal and spatial dynamics of bubble release are rare. The spatial variability of ebullition in impounded rivers was recently shown to correlate strongly with spatial patterns of sedimentation (Maeck et al. 2013). In a large reservoir, DelSontro et al. (2011) found higher ebullitive fluxes in river delta bays compared to non-river bays which may also point towards sedimentation as the main cause for the spatial distribution of ebullition. Within this work, we focus on the temporal variability of ebullition at greater detail and investigate the underlying processes.

Most studies suggest that ebullition occurs episodically (Coulthard et al. 2009; Goodrich et al. 2011; Varadharajan and Hemond 2012). The episodic pattern may be related to a complex interplay between bubble buoyancy and sediment mechanics. Numerical modeling suggests that bubble rise within the sediment is driven by dilating conduits or rise tracts ("transport pipes") which facilitate gas transport due to their higher flow conductance (Scandella et al. 2011). The mechanism dilating the conduits and therefore controlling the temporal pattern of bubble release is assumed to be hydrostatic pressure (Scandella et al. 2011). Another study showed that shear-stress at the sediment-water-interface is correlated with ebullition rates (Joyce and Jewell 2003). The origin of hydrostatic pressure or shear-stress changes can be

various physical phenomena, e.g. waves or water level changes, which are further denoted as forcing mechanisms. Studies showed that forcing mechanisms affecting ebullition rates can be air pressure changes, tides, wind or water level changes and that the temporal variability is high (Chanton et al. 1989; Joyce and Jewell 2003; Varadharajan and Hemond 2012).

The timescales at which forcing mechanisms trigger ebullition are variable, e.g. ship-induced surface waves act as a single event on timescales of seconds to minutes, while air pressure or water level changes can vary significantly at scales of days to weeks. And since ebullition rates are directly affected by the temporal dynamics of forcing mechanisms, we hypothesize that both are strongly correlated.

Within this study, we used automatic bubble traps (ABTs) to measure ebullition rates with a high temporal resolution continuously over five months in an impounded river in central Europe. The data are analyzed in combination with timeseries of hydrostatic and air pressure (as well as other parameters) to investigate the relationship between forcing mechanisms and gas release at greater detail. The scope of this study is (1) to quantify the temporal variability of ebullition rates in an impounded river, (2) to estimate the relevant time scales of variability, and (3) to identify the corresponding forcing mechanisms. Furthermore, we will use these results to review the methodologies and potential uncertainties associated with limited sampling periods of ebullition measurements described in the literature.

Material and Methods

Study site

Flowing along 246 km through France and south-west Germany, the River Saar discharges a watershed of 7.363 km^2 in central Europe. The mean discharge at the gauging station Fremersdorf (km 48) is 75 $m^3 s^{-1}$. During the period January 2010 to February 2013, the discharge ranged often between 20 and 40 $m^{-3} s^{-1}$ (~60% of all days) but also peaks up to 675 $m^{-3} s^{-1}$ occurred. The German part of the river (the lower 96 km) was impounded between 1976 and 2000 for navigation purposes. Therefore the river bed was channelized over long distances and six dams with ship-locks and hydropower plants were built.

The damming of the river led to increased water depths (up to 11 m), prolonged water residence times (Schöl 2006), and strong sedimentation upstream of the dams where the flow velocity is reduced (Maeck et al. 2013). To maintain cargo shipping, the riverbed is dredged on demand to ensure a minimum shipping depth of 4 m within the shipping channel. However, sediment layers of up to 5 m thickness exist in zones outside of the shipping channel, e.g. at the inner bending of river meanders. A longitudinal study along the entire River Saar showed that most of the methane emissions (> 90%) originate from the zones of high sedimentation that are located upstream of the dams (Maeck et al., 2013). These zones exhibit a more reservoir-like than riverine character with reduced flow velocities, thermal stratification during periods of high solar radiation, and higher average water depths (Becker et al. 2010).

For this study, we measured ebullition and pressure at three sites approximately 1 to 2 km upstream of Serrig Dam (Fig. 4-1). This river stretch is characterized by intensive sediment

accumulation (1 to 5 m within the period of 1993 and 2010, Fig. 4-1b) and strong methane ebullition (Maeck et al. 2013).

The water level in the Serrig impoundment is regulated by Serrig Dam, but water im- or export from ship-lock chambers induces strong short-term discharge changes, which propagate as surges (Maeck and Lorke 2013). Surges are gravity waves, either shaped as a solitary wave crest (positive surge) or trough (negative surge), which propagate along the entire basin, are reflected at the next dam and propagate backwards (USACE 1949). Superposition of multiple surges led to water level fluctuations of up to ~30 cm, which is comparable to long-term reservoir storage changes (Maeck and Lorke 2013). Associated with water level changes during the passage of surges are changes in the mean flow velocity, which can create flow reversals (Maeck and Lorke 2013).

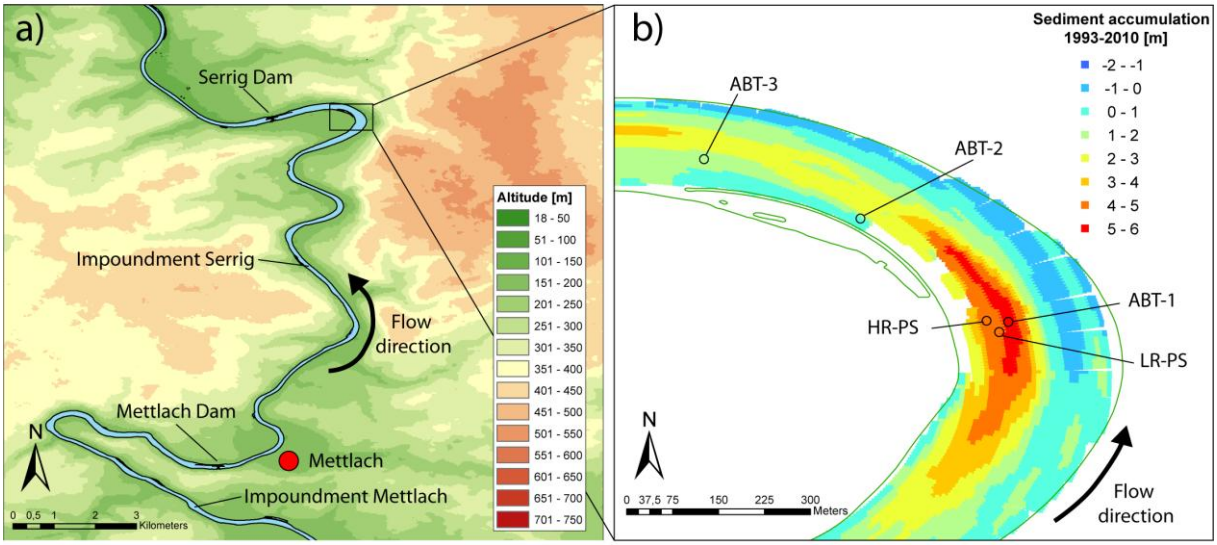

Fig. 4-1: Location of the sampling sites. a) Topographic map of the Serrig impoundment (49.576°N, 6.600°E), which is enclosed by the upper dam in Mettlach and the lower dam in Serrig. The sampling sites are located ~ 1 to 2 km upstream of Serrig dam in the inner bending of the river meander. b) Map of the sampling sites showing sediment accumulation within the Serrig impoundment (Maeck et al. 2013). The positions of deployment sites for three automatic bubble traps (ABT 1 to 3), the high-resolution pressure sensors (HR-PS) and the low-resolution pressure sensor (LR-PS) are indicated.

Measurement of ebullition rates

Ebullition was measured continuously using three ABTs at sites with a net sediment accumulation rate of 0.29, 0.07 and 0.1 m yr^{-1}, respectively (1993-2010, Fig. 4-1b, Maeck et al. 2013). An ABT consists of an inverted polypropylene funnel with a diameter of 1 m, a cylindrical gas capture container (diameter 23 or 29 mm), a differential pressure sensor (PD-9/0,1 bar FS, Keller AG) and a custom-made electronic unit (data logger and regulation device for venting the gas capture container). The entire ABT was deployed submerged so that rising gas bubbles within the water column were collected by the funnel and the gas accumulates in the cylindrical container. The water level within this container was monitored at an interval of 5 s using the differential pressure between inside the container and outside. The amount of gas was calculated using the ideal gas law

$$n = \frac{p_i \cdot (\pi \cdot r^2 \cdot H)}{R \cdot T} \qquad \text{(Eq. 4-1)}$$

where n denotes the number of moles [mol], p_i the partial pressure of CH_4 [Pa], r the radius of the cylindrical gas container [m], H the measured fill height [m], R the universal gas constant [m^3 Pa K^{-1} mol^{-1}] and T the temperature [K]. Temperature measurements were performed using an RBR TR-1060 sensor with an accuracy of ± 0.008 °C attached to the ABTs. The partial pressure was calculated as the product of absolute pressure (10^5 Pa or 1 bar) and the mean mole fraction of CH_4 in the gas bubble (0.80, see results section).

By using the number of moles of CH_4 (n), the base area of the funnel A [m], and the timestamps of the datalogger (t_{i+1} and t_i) [d], the ebullition rate E [mol m^{-2} d^{-1}] was estimated as

$$E = \frac{n}{A \cdot (t_{i+1} - t_i)} \qquad \text{(Eq. 4-2)}$$

Every four weeks, the system was recovered for cleaning, data download, calibration and battery replacement. For calibration of the differential pressure sensor the capture container of each ABT was submersed in a glass cylinder and air was injected manually to achieve a specific fillheight measured visually with an attached scale bar. An average differential pressure sensor reading was recorded for five different fillheights and linear regression analysis was used to determine the corresponding calibration coefficients. The goodness-of-fit R^2-value was always > 0.98. A temperature correction was applied electronically within the electronic unit.

The gas capturing container was automatically emptied as soon as the captured gas reaches the storage capacity. Therefore, the electronic unit opens a solenoid valve which vents the system and a new measurement cycle starts.

The nominal accuracy of the differential pressure sensor given by the manufacturer is 50 Pa which corresponds to a water level of approximately 0.5 cm. Since absolute accuracy increases linearly with the difference of water level within the container at two points in time, the accuracy increases with ebullitive rate. However, each system venting decreases the accuracy since two additional measurements are required for each venting; one at the maximum fill level and one base value, when the system is emptied completely (Fig. 4- 2b). Therefore, the accuracy is non-linear but above volume measurements of 410 and 640 ml gas with the 23 and 29 mm container diameters (13.5 and 21.3 mmol CH_4 at 20°C, 1 bar and assuming 80% CH_4 content in the captured gas, repectively) is always below 10%. Thus, high ebullition rates can be quantified with the ABT over long periods with an error of less than 10%.

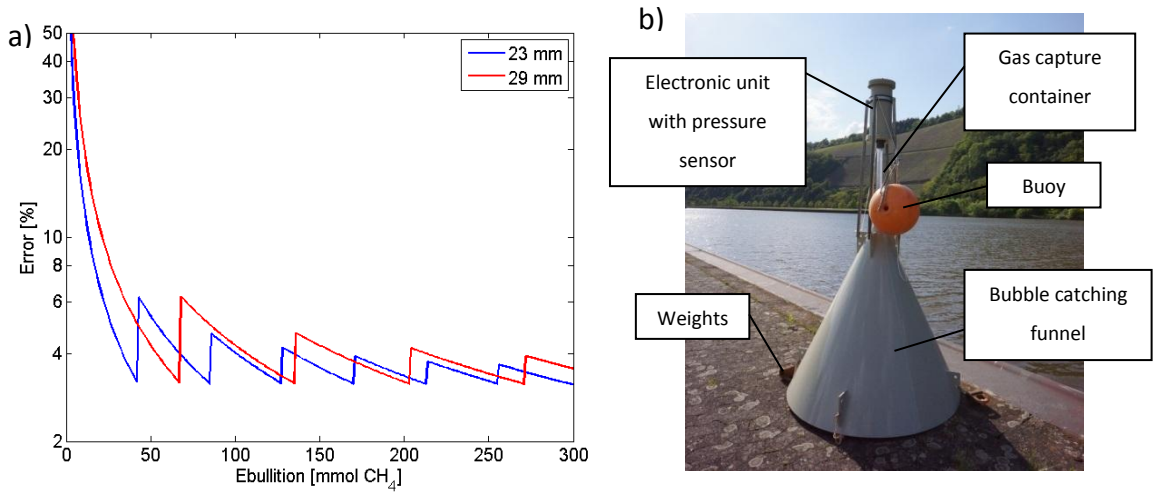

Fig. 4- 2: a) Error in the volume determination in relation to the captured gas for two different diameters of the gas capture container (23 and 29 mm). The saw-like steps in the curve result from venting of the system and the start of a new filling cycle. Since for every cycle two additional differential pressure sensor readings are necessary, error increases temporarily due to flushing. b) Automated bubble trap device. The instrument operates submerged and catches rising bubbles. The captured gas is stored in the cylindrical gas capture container and the fill height of the container is measured via differential pressure with the electronic unit.

Pressure measurements

Hourly mean air pressure data were obtained from the German Weather Service (station Trier-Petrisberg 49.7492°N, 6.6592°E), located approximately 20 km north of the sampling sites.

We deployed a RBR-2050 (RBR Ltd., Canada) pressure and temperature sensor (LR-PS) on the riverbed close to the automated bubble trap ABT-1 (Fig. 4-1) during the study period from 16 October 2012 to 6 March 2013. Data was recorded at an interval of 5 s. The accuracy of the pressure sensor is 0.25 mbar at a resolution of 0.05 mbar, while the accuracy of the temperature sensor is ±0.008 °C.

To characterize the surface wave field, a custom-made high-resolution pressure sensor (HR-PS) (Hofmann et al. 2008) was deployed in the vicinity of ABT-1 at a height of ~1 m above the riverbed in ~ 1.8 m water depth. Data was recorded at a frequency of 16 Hz.

Concentration of CH_4 within the bubbles

To determine the concentration of CH_4 within gas bubbles, an anchor weight of > 10 kg was used to disturb the sediment surface and release bubbles in a distance of approximately 5 to 8 m from the ABTs. They were caught immediately in the first 1.5 m of their rise with an inverted funnel (diameter 0.6 m) equipped with a 1.5 l gas container. The gas was transferred with a syringe to triplicate brine-filled (saturated NaCl-solution) 20 ml headspace vials sealed with a butyl-rubber stopper. An injected needle allowed brine to flow out while the gas was transferred from the syringe into the vial. Approximately 5 ml of brine remained in the vials as a diffusion barrier to minimize leakage when the vials were stored upside down. CH_4-concentration in the headspace was measured in the lab using gas chromatography (Varian, CP-3800, flame-ionization detector).

Analysis

Estimating the error of the monthly mean ebullition rate by subsampling

Our dataset consists of continuous (5 s interval) measurements of ebullition rates over five months. Subsets of 1 to 720 consecutive hours were drawn from the total dataset. The mean ebullition rate of the subset $\overline{E_{subset}}$ was compared with the mean ebullition rate of the surrounding 30 days $\overline{E_{30days}}$ including the subset (e.g. for a subset of 24 hours, the 14.5 days before, the 24 hour subset and the 14.5 days after the subset were used), where *D* denotes the deviation of the subset from the monthly mean in %

$$D = \frac{\overline{E_{subset}}}{\overline{E_{30days}}} \cdot 100\% \qquad \text{(Eq. 4-3)}$$

The subsets were shifted through the entire dataset so that the results of many subset deviations were used to calculate the 10-, 50- and 90-percentile deviation from the 30-days mean ebullition rate.

Frequency spectrum

To determine the relevant timescales of pressure variability and ebullition we estimated power spectral density using Welch´s method with a Hamming-window and 50% overlap (Emery and Thomson 2001). In the ebullition dataset, the instantaneous ebullition rate with a sampling interval of 5 s was used after exclusion of outliers (> 1000 times the average ebullition rate). The window size for the ebullition rate spectrum was 2^{14} measurements for periods < 24 h and 2^{20} for periods > 24 h to combine both spectra to a composite spectrum. For the LR-PS and HR-PS data, 2^{19} samples were used.

Characterizing low and high pressure variability periods

The contributions of surface waves and surges to the total variability of hydrostatic pressure were discriminated using a high-pass filter (5^{th} order Butterworth) with a cut-off frequency corresponding to a 6 hour period. By using a running-standard deviation (RSTD, window size 30 min) on the high-frequency pressure signal, periods of high and low variability were identified. The pressure data were divided in 1-h windows and the mean of the RSTD of the window was compared to the mean RSTD of the entire timeseries. Windows with an average RSTD below the RSTD of the entire timeseries were categorized as “low variability periods” while periods with a RSTD above the mean RSTD were designated as “high variability periods”.

Determining trigger mechanisms for ebullition

Since the actual hourly emission rate varies strongly and the volume of gas released is not a linear function of the forcing mechanism, we used a logistic regression analysis to analyze the relative importance of different forcing mechanisms. Hourly mean ebullition rates were assigned to a logical number of 1 if ebullition rates were higher than the mean emission rate of the entire measurement period and 0 for lower values. As explanatory forcing mechanisms we considered the change in barometric pressure, low-frequency filtered (6 h cut-off period) hydrostatic pressure, hydrostatic pressure fluctuations determined as the standard deviation of the high-frequency filtered hydrostatic pressure, the total gas flux within the previous 24 h and discharge. All forcing mechanisms were determined for the same period as the ebullition rate, except for the total gas flux of the previous 24 h.

All partial regression coefficients were normalized to represent the relative contribution of each factor to the total variability of the ebullition rate. Therefore, the output metric partial regression coefficients were multiplied by the standard deviation of the explanatory variable and divided by the standard deviation of the ebullition rate.

Results

Physical environment

During the study period from 16 October 2012 to 6 March 2013, the discharge ranged from 18.5 to 405 $m^3 s^{-1}$ (gauging station Fremersdorf) with an average of 109 $m^3 s^{-1}$ and a median of 63 $m^3 s^{-1}$. Over 50% of all days, the discharge was below 65 $m^3 s^{-1}$. Three major flood peaks occurred from 2 to 13 November, 14 December to 8 January, and 28 January to 14 February (Fig. 4-3). Water temperature ranged between 2.8°C and 13.5°C (Fig. 4-3). From 16 to 27 October, diurnal thermal stratification occurred. The water column was well mixed during the rest of the study period.

The total pressure at the sediment surface is the sum of atmospheric pressure at the water

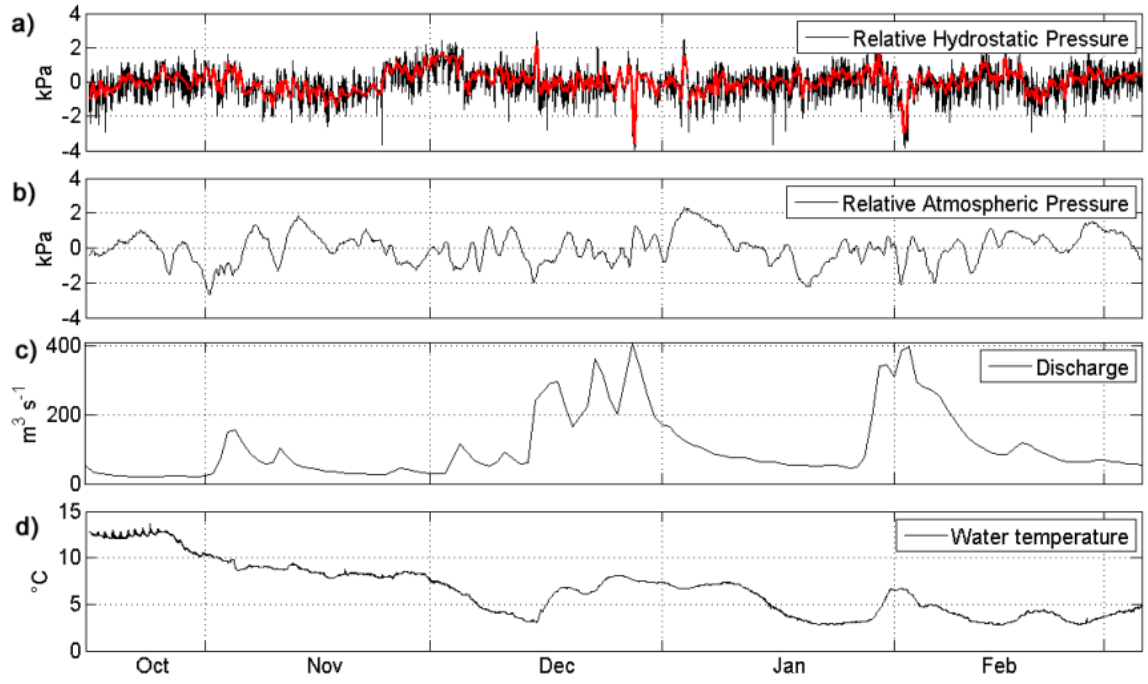

Fig. 4-3: (a) Relative hydrostatic (original data in black, low-frequency filtered in red), (b) atmospheric pressure, (c) discharge and (d) water temperature between 16 October 2012 and 6 March 2013.

surface and gravitational pressure imposed by the water column, which is controlled by the water level. Both parts contributed with similar magnitudes to the observed variability of total pressure at the sediment surface (76% of the total variation is contributed by hydrostatic and 24% by atmospheric pressure changes), but show distinct differences in the spectral distribution of variance (Fig. 4-4). While both air pressure and water level varied on timescales of days to weeks, the hydrostatic pressure also showed strong variability on the timescale of minutes to hours (Fig. 4-3), which is in most cases the result of ship-lock induced surges (Peaks in Fig. 4-4 at 15 min, 32 min and 65 min) (Maeck and Lorke 2013). Since the water level is regulated by Serrig Dam, maximum changes in water level, even during high-discharge periods, were below 0.74 m while the standard deviation of the water level was 0.07 m (Fig. 4-3).

Analysis of the high-pass filtered hydrostatic pressure signal of the LR-PS allowed distinguishing periods with high and low pressure variability. The high variability periods were characterized by intensive ship-locking activity that induced multiple surges (Maeck and Lorke 2013) and corresponding passages of ships were observed. The passage of a surge is characterized by a defined wave crest or trough over a period of ~12 min while the passage of a ship often showed a strong (up to 30 cm of water level) but short (< 1 min) decrease in pressure in the LR-PS signal. In the HR-PS measurements, ship-waves could be discriminated from wind-induced surface waves by their short duration and due to their higher maximum wave amplitude. We chose a threshold of 2 cm for separation. Ship-waves showed on average a maximum wave height of 4.2 cm; however, they often reached maximum wave heights between 10 and 20 cm.

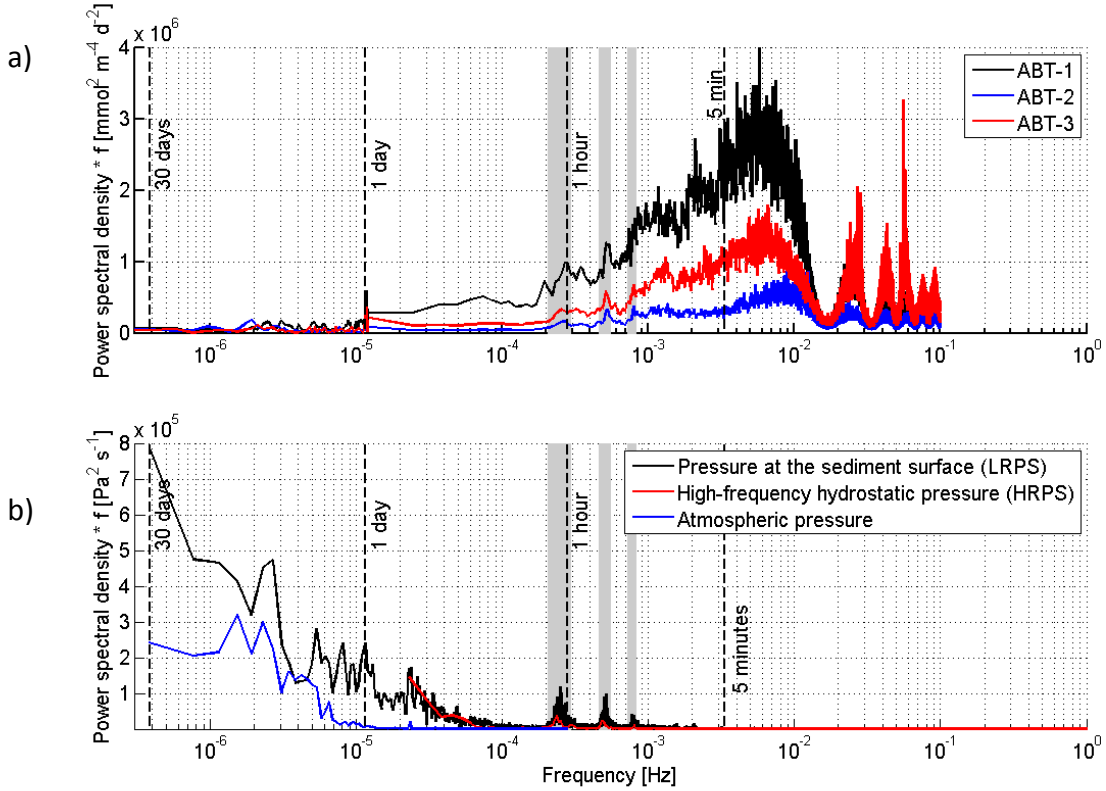

Fig. 4-4: Variance preserving power spectra of ebullition rates (a) and hydrostatic (LR-PS and HR-PS) and atmospheric pressure in (b). Peaks at 15 min, 30 min and 1 h are marked in grey and caused by ship-lock induced surges.

Characterization of ebullition

Deliberately released gas bubbles had CH_4 volume concentrations between 48.6% and 92.1% with a mean of 80.5%. For the conversion of the volume measurements with the ABTs to the ebullition rate, a concentration of 80% CH_4 was used (Tab. 4-1).

We observed high variability in the ebullitive flux at all temporal scales ranging from minutes to days (Fig. 4-4). The daily ebullition rate ranged from 0 up to 240, 48 and 147 mmol CH_4 m^{-2} d^{-1} for ABT-1, ABT-2 and ABT-3, respectively. The mean daily ebullition rate for the entire sampling period was 32 ± 37, 7 ± 8 and 15 ± 23 mmol CH_4 m^{-2} d^{-1}, at ABT-1, ABT-2 and ABT-3 respectively (mean ± 1 standard deviation). From October to the end of

Tab. 4-1: Monthly mean ± std. and overall mean ± std. concentration of CH_4 in captured bubbles of the three automated bubble traps (ABTs) during the entire sampling period.

	Nov [% CH_4]	Dec [% CH_4]	Jan [% CH_4]	Feb [% CH_4]	Mar [% CH_4]	Mean ± std. per ABT [% CH_4]
ABT-1	89.8	81.1	48.6	71.1	89.5	76.0 ± 17.1
ABT-2	89.2	80.9	76.6	78.0	88.5	82.6 ± 5.9
ABT-3	89.5	84.2	72.8	75.0	92.1	82.7 ± 8.6
Monthly mean ± std	89.5 ± 0.3	82.1 ± 1.8	66.0 ± 15.2	74.7 ± 3.5	90.0 ±1 .9	80.5 ± 10.2

January, the mean monthly ebullition rate showed no trend, while in February, the ebullition rate increased strongly for ABT-1 and ABT-3. Most of the variability of the ebullition rate occurred on short timescales below one day (Fig. 4-4), e.g. the 5-min ebullition rate varied much stronger compared to 1-h or 1-d ebullition rate. The frequency distribution of spectral variance (Fig. 4-4) shows that most variability is associated with time scales between 1 min and 2 hours. But also distinct peaks at higher frequencies with corresponding time periods of < 1 min were observed. These high-frequency spectral peaks, however, are potentially measurement artefacts caused, for example by surface wave-induced oscillations of the ABT mooring as well as by the discrete nature of ebullition. Also longer-term variability (e.g. day to day changes of ebullition rates) exceeding one order of magnitude occurred frequently. Therefore, a representative estimate of the monthly mean ebullition rate can only be determined after long measurement periods. The inter-percentile range between

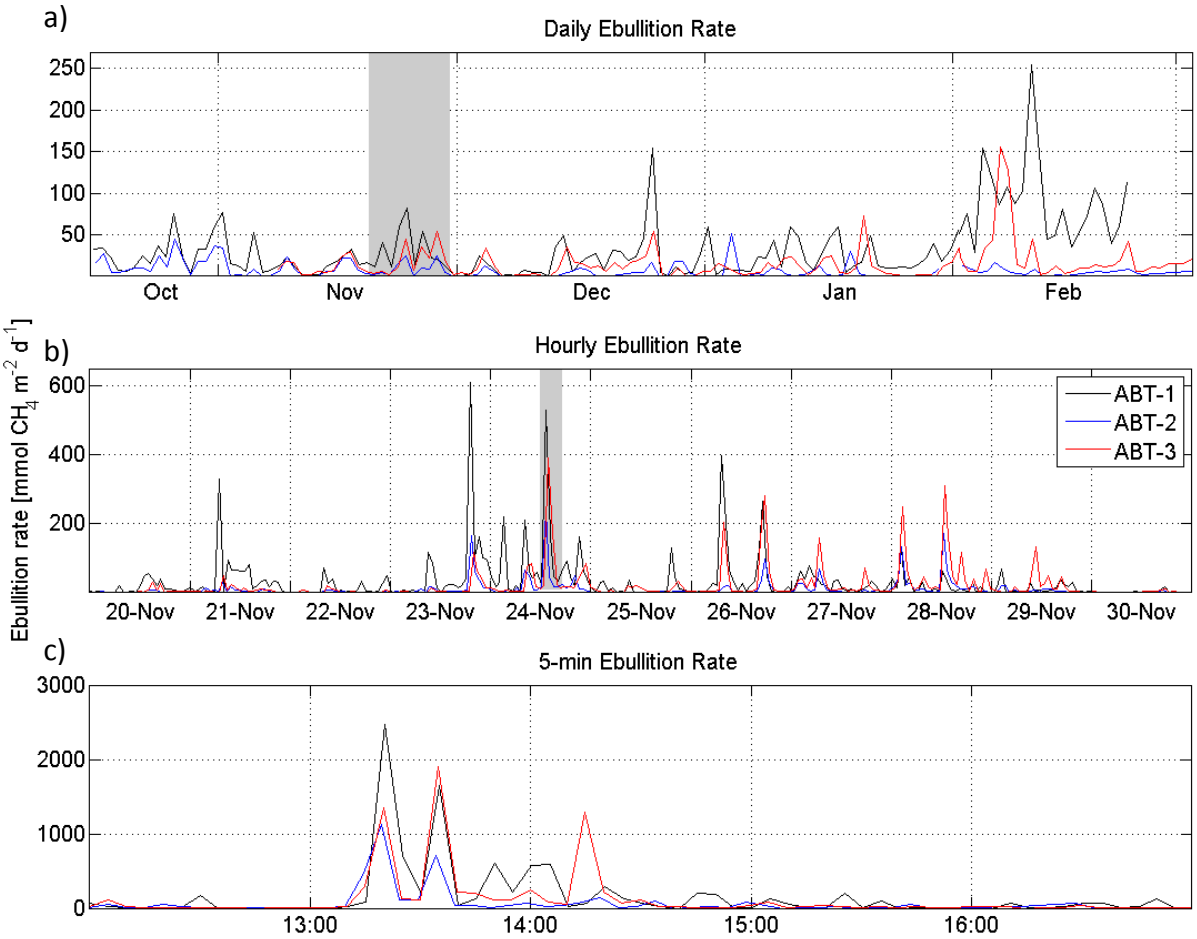

Fig. 4-5: Temporal variability of ebullition rates observed using the three automated bubble traps (ABTs) at different time scales: (a) Daily mean ebullition rates for the entire sampling period. (b) Hourly mean and (c) 5-min mean ebullition rates for selected time periods indicated by the grey bars in (a) and (b).

the 10 and 90-percentile of the subset mean ebullition rate was high for sampling durations of several hours and decreased with increasing measurement length (Fig. 4-6). The chance to estimate the 30-days mean ebullition rate with a precision of ± 50% is 80% after measurements of consecutive 303, 375 or 280 hours for ABT-1, ABT-2 and ABT-3 respectively.

Ebullition occurred episodically, often in bursts of several bubbles entering the bubble trap indicated by the observation that the volume measured every 5 s often exceeded the volume of a typical bubble having a 5 mm diameter and a volume of ~0.5 ml (McGinnis et al. 2006a).

Not all but many bursts were synchronized between all three ABTs (Fig. 4-7). The cross-correlation between ABTs shows a distinct maximum at zero lag, which indicates that a major portion of ebullition events are synchronized. Secondary small peaks were observed at ± 1 h time lag, which corresponds to the re-occurrence of ship-lock induced surges after propagation along the entire impoundment, reflection and backward propagation (Maeck and Lorke 2013).

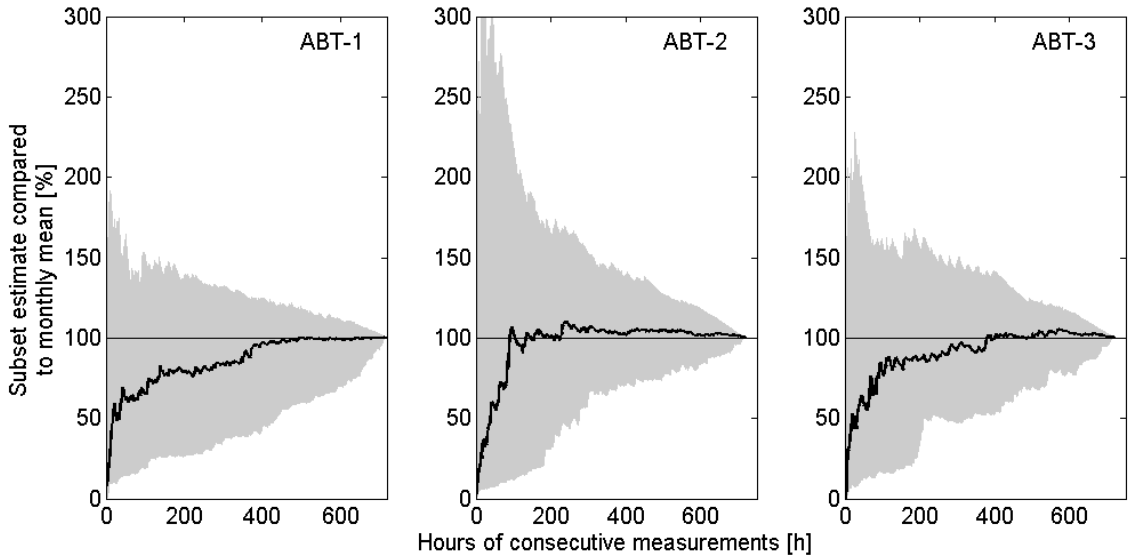

Fig. 4-6: Mean ebullition rates averaged over subsets of varying length representing consecutive measurement periods normalized by the mean ebullition rate observed over a 30-day period centered around the respective subset for the automated bubble traps (ABT 1-3) (left to right). The black line shows the median of all subsets and the grey area denotes the 10 and 90-percentiles.

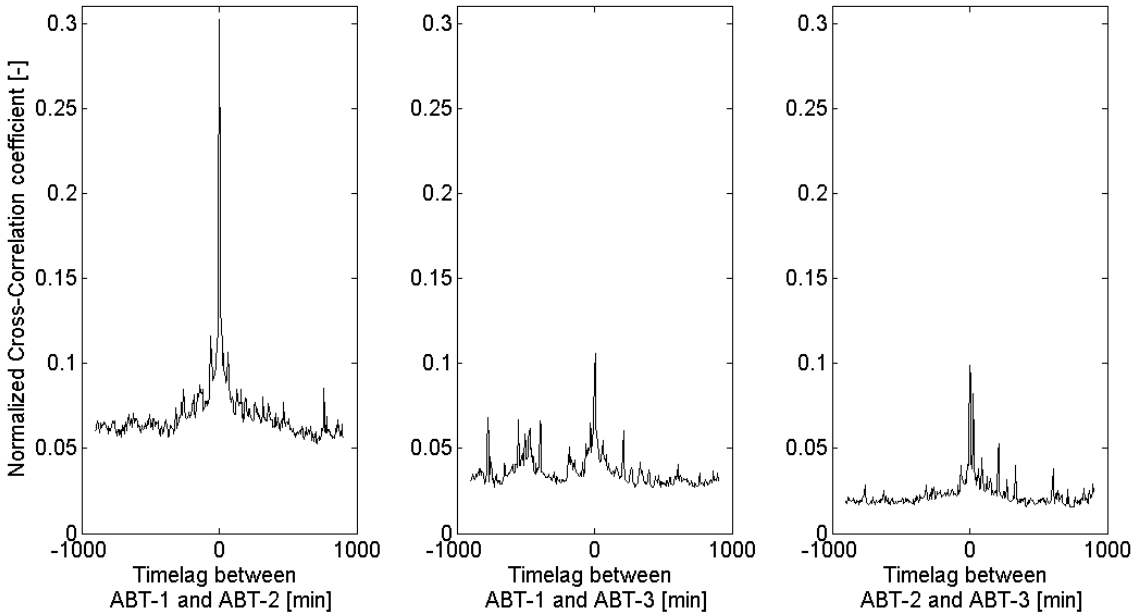

Fig. 4-7: Cross-correlation coefficients of the 5-min ebullition rates versus the time lag of the three ABTs against each other. Peaks at zero lag indicate that both signals are synchronized.

Mechanisms triggering ebullition

Analysis of all synchronized 5-min ebullition rates, where all ABTs measured values exceeding 56 mmol CH_4 m^{-2} d^{-1} (corresponding to ~ 1 g CH_4 m^{-2} d^{-1}), shows that 59.4% of all investigated ebullition rates occurred during the passage of a negative ship-lock induced surge (wave trough), 26.4% during the passage of a ship, 5.7% during periods of sinking water level and 7.5% during times where no pressure change was observed. Only one of the investigated ebullition events (0.9%) was observed during the passage of a positive surge. The detailed temporal dynamics of ebullition rates in relation to the major forcing mechanisms are exemplified in Fig. 4-8. The physical forcing of bubble release by surges and

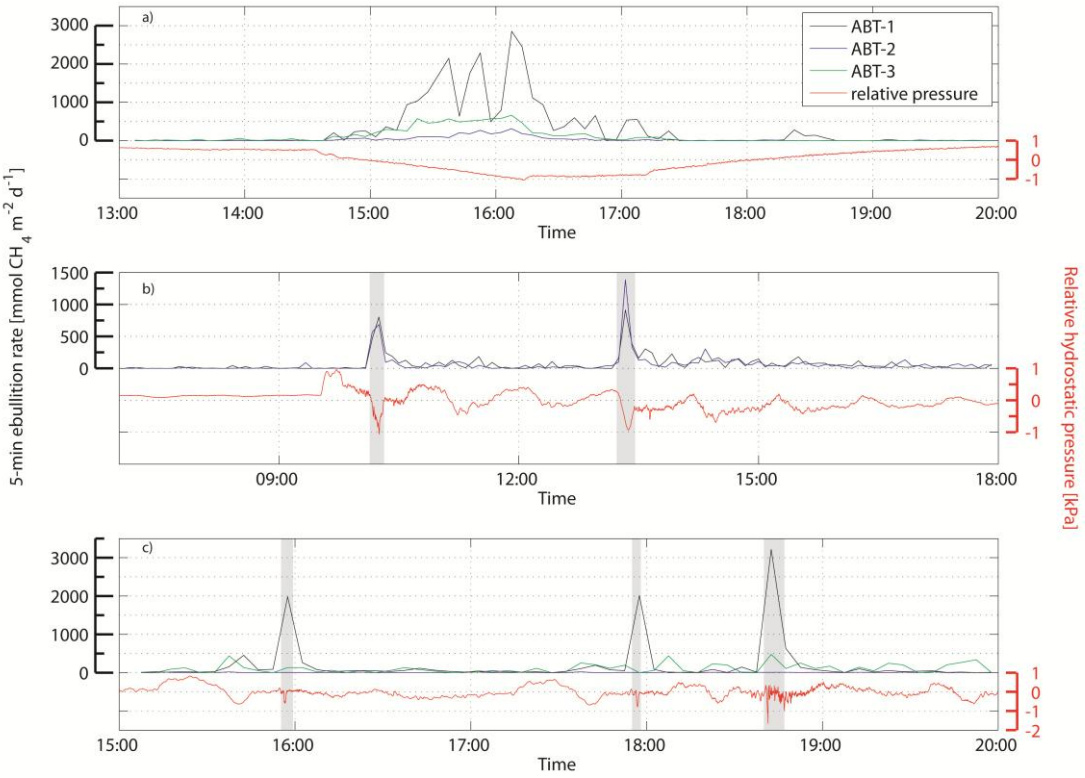

Fig. 4-8: Timeseries of 5-min ebullition rates and hydrostatic pressure changes. Panel a) shows bubble release during sinking water level within a high-discharge period (25 December 2012). Panel b) shows the relationship between positive and negative (grey shaded) surges and the ebullition rates (31 October 2012) while panel c) highlights ebullition during corresponding ship-passages (grey shaded) (18 Febuary 2013).

ship passages was the major regulator for the timing of ebullition. However, we also observed examples where no response of ebullition followed these forcing events. The multiple logistic regression analysis revealed that ebullition within the previous 24 h and high frequency pressure fluctuations are the most important parameters for explaining the observed variability of ebullition rates (Tab. 4-2). Both parameters decreased the ebullition rate indicated by a negative regression coefficient. The hydrostatic pressure varied strongly during 46% of the entire sampling period due to ship-lock and ship activity (Maeck and Lorke 2013), but contributed 61%, 72% and 66% to the total gas flux variability at ABT-1, ABT-2 and

ABT-3 respectively. Mean emission rates during high pressure variability periods (44, 12 and 21 mmol CH_4 m^{-2} d^{-1}), mostly occurring at daytime due to intensive ship activity (Maeck & Lorke 2013), were higher compared to emission rates during low pressure variability periods (22, 4 and 8 mmol CH_4 m^{-2} d^{-1} for ABT-1, ABT-2 and ABT-3, respectively).

Tab. 4-2: Results of the multiple logistic regression analysis of ebullition rates observed at the automated bubble traps 1 to 3 (ABT) and physical forcing mechanisms. Percentages indicate the contribution of each factor to the logistic model.

	ABT-1	ABT-2	ABT-3
Atmospheric pressure change	11.3% (+)	2.9% (+)	5.8% (+)
Low frequent hydrostatic pressure change	10.6% (+)	7.3% (+)	7.3% (+)
High frequency pressure fluctuations	17.8% (+)	6.9% (+)	17.2% (-)
Ebullition of the previous 24 h	50.2% (-)	79.8% (-)	61.6% (-)
Discharge	10.2% (-)	3.1% (-)	8.0% (-)

Discussion

Variability and magnitude of ebullitive emissions

All sampling sites of this study are characterized by high sediment accumulation, which promotes high production rates of CH_4 (Maeck et al. 2013). The trend that ebullition rate positively correlates with sediment accumulation rates observed by Maeck et al. (2013) holds true also for the long-term measurements presented here. ABT-1 located over a site with the highest sediment accumulation rate (0.29 m yr^{-1}, Fig. 4-1b, determined following Maeck et al. 2013) showed the highest mean ebullition rate, followed by ABT-3 and ABT-2 with sediment accumulation rates of 0.1 and 0.07 m yr^{-1}, respectively. Therefore, the production rate per square meter likely differs between the three sites. We observed that with increasing production rate, estimated by using the sedimentation rate as a proxy, the variability in the daily ebullition rate increased, which may be the effect of frequent forcing in combination with the production rate (Fig. 4-9).

The magnitude of CH_4 ebullition rates measured in the present study are lower compared to the results of Maeck et al. (2013), which may be the result of differing sediment temperature. While the data presented here were measured during the winter when temperatures were low, the study by Maeck et al. (2013) was performed in September when water temperatures were higher. However, these current results are higher than total CH_4 emission rates reported for temperate lakes, rivers or reservoirs and comparable to emissions of tropical (<25° latitude) reservoirs (Bastviken et al. 2011; Varadharajan and Hemond 2012) as was also observed in a Swiss hydropower reservoir (DelSontro et al. 2010). The temporal variability of ebullition rates was extremely high, as observed by Varadharajan and Hemond (2012); hence, for

reliable measurements of ebullitive emissions the temporal variability must be considered in the planning stages of future studies.

Our results show clearly that ebullition is episodic, occurring in bursts consisting of many bubbles. The reason for this can be two-fold. On the one hand, external forcing (e.g. pressure reduction) can increase the volume of all bubbles within the sediment, from which a portion then has a buoyancy exceeding the strength of the surrounding sediment and start to rise (Boudreau et al. 2005). On the other hand, as soon as the first bubbles rise, they form conduits or rise tracks that make it easier for other bubbles to follow (Boudreau et al. 2005; Scandella et al. 2011). Besides external forcing, bubbles can also be released by ongoing CH_4 production and continuous bubble growth and rise. This mechanism would lead to unsynchronized ebullition rates between sites and, when averaged over longer timescales, to constant flux rates that will then respond to changes in CH_4 productivity, e.g. due to temperature changes. The results of this study show, however, that mechanical forcing dominates the temporal pattern of ebullition, not continuous CH_4 production.

During our study period, temperatures in the water column were low and ranged mostly between 3 and 8°C. However, since CH_4 production occurs mainly within the sediments at our sampling sites (Maeck et al. 2013), the temperature within the sediment is the effective temperature regulating biogeochemical reaction kinetics and therefore CH_4 production. Sediment temperature itself is affected by heat exchange with the overlying water column, with the groundwater, and to a lesser extent by microbial heat production associated with the degradation of organic matter (Fang and Stefan 1996; Fang and Stefan 1998). Only the top layer of the sediment is strongly affected by heat exchange with the overlying water column and therefore subject to pronounced temperature variations, while the temperature variability

decreases with increasing depth (Fang and Stefan 1998). Since water temperatures were low, we assume that during our study period the production zone of methane was mainly within deeper sediment layers, where the effective temperature for methanogenesis changed only slowly compared to the timescale of forcing mechanisms. No direct relationship between water temperature and ebullition rate was observed, indicating that the temperature within the sediment responds only slowly to water temperature changes. The high degree of synchronization (Fig. 4-7) and the observation that most of the gas was released during high-variability periods of hydrostatic pressure reveal the importance of the forcing regime for the temporal pattern of bubble release. In the case of the River Saar, physical forcing mechanisms control the temporal dynamics of ebullition on short timescales.

Forcing mechanisms

The major trigger mechanisms for ebullition were changes in hydrostatic pressure, primarily due to ship-lock induced surges and ship-passages. However, the magnitude of ebullition was also affected by the previous history of gas venting, i.e. in the last 24 h. The negative relationship we found between ebullition rate and gas flux in the last 24 h indicates that the amount of gas previously released impacts current ebullition rates. This would imply that a forcing such as a surge or ship passage could cause no bubble release at certain times. The majority of large ebullition events matched clearly with pressure reductions due to ship-locking and ship passages as reported for other pressure changing mechanisms (Chanton et al. 1989; Joyce and Jewell 2003; Varadharajan and Hemond 2012). Therefore we expected a positive regression coefficient for high-frequency pressure fluctuations. However, the coefficient was negative, which points towards an interference with previous gas release since

pressure fluctuations are often present for several hours in response to intensive ship-lock and shipping activity.

The passage of ships associated with different types of surface waves affected ebullition (Fig. 4-8c). However, ships can cause very different pressure changes and wave characteristics at the sampling site depending on the type of ship, its speed, the actual pathway of the ship-track and the direction of the slipstream (Hofmann et al. 2008). Therefore, the passage of ships can but will not always trigger ebullition. The example of Fig. 4-8 shows that several ship-passages had a strong effect on ebullition at ABT-1, but nearly no effect for the other two ABTs. This can result from the location of the ABTs and the morphology of the different sites. While ships passed closer to ABT-1, ABT-2 and ABT-3 were further away from the main shipping channel and closer to the shore. Propagating diverging ship-waves attenuate with travel length (Kundu and Cohen 2008), but since the ABT-2 and ABT-3 were closer than 80 m to the bypassing ships, the attenuation is of minor importance; therefore, the ship-waves must have been also present at the locations of ABT-2 and ABT-3. The missing gas release at ABT-2 and ABT-3 indicates that at ABT-1 the ebullition was not triggered by diverging surface waves but rather by other processes in the vicinity of the ship, e.g. draft-induced pressure changes. However, we observed visually during our field campaigns that gas bubbles were released massively following the passage of large ship-waves, but only in the more shallow areas (< 2 m water depth). Since the pressure signal caused by surface waves decreases with increasing depth and decreasing wave length (Kundu and Cohen 2008), short waves, e.g. wind-induced or diverging ship waves, change the pressure at the sediment surface only in shallow regions while long waves, e.g. surges affect also the pressure in deeper areas.

Negative surges with a decrease in pressure showed stronger effects on ebullition compared to positive surges, which increase the pressure temporarily. Since the passage of both surges is associated with similar changes in current velocity (Maeck and Lorke 2013), the effect of shear-stress and pressure change on ebullition rates can be discriminated. Negative surges reduce the pressure while positive surges increase the pressure. Significantly more large ebullition events co-occurred with negative surges, which indicates that the effect of pressure changes were stronger compared to shear-stress (Fig. 4-8b, results section).

Sinking water level can also be a driver for bubble release (Fig. 4-8a), but in the case of the River Saar this effect was of minor importance. Temporal changes in storage height may be much more important for systems with strong changes in water level, e.g. caused by hydropower peaking (Zohary and Ostrovsky 2011).

The timescale of the relevant forcing mechanisms is in the order of seconds (ship-waves), minutes (surges) and hours (sinking water level). Often, multiple occurrences of the individual mechanisms, e.g. during periods of intensive ship-traffic, led to pronounced pressure fluctuations which caused gas venting from the sediments. We observed periods over which the forcing mechanisms are constantly active (periods of high-variability in hydrostatic pressure), e.g. during the day, and periods of negligible forcing and lower ebullition rates (i.e. during the night). Since CH_4 production is continuously ongoing, forcing decouples production and gas release. The sediment acts therefore as a storage system for free gas, which further emphasizes the importance of forcing mechanisms for the temporal dynamics of gas release.

Implications

Timescale of forcing in other aquatic systems

The temporal dynamics of forcing mechanisms can be expected to differ among different aquatic systems. In lakes for example, water level changes are often caused by changes in the inflow of rivers on a timescale of days to weeks (Jöhnk et al. 2004; Wilcox et al. 2007; Hofmann et al. 2008). In large lakes, having sufficient fetch length for wind energy input, seiches and propagating surface waves can generate short-term pressure fluctuations (Hamblin and Hollan 1978). In lakes with limited fetch length, atmospheric pressure changes have been demonstrated to control ebullition rates (Varadharajan and Hemond 2012). In reservoirs, the inflow of water and the operation of dams are important, since pressure is predominantly controlled by the water level. In these systems, water level drawdown can trigger ebullition, but also wind speed may affect gas venting (Joyce and Jewell 2003). In tidal systems, ebullition rates were shown to be controlled by the tidal rise and fall of the water level (Boles et al. 2001). In general, many inland waters are exposed to periodically occurring forcing mechanisms with associated periods similar to those observed at the Saar.

The temporal pattern of ebullition from cohesive sediments is governed by two major factors: the production rate of CH_4 (here estimated by using the sedimentation rate as a proxy) and the timescale of forcing of sufficient magnitude to release bubbles (Fig. 4-9). Under low production rates and short-term (high-frequency) forcing conditions, the ebullition rate may be relatively constant on the timescale of several days, since all bubbles exceeding a specific size are released immediately by forcing (Fig. 4-9(3)). Short-term forcing in combination with high CH_4 production leads to the pattern observed within this study (Fig. 4-9(1)) characterized

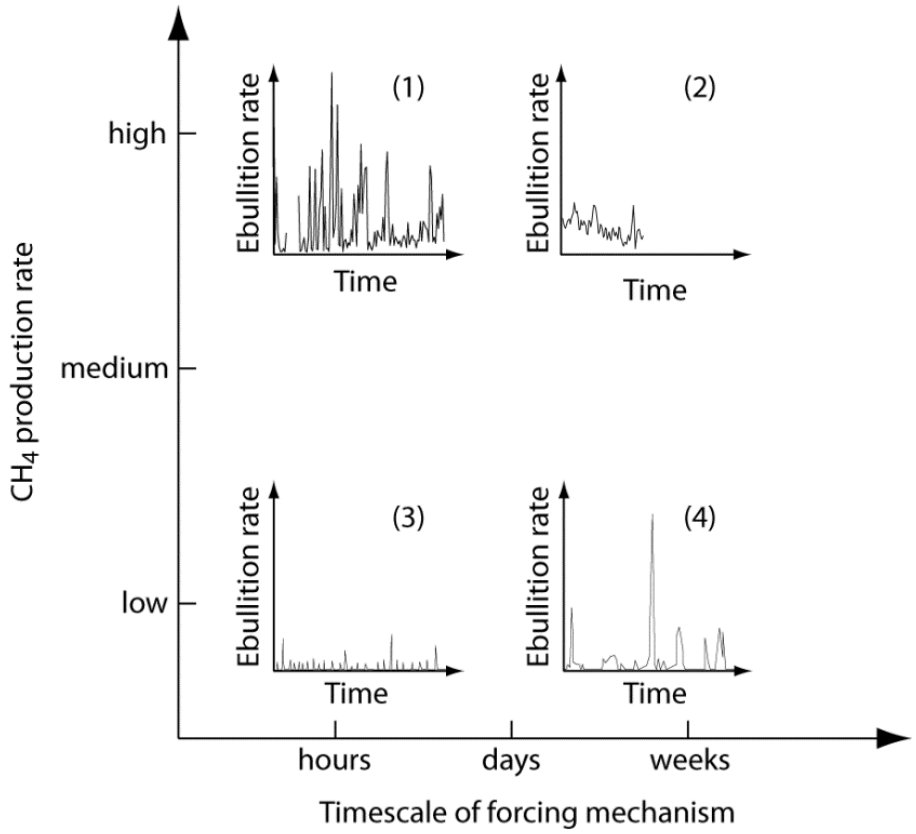

Fig. 4-9: Conceptual framework for characterizing temporal variability of ebullition in aquatic systems differing in CH_4 production rates, estimated by using the sedimentation rate as a proxy, and forcing time scales for ebullition. All examples show ebullition rates (6 hour average) over a period of 4 weeks, except for (2) which refers to a period of 2 weeks. Example (1) shows the measured data from this study (Saar, ABT-1, January 2013), example (2) shows measured data from the River Main, Germany, (Krotzenburg Dam, September 2012) and example (4) shows measurements from the Upper Mystic Lake (25 m site, October) taken from Varadharajan and Hemond (2012). Example (3) is a conceptual example.

by strongly variable ebullition rates on short timescales, but relatively constant fluxes after averaging over several days. Low production sites with long-term (low-frequency) forcing mechanisms will release bubbles mainly during times of significant forcing, e.g. during water level reduction (Fig. 4-9(4)) as observed by Varadharajan and Hemond (2012). Highly productive systems exposed to long-term forcing may release bubbles continuously following at the rate of CH_4 production (Fig. 4-9(2)) (Maeck et al., data from the impoundment Krotzenburg of the River Main, measured with the same instrumentation and analyzed with the same methods as in this study). Therefore, the ebullition rate may vary only little on

timescales of days, but enhanced ebullition can occur during forcing periods, e.g. during periods of decreasing atmospheric pressure. To verify this conceptual framework, which provides a useful a-priori estimate of the temporal variability of CH_4 ebullition in aquatic systems, more high-resolution long-term ebullition data of different sites in combination with measurement of forcing parameters are necessary.

Implications for sampling and global estimates

The recently developed guidelines for measuring greenhouse gas emissions from reservoirs (UNESCO/IHA 2011) recommend to perform ebullition measurements over a period of at least 24 hr. In the River Saar, we observed a daily pattern with higher fluxes during the day when ship-locking and ship-traffic induces water level fluctuations. During the night when ship traffic decreased, the water level fluctuations decreased and the ebullition rate was lower. Therefore, it is necessary to sample day and night. However, since forcing can be of varying magnitude, the daily ebullition rate varied strongly and therefore, in the River Saar, ebullition measurements over 24 hours are not representative for longer periods (Fig. 4-6).

To determine the period of representative measurement, the variability in the ebullition rate itself is not the most important factor but rather the temporal distance between episodes of strong gas release ("bubbling episodes"). For accurate extrapolation of short-term measurements to longer periods, it is necessary to measure over periods which cover the timescale of the bubbling episodes several times since there is variability between the episodes (Varadharajan and Hemond 2012). A representative measurement period at the Saar has to cover more than 10 days (indicated by the median in Fig. 4-8). In aquatic systems with longer periods between bubbling episodes, representative sampling periods will be much longer.

Short measurement durations are likely to underestimate the ebullition rate significantly since the median flux in Fig. 4-6 is mostly smaller than 50% of its monthly mean value. On the contrary, if measurements are mainly performed during day time, ebullition rates are likely to be overestimated because some forcing mechanisms, like wind or ship-induced forcing, are more likely to occur during the day. If measurements are performed during randomly chosen periods of 24 hours or shorter (<24 hours), the chance to underestimate ebullition rates by over 50% is large (average median of 54% underestimation at 24 h in Fig. 4-6).

These findings have potential implications for current estimates of global freshwater emissions of CH_4. Current guidelines and also technical limitations allow most studies to measure ebullition rates only over short time periods (e.g. over 24 h or less). These measurements form the basis for bottom-up approaches for estimating the global CH_4 emissions from freshwater systems, where ebullition is the predominant emission pathway and contributes ~53% to total emissions (Bastviken et al. 2011). Based on our observations, that ebullition could potentially be underestimated by 50%, global ebullitive emissions from freshwater systems could be up to 108 Tg CH_4 yr^{-1} (which increases the current estimate of Bastviken et al. (2011) to 155 Tg CH_4 yr^{-1}). However, our observations are made in a heavily human-impacted system with high ebullition rates and thus not representative for all aquatic systems. To achieve more accurate emission estimates, we recommend to monitor ebullition over long sampling periods, and to take the temporal variability caused by system-specific forcing periods into account when planning and analyzing ebullition measurements in aquatic systems.

Summary

By the work presented in this thesis, the CH_4 emissions of the River Saar were quantified in space and time continuously and all relevant processes leading to the observed pattern were identified. The direct comparison between reservoir zones and free-flowing intermediate reaches revealed, that the reservoir zones are CH_4 emission hot spots and emitted over 90% of the total CH_4. On average, the reservoir zones emitted over 80 times more CH_4 per square meter than the intermediate reaches between dams (0.23 vs. 19.7 mol CH_4 m^{-2} d^{-1}). The high emission rates measured in the reservoir zones fall into the range of emissions observed in tropical reservoirs. The main reason for this is the accumulation of thick organic rich sediments and we showed that the net sedimentation rate is an excellent proxy for estimating ebullitive emissions. Within the hot spot zones, the ebullitive flux enhanced also the diffusive surface emissions as well as the degassing emissions at dams.

To resolve the high temporal variability, we developed an autonomous instrument for continuous measurements of the ebullition rate over long periods (> 4 weeks). With this instrument we could quantify the variability and identify the relevant trigger mechanisms. At the Saar, ship-lock induces surges and ship waves were responsible for over 85% of all large ebullition events. This dataset was also used to determine the error associated with short sampling periods and we found that with sampling periods of 24 hours as used in other studies, the ebullition rates were systematically underestimated by ~50%. Measuring the temporal variability enabled us to build up a conceptual framework for estimating the temporal pattern of ebullition in other aquatic systems. With respect to the contribution of freshwater systems to the global CH_4 emissions, hot spot emission sites in impounded rivers have the potential to increase the current global estimate by up to 7%.

Outlook

Within this project, we investigated the CH_4 dynamics of the River Saar in detail and conclude that for reliable estimates of CH_4 emissions of aquatic systems, the spatial and temporal variability must already be considered in the sampling design. For measurements of the spatial pattern, sampling stations should be selected along a gradient of the net sedimentation rate or measured with a large spatial coverage by using hydroacoustics. To fully resolve the temporal variability, continuous long-term measurements are necessary. Therefore, the automated bubble traps presented in Chapter 4 enable measurements also at high ebullition rates by the venting mechanism of the gas capture container, which cannot be achieved at this accuracy with a manual device. Due to their robust design and measurement principle, these devices are also suitable for long-term monitoring of GHG emissions from aquatic systems.

The results of this thesis reveal a detailed insight into the dynamics of CH_4 emissions at the River Saar, some knowledge gaps remain. To better predict the yearly emission rates, quantification of the CH_4 production in relation to the depth and the actual temperature within the sediment is probably necessary. Depth within the sediment could serve here as a proxy for the quality of the organic matter available for methaneogenesis and the temperature within the sediment could explain the high ebullition rates observed during periods of low water temperature described in chapter 4.

The results of this study show that there are physical and chemical processes which are responsible for the magnitude of ebullitive emissions. With knowledge of these processes, a mechanistic model can be developed which is able to predict CH_4 emission rates by the use of a few, simple achievable parameters, e.g. sedimentation rate, carbon content of the sediment

and temperature. With such a model in combination with a large dataset of the necessary input parameters, reliable CH_4 emission estimates could be drawn for large areas, therefore improving global CH_4 emission estimates. The model also allows to test and to compare several management strategies, e.g. the reduction of particle load by wastewater treatment plants, or alternative hydraulic constructions like for example remediated river reaches, with respect to the freshwaters CH_4 emissions.

Since many dams and reservoirs are still created worldwide, more sedimentation basins will be created, likely leading to higher CH_4 emissions of aquatic systems. Our study shows, that CH_4 emissions can be unexpectedly high. Thus, when the different energy generation methods are compared in terms of GHG emissions, CH_4 emissions of hydropower reservoirs must be measured and taken into account to achieve results on which decision makers can rely on. The best solution for minimizing CH_4 emissions from reservoirs or impounded rivers would be direct use of the energy created by the degradation of organic matter within the sediment ("microbial fuel cell"). CH_4 harvesting techniques could help to gain energy directly from CH_4 with a simultaneous reduction of the GHG emissions.

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Curriculum Vitae

Personal data

Andreas Mäck

born 22 February 1979 in Ulm

maeck@uni-landau.de

Education & career

1989 - 1995	Realschule Ulm-Wiblingen: Mittlere Reife
1995 – 1999	Apprenticeship in Communications-Electronics (Information-technology) at the company Zwick GmbH & Co.
1999 – 2000	Civil service at the Universitätsklinikum Ulm
2001 - 2003	Technische Oberschule Ulm: Allgemeine Hochschulreife
2003 – 2009	Studies of geoecology at the Eberhard-Karls-University Tübingen Diplomathesis: „*Biologie des Ukeleis*“ at the Fisheries Research Station of Baden-Württemberg in Langenargen
2009 – 2013	Research assistant at the Environmental Physics working group at the Institute for Environmental Sciences of the University of Koblenz-Landau for the DFG-Research project: „*MethaneFlux - Methane emissions from impounded rivers*“

Publications

Lorke, A., McGinnis, D. F. und Maeck, A.: ***Eddy-correlation measurements of benthic fluxes under complex flow conditions: Effects of coordinate transformations and averaging time scales,*** Limnology and Oceanography - Methods, 11, 2013, DOI: 10.4319/lom.2013.11.425

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