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2	Spatial and temporal variability in $\mbox{CH}_4$ and $N_2O$ fluxes from a
3	Scottish ombrotrophic peatland; implications for modelling and
4	upscaling
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# 22 Abstract

23	Peatlands typically exhibit significant spatial heterogeneity which can lead to
24	large uncertainties when catchment scale greenhouse gas fluxes are extrapolated from
25	chamber measurements (generally $<1 \text{ m}^2$ ). Here we examined the underlying
26	environmental and vegetation characteristics which led to within-site variability in
27	both $CH_4$ and $N_2O$ emissions and the importance of such variability in up-scaling. We
28	also consider within-site variation in the controls of temporal dynamics. Net annual
29	emissions (and coefficients of variation) for $CH_4$ and $N_2O$ were 1.06 kg ha <sup>-1</sup> y <sup>-1</sup>
30	(300%) and 0.02 kg ha <sup>-1</sup> y <sup>-1</sup> (410%), respectively. The riparian zone was a significant
31	$CH_4$ hotspot contributing ~12% of the total catchment emissions whilst covering only
32	~0.5% of the catchment area. In contrast to many other studies we found smaller $CH_4$
33	emissions and greater uptake in chambers containing either sedges or rushes. We also
34	found clear differences in the drivers of temporal CH <sub>4</sub> dynamics across the site, e.g.
35	water table was important only in chambers which did not contain aerenchymous
36	plants. We suggest that depending on the heterogeneity of the site, flux models could
37	be improved by incorporating a number of spatially distinct sub-models, rather than a
38	single model parameterized using whole-catchment averages.

39 (

Greenhouse Gases, Variability, Peatlands, Microtopography, Vegetation

### 40 **1. Introduction**

41 Northern peatlands are currently thought to act as net sinks of CO<sub>2</sub> (Gorham, 42 1991). However, due to the prevalence of waterlogged conditions, they represent a 43 significant net source of CH<sub>4</sub> (Bartlett and Harriss, 1993; Huttunen et al., 2003) and in 44 some cases a net source of N<sub>2</sub>O (Regina et al., 1996; Huttunen et al., 2002). In order 45 to calculate a realistic global warming potential for peatland systems, all three of the 46 aforementioned gases need to be accurately quantified and upscaled. It is also 47 becoming increasingly important to understand what drives variability in the 48 sink/source strength of the various greenhouse gases (GHG), in order to predict the 49 biospheric feedback of peatlands in response to changes in peatland management and 50 global climate.

51 The availability of micrometeorological techniques has greatly improved our 52 understanding of the temporal variability in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, revealing significant 53 patterns in annual and inter-annual emissions (Lafleur et al., 2003; Lund et al., 2007). 54 Furthermore, the availability of near-continuous datasets has led to a much greater 55 understanding of the drivers of CO<sub>2</sub> emission and uptake, allowing emission 56 predictions to be made under different climate change scenarios (Griffis and Rouse, 57 2001). Similar micrometeorological techniques for the measurement of  $CH_4$  and  $N_2O$ 58 are not widely used, with most current flux estimates from peatlands based on a series 59 of enclosed chamber measurements (e.g. MacDonald et al., 1998; Whalen and 60 Reeburgh, 2000; Laine et al., 2007; Roulet et al., 2007). However, with many studies 61 repeatedly reporting high variability in fluxes both within and between sites (Bartlett 62 and Harriss, 1993; Bubier et al., 1993; Waddington and Roulet, 1996), the uncertainty 63 associated with up-scaling chamber measurements to annual catchment budget

estimates is often extremely large. Furthermore, such high uncertainty leads to
difficulties in identifying the primary drivers of temporal variability and hence
predicting future emissions under different climate change scenarios or management
regimes.

68 The hummock/hollow microtopography typical of many peatlands can cause 69 significant variation in soil environmental conditions at scales not picked up by single 70 chamber measurements (Nungesser, 2003). The preferential colonisation of 71 hummocks or hollows by distinct plant communities reinforces differences due to 72 topography alone by influencing the quantity and quality of soil organic substrate, and 73 altering the aerobic capacity of the peat by transporting O<sub>2</sub> to the rhizosphere. Plants 74 containing aerenchymous tissue can also provide a direct pathway for many GHGs to 75 the atmosphere, bypassing the aerobic peat horizon, and greatly increasing soil-76 atmosphere fluxes (Whiting and Chanton, 1996; Ström et al., 2003; Minkkinen and 77 Laine, 2006). A clear understanding of the major sources of variation within a site is 78 essential both during the set-up of a study, when choosing where to place individual 79 chambers, and during the up-scaling process so that individual chamber fluxes can be 80 correctly weighted in the final estimate. Knowledge of expected variability is also 81 required when deciding how many chambers are needed to achieve a specific level of 82 confidence in the results; however this statistically ideal number is often not met due 83 to time constraints on both field sampling and analysis.

Although both temperature and water table have repeatedly been shown to be strong drivers of temporal variability in surface CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes, studies often disagree as to their relative importance (Daulat and Clymo, 1998; Hargreaves and Fowler, 1998; Updegraff et al., 2001). It is likely, given the degree of within-site

variability often observed, that the primary drivers of temporal variability are not
consistent across typical peatland sites. By examining how these drivers vary spatially
this study aims to improve our understanding of the underlying processes that control
surface emissions, and aid the design of future chamber studies to achieve the best
possible up-scaled emission estimates.

93 2. Materials and Methods

### 94 2.1. Site description

95 Auchencorth Moss is a relatively flat, low lying, acid peatland, located approximately 17 km south of Edinburgh, Scotland (55°47'34 N; 3°14'35 W). The site 96 97 is designated as a 'supersite' under the 'European Monitoring and Evaluation 98 Programme' (EMEP) and a 'level-3' site under the 'NitroEurope' project. Total nitrogen and sulphur deposition rates at the site are 16.5 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> v<sup>-1</sup> and 6.9 kg S ha<sup>-1</sup> 99  $y^{-1}$ , respectively (Smith, personal communication, 2008). The land-use is primarily 100 101 low-intensity sheep grazing with an area of peat extraction at the western edge of the 102 catchment. Histosols (peats) cover approximately 85% of the catchment with areas of 103 Gleysol (9%), Humic Gleysol (3%) and Cambisol (3%) occurring at the catchment 104 margins; peat depth ranges from <0.5 m to >5 m (Billett et al., 2004). Mean annual 105 rainfall (1995-2006) at the site is 1016 mm (Coyle, unpublished data, 2008); maximum and minimum monthly mean temperatures (1971-2000) are 19°C in July 106 107 and 0.7°C in January, respectively (www.metoffice.gov.uk). The vegetation consists 108 of a patchy mix of grasses, sedges and soft rush covering a base layer of moss on a 109 typical peatland hummock/hollow microtopography. The dominant vascular species 110 include Deschampsia flexuosa, Molinia caerulea, Festuca ovina, Eriophorum

- 111 angustifolium, Eriophorum vaginatum, Juncus effusus, Juncus squarrosus and
- 112 *Calluna vulgaris*; bryophytes are dominated by *Sphagnum* and *Polytrichum* species.

### 113 2.2. Experimental design

114	The full study area was separated into 3 sites approximately 0.6 km apart to
115	cover the full range of soil-plant conditions; site 1 was located in the west of the
116	catchment where drainage was better and patches of Calluna vulgaris were present;
117	site 2 was located roughly in the middle of the catchment with an even mix of
118	hummocks dominated by grasses and sedges, hummocks dominated by J. effusus and
119	hollows; site 3 was located in the riparian zone dominated by J. effusus. Site 3 is often
120	referred to as the 'riparian zone' throughout the text. In total, measurements were
121	made from 21 chambers; 9 within site 1, 9 within site 2, and 3 within site 3.
122	The full study area was also separated into distinct
123	microtopographic/vegetative classes: plots dominated by C. vulgaris (Calluna),
124	hummocks dominated by sedges and grasses (Sedge/Hummock), hummocks
125	dominated by J. effusus (Juncus/Hummock), and hollows dominated by mosses
126	(Hollow). Within site 1, 3 chambers were positioned on each of Calluna,
127	Sedge/Hummock, and Juncus/Hummock; within site 2, 3 chambers were positioned
128	on each of Sedge/Hummock, Juncus/Hummock and Hollow; the 3 chambers within
129	site 3 were all placed upon Juncus/Hummocks.
130	Flux measurements were made on all 21 chambers monthly from April 2006
131	until October 2007. An additional monthly measurement was made from each of the 9
132	chambers within site 2 from August 2006 until October 2007, leading to a fortnightly

133 sampling frequency on 9 of the total 21 chambers, thus providing a better resolution

for examining temporal variability. Alongside flux measurements, soil temperature,
moisture, water table depth and soil respiration were recorded and samples of soil

136 atmosphere and soil water collected. Soil samples were collected monthly, though not

137 on the same day as flux measurements.

### 138 2.3. Flux measurements

139 Flux measurements were made using the static chamber method described in Livingston and Hutchinson (1995). Polypropylene chamber bases were inserted into 140 141 the soil to a depth of approximately 5 cm; the chamber bases remained in situ for the 142 duration of the study. Lids consisted of a flexible, transparent, dome of polyethylene 143 affixed to a polypropylene flange which could be securely attached to the chamber 144 base during measurements (Clayton et al., 1994; MacDonald et al., 1996). The total 145 enclosed volume was approximately 30 litres for chambers containing J. effusus and approximately 17 litres for all other chambers. Enclosure time generally ranged 146 147 between 1-2 hours. As fluxes tended to be low, and direct sunlight or high 148 temperatures rarely a problem at the site, up to 2 hours were required to collect gas at 149 a sufficiently high concentration for accurate analysis. No significant levelling off of 150 emissions was observed in the chambers with the highest recorded fluxes. Ambient air 151 samples were collected at time zero with a further two samples of chamber air 152 collected at the mid-point and end of the enclosure period. Air samples were stored in 153 tedlar bags for up to one week prior to analysis using an HP5890 Series II gas chromatograph (detection limits:  $CO_2 < 199 \ \mu l^{-1}$  (ppmv),  $CH_4 < 1.26 \ \mu l^{-1}$ ,  $N_2O < 100 \ \mu l^{-1}$ 154  $0.2 \ \mu l \ l^{-1}$ ) with electron capture (ECD) and flame ionisation detectors (FID) for N<sub>2</sub>O 155 156 and CH<sub>4</sub>, respectively. Fluxes were calculated as the observed rate of concentration change times the enclosure volume to ground surface area ratio. 157

#### 158 2.4. Auxiliary measurements

159 Soil temperature and moisture (mean of three theta probe readings) were 160 recorded adjacent to each chamber during flux measurements. Soil respiration 161 measurements were also made adjacent to each flux chamber using a PP-systems 162 SCR-1 respiration chamber attached to an EGM-4 infra-red gas analyser. The 163 chamber was attached to a plastic collar inserted ~5 cm into the soil to achieve an 164 airtight seal and allow repeated measurements to be made in the same place. Soil atmosphere wells were created by inserting Accurel<sup>©</sup> water tight, gas permeable 165 166 tubing (Gut et al., 1998) into the soil from 10 to 40 cm depth adjacent to each 167 individual chamber before the study began. Air samples were then drawn from the Accurel each time chamber measurements were made and analysed for CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and 168 169 N<sub>2</sub>O; CO<sub>2</sub> was measured on the same gas chromatograph as CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O using the 170 FID with attached methanizer. Water table depth was measured and water samples 171 collected from dip wells consisting of perforated pipes (4 cm diameter) inserted 172 adjacent to each chamber. Water samples were analysed for DOC and DIC on a 173 Rosemount-Dohrmann DC-80 total organic carbon analyser (detection range 0.1 to 4000 mg  $l^{-1}$ ), using ultraviolet oxidation and sparging with N<sub>2</sub> to remove acidified 174 175 inorganic carbon; NO3 and NH4 were analysed on a dual channel CHEMLAB continuous flow colorimetric analyser (detection range NH<sub>4</sub>-N: 0.25 to 3.0 mg l<sup>-1</sup>; 176 NO<sub>3</sub>-N: 0.25 to 5.0 mg  $l^{-1}$ ). 177

Soil was collected from approximately 5 to 30 cm depth using a soil auger; 3
samples from within 0.5 m of each chamber were combined. A sub-sample of soil was
analysed for pH and the remainder frozen within 24 hours of collection for later
extraction with KCl and water for NO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub> and DOC. Extracts were analysed

alongside the soil solution samples. Percent moss, grass, sedge and rush were visuallyestimated for each individual chamber at the end of the study period.

184	In addition to the above manual measurements, continuous measurements of
185	air temperature, soil temperature at 5, 10, 20 and 40 cm depth, air pressure (mb),
186	photosynthetically active radiation (PAR, $\mu$ mol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ) and net radiation (W m <sup>-2</sup> ),
187	were measured in the catchment at the EMEP flux tower site (Coyle, unpublished
188	data, 2008) and utilised in temporal regression models.

189 2.5. Statistical analysis

190 Monthly measurements of all 21 chambers (plus auxiliary data) were used in 191 the analyses of spatial variability. The data was separated prior to analysis into 3 192 periods: growing season 2006, winter period 2006-2007 and growing season 2007 193 (Figure 1). The growing season was from April until October. Mean daily CH<sub>4</sub> and 194 N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes were calculated by integration over each season. The seasonal arithmetic 195 mean was used to describe temperature, soil respiration, pH, water table depth, soil 196 moisture and soil extractable NO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub> and DOC. However, due to the skewed 197 distribution of the data, the geometric mean was used to describe soil solution NO<sub>3</sub>, 198 NH<sub>4</sub>, DOC and DIC, and soil atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations. Where 199 mean values are quoted,  $\pm$  refers to the standard error of the mean unless otherwise 200 stated.

As the CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes from Juncus/Hummock chambers in the riparian zone (site 3) were highly and significantly different from the Juncus/Hummock chambers in both site 1 and site 2 (F = 18.6, P < 0.01), they were separated into a distinct class (Riparian). Chamber types (Calluna, Hollow, Sedge/Hummock, Juncus/Hummock

205 and Riparian) were then compared using ANOVA tests after transformation to fit the 206 normal distribution. Quoted test results refer to Pillai's test statistic (Townend, 2002) 207 unless otherwise stated. Correlations were tested using Spearman's rank correlation. 208 A combination of best subsets and backward selection stepwise regression was used 209 to model CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes using the full list of auxiliary data. Log transformations 210 were performed to normalise positively skewed data; an arcsine transformation was 211 applied to soil moisture values. Variables with P > 0.05 were allowed to remain in the 212 final model if their exclusion resulted in a significant rise in the full-model *P*-value.

Fortnightly measurements of the 9 chambers within site 2 (plus auxiliary data) were used for the analysis of temporal variability. The data were separated, prior to analysis, by chamber type (Hollow, Sedge/Hummock, Juncus/Hummock). As before, best-fit models for both  $CH_4$  and  $N_2O$  emissions were created using a combination of best-subsets and backward selection stepwise regression.

#### 218 **3. Results**

Over the full study period the mean of the integrated CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes within the groups Calluna, Hollow, Sedge/Hummock, Juncus/Hummock and Riparian were 8.12, 20.61, 2.30, 4.73 and 586  $\mu$ g m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Table 1). Mean N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes across the same groups were 1.52, -1.18, 2.02, -0.68 and 3.87  $\mu$ g m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Table 1). Overall group was not a significant factor explaining either CH<sub>4</sub> or N<sub>2</sub>O flux variability, however significant differences between specific groups are considered in more detail below.

226 3.1. Spatial variability

227 Influence of microtopographic/vegetative group

228	The mean CH <sub>4</sub> flux from all chambers was 89.8 $\mu$ g m <sup>-2</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ; the median,
229	maximum and minimum were 0.72, 990 and -25.6 $\mu$ g m <sup>-2</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> , respectively. The
230	coefficient of variation in integrated means across the 21 individual chambers was
231	300%. However, the distribution of the $CH_4$ flux data was heavily skewed towards 2
232	chambers in the riparian zone with means an order of magnitude higher than the rest
233	of the chambers. As well as containing the 2 highest integrated means, the 3 chambers
234	situated within the riparian zone also contained the minimum integrated mean value.
235	Excluding the 3 chambers in the riparian zone (site 3), the new mean, median,
236	maximum and minimum were 7.13, -0.98, 69.2 and -12.7 $\mu g~m^{-2}~h^{-1},$ respectively.
237	However, by excluding the riparian zone chambers, the coefficient of variation was
238	only reduced to 284%. The $N_2O$ fluxes were much smaller and more variable than the
239	CH <sub>4</sub> fluxes, and followed a more normal distribution. The mean, median, maximum
240	and minimum $N_2O$ fluxes across all chambers were 0.99, -0.36, 9.91 and -4.25 $\mu g\ m^{-2}$
241	h <sup>-1</sup> , respectively. The coefficient of variation in integrated means was 410%.
242	Variables which showed significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) or near-significant ( $P < 0.10$ )

differences across microtopographic/vegetative groups included pH, water table depth, soil extractable NH<sub>4</sub> and DOC, soil solution DOC, NO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub> and soil atmosphere  $CH_4$ ,  $CO_2$  and  $N_2O$  concentrations (Table 1). The Riparian chambers in particular showed characteristics distinct from the other groups (Table 2), of which the greatest difference was in pH; the mean pH across Riparian chambers was 5.83 compared to a mean of 4.18 for all other groups combined.

Over the full study period, only the Riparian chambers, when compared to each alternative group separately, showed significantly different CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes (P < 0.01). CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes from the riparian zone were consistently higher, with a mean more

252	than an order of magnitude greater than the other groups (Table 1). A similar pattern
253	was observed in below ground CH <sub>4</sub> concentrations, with concentrations increasing in
254	the order Sedge/Hummock < Juncus/Hummock < Hollow < Calluna < Riparian
255	(Table 1). When the full dataset was considered collectively, the Spearman's rank
256	correlation between emissions and below-ground concentrations was not significant at
257	the 95% confidence limit (t = 2.54, $P = 0.08$ ). However, when separated by season the
258	results were significant in all cases (growing season 2006: $t = 3.29$ , $P < 0.01$ ; winter
259	season: t = 2.20, $P < 0.05$ ; growing season 2007: t = 2.45, $P < 0.05$ ). During growing
260	season 2006, only the Riparian group had a net CH <sub>4</sub> emission; however, due to high
261	within group variability the difference from the other groups was not statistically
262	significant. Net uptake was greatest in the Juncus/Hummock group followed by the
263	Sedge/Hummock, Hollow and finally the Calluna chambers (Figure 2a). During the
264	winter season, both the Hollow and Riparian chambers were statistically similar,
265	showing much greater fluxes than the other groups (Figure 2b). In contrast to growing
266	season 2006, when all but the Riparian chambers displayed a net uptake, net
267	emissions were measured from all chambers during growing season 2007; again
268	Riparian fluxes were significantly higher than fluxes from the other chamber types.
269	A series of ANOVA tests were carried out comparing the conditions in the
270	Riparian group (site 3) with all other chambers combined into a single group (Table
271	2). Apart from high CH <sub>4</sub> concentrations and emissions, the riparian zone was
272	characterized by high soil respiration, pH and soil solution DIC concentrations
273	relative to the rest of the sites. With the exception of the Juncus/Hummock group, the
274	Riparian soil also contained significantly less extractable DOC than the other chamber

types (Table 1).

276 The N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes were more variable and approximately one order of magnitude 277 lower than CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes. No significant differences were observed between groups 278 when the full dataset was used. Again, no significant group effect was evident during 279 the 2006 growing season (Figure 3a), with standard error bars crossing the x-axis in 280 all but the Hollow and Juncus/Hummock groups, which both showed net N<sub>2</sub>O uptake. 281 During the winter season (Figure 3b) a net uptake was measured in the Hollow 282 chambers, in contrast to the net emissions measured in both the Sedge/Hummock and 283 Juncus/Hummock groups. All groups displayed a net emission during growing season 284 2007 (Figure 3c) with emissions from the Riparian chambers significantly greater than 285 any other group.

286 Modelling spatial variability

287 Using best subset multiple regression on the full dataset (n = 21), spatial variability in CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes could be modelled with an  $r^2$  of 0.81 (P < 0.01) using the 288 289 variables soil moisture and soil CH<sub>4</sub> concentration. When separated by season, soil 290 CH<sub>4</sub> concentration was the major variable evident in all models (data not shown). 291 However, the model was highly influenced by the chambers situated in the riparian 292 zone and therefore not applicable to the rest of the catchment. Model fitting was 293 repeated after excluding the 3 chambers in the riparian zone (Table 3). Over the full 294 study period an  $r^2$  of 0.46 was achieved using the variables percent sedge cover, pH, 295 water extractable DOC, soil solution DIC and soil moisture. The variability in CH<sub>4</sub> flux during growing season 2006 was well modelled ( $r^2 = 0.80$ ), with emissions 296 297 increasing in response to a lower proportion of rushes, a decrease in the depth of the 298 water table and concentration of soil NO<sub>3</sub>, and an increase in soil moisture, soil 299 solution DOC and below-ground CH<sub>4</sub> concentration (Table 3b). Variability in CH<sub>4</sub>

emissions during the winter season was modeled ( $r^2 = 0.36$ , P = 0.05), with negative correlations between CH<sub>4</sub> emission and soil respiration and soil solution DIC, and positive correlations with percent moss cover and below-ground CH<sub>4</sub> concentration (Table 3c). Lastly, the best model for emissions during growing season 2007 ( $r^2 =$ 0.45, P = 0.02) included percent sedge cover (negative) and soil pH (positive) (Table 305 3d).

306 Although water table position appeared only in the 2006 growing season 307 model (Table 3b), the maximum CH<sub>4</sub> emissions recorded on each sampling occasion 308 often occurred where the water table was closest to the surface. Within all 21 309 chambers 3 chambers repeatedly ranked in the top 3 CH<sub>4</sub> emitters, the same 3 310 chambers repeatedly ranked among the 3 highest water tables and 3 highest soil 311 moisture contents. For example, one of the chambers within the riparian zone ranked 312 within the top 3 CH<sub>4</sub> emitters on 94% of sampling occasions, the same chamber 313 ranked among the top 3 highest water tables on 89% of sampling occasions.

314 Spatial variability in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions amongst all chambers over the full study period, was best modeled using only soil respiration ( $r^2 = 0.28$ , P < 0.01). Excluding 315 316 the riparian chambers from the analysis, soil respiration was no longer significant and 317 the best model ( $r^2 = 0.25$ , P = 0.05) was achieved by including a negative correlation 318 with pH and a positive correlation with below-ground N<sub>2</sub>O concentration (Table 3a); 319 however neither pH nor below-ground N<sub>2</sub>O concentration was individually significant 320 at the 95% confidence limit. Other variables which appeared in the seasonal models included soil CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (winter season: t = -3.66, P < 0.01) and soil solution 321 322 DOC (growing season 2007: t = 2.27, P < 0.05).

323 *3.2. Temporal variability (Site 2)* 

324	Temporal variability in CH <sub>4</sub> emissions from all 9 chambers at site 2 was best
325	modeled ( $r^2 = 0.55$ , $P < 0.01$ ) using the variables soil moisture and soil temperature at
326	40 cm depth (Table 4a). The mean ( $\pm$ SE) Q <sub>10</sub> across all 9 chambers was 4.16 $\pm$ 0.96.
327	Having separated the chambers by group, both the Hollows ( $r^2 = 0.68$ , $P < 0.01$ ) and
328	Juncus/Hummocks ( $r^2 = 0.41$ , $P < 0.01$ ) responded negatively to soil respiration
329	(Table 4b and d). However, in the Hollow group water table depth and soil
330	temperature were also important. The primary drivers of emissions in the
331	Sedge/Hummock plots appeared to be soil moisture and again soil temperature (Table
332	4c). Neither the Sedge/Hummock nor the Juncus/Hummock plots appeared to be
333	affected by changes in water table depth.
334	Temporal variability in N2O emissions across all plots (Table 4a) was poorly
335	captured; the best achievable model gave $r^2 = 0.18$ ( $P < 0.05$ ). Again both soil
336	respiration, to which emissions were negatively correlated, and soil temperature at 40
337	cm depth appeared as primary variables using both the full 9 chambers and the
338	Juncus/Hummock group alone. The mean ( $\pm$ SE) $Q_{10}$ across the 9 chambers was 7.12
339	$\pm$ 1.25. Variability in emissions was best captured in the Hollow chambers where
340	water table depth and soil moisture, in addition to soil respiration, were significant
341	factors (Table 4b); N <sub>2</sub> O emissions increased in response to near-surface water tables
342	and increasing soil moisture contents. Soil moisture was again significant in the
343	Sedge/Hummock plots (Table 4c). Although soil temperature alone was not
344	significant, its exclusion from the model increased the overall model P-value above
345	0.05 and was therefore included.

# **4. Discussion**

347 4.1. Importance of emission hotspots and spatial variability to up-scaling

348	Using an unsupervised, ground-truthed, classification of a Quickbird satellite
349	image taken in May 2006 (Dinsmore, data not shown, 2008), and assuming a riparian
350	zone spanning approximately 3 m either side of the Black Burn stream, the percent
351	cover within the catchment of Calluna, Hollow, Sedge/Hummock, Juncus/Hummock
352	and Riparian zone were estimated as 10%, 29%, 29%, 28% and 0.6%, respectively.
353	Weighting the above means accordingly, and assuming values are representative of
354	the mean daily emission, the mean catchment fluxes of $CH_4$ and $N_2O$ from April 2006
355	until October 2007 were 291 and 5.12 $\mu g~m^{\text{-2}}~d^{\text{-1}},$ or 1.06 and 0.019 kg ha $^{\text{-1}}~y^{\text{-1}},$
356	respectively. Ignoring the different groups and treating the chambers as replicates
357	gave mean fluxes for CH <sub>4</sub> and N <sub>2</sub> O of 2156 and 23.6 $\mu$ g m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> , respectively, or 171
358	and 12.1 $\mu$ g m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> if the riparian chambers were excluded. With the riparian
359	chambers included, treating the chambers as replicates significantly overestimated
360	$\mathrm{CH}_4$ emissions, whilst excluding them led to an underestimation of emissions. N <sub>2</sub> O
361	emissions were overestimated with or without the riparian chambers included. Both
362	$\mathrm{CH}_4$ and $\mathrm{N}_2\mathrm{O}$ fluxes calculated in this study are at the low end of literature values for
363	peatland systems (Regina et al., 1996; MacDonald et al., 1997; Hargreaves and
364	Fowler, 1998; Laine et al., 2007; McNamara et al., 2008). This is most likely due to
365	the relatively shallow peat layer underlying the chambers limiting CH <sub>4</sub> production and
366	low nitrate availability restricting denitrification.

The riparian zone alone contributed ~12% of the total catchment CH<sub>4</sub> emission, highlighting the importance of identifying and including emission hotspots in catchment budgets even if they cover only a small proportion of the overall area, a result also found by McNamara et al. (2008). Even after separating the chambers into groups to minimize spatial variability, the uncertainty within each group was still large. Furthermore, the exact weight given to each group in the final catchment

373 calculation has significant uncertainties. By sequentially changing the percent cover 374 estimates by plus or minus 10% and evenly distributing the difference among the 375 remaining groups, the total catchment  $CH_4$  and  $N_2O$  means varied by up to 36% and 376 up to 38% respectively. Despite the large measured fluxes, due to the relatively small 377 area of the riparian zone, a 10% error in its relative size altered the final catchment 378 mean by the least amount ( $CH_4$  2.86%,  $N_2O$  0.97%).

### 379 4.2. Controls on spatial variation

380 Clear differences in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were observed both between the growing 381 seasons and the winter season, and between the growing seasons in 2006 and 2007, 382 respectively (Figure 2). The differences were less pronounced for N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes, 383 primarily due to the very large variation seen across all chamber types within seasons 384 (Figure 3). The most striking difference between groups was the consistently large 385 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and below-ground CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations measured in the riparian 386 chambers. Although DOC, often quoted as the primary substrate for methanogenic bacteria (Segers, 1998), was low in the riparian zone (247 µg C g<sup>-1</sup>) compared to the 387 rest of the catchment (386  $\mu$ g C g<sup>-1</sup>), the pH was significantly higher (Riparian 5.83, 388 389 Catchment 4.81), hence closer to the methanogenic optima of  $\sim$ 7 (Segers, 1998). 390 Studies have repeatedly reported an increase in potential CH<sub>4</sub> production in response 391 to increased pH (Yavitt et al., 1987; Dunfield et al., 1993; Valentine et al., 1994). The 392 depth of the water table at the riparian site was not significantly higher than the rest of 393 the catchment due to extremely high variability among the 3 riparian chambers. 394 However, in 2 of the 3 riparian chambers water table was repeatedly in the top 3 395 highest. In particular, one of the chambers, which was also in the top 3 highest CH<sub>4</sub> 396 emitters on 94% of sampling occasions, had the highest water table on 89% of

397 occasions. Even during the relatively dry summer of 2006 when catchment water
398 tables were drawn down to an average of almost 50 cm below the soil surface, the
399 water table at this chamber remained within 18 cm of the surface.

400 Among the variables included in the CH<sub>4</sub> flux spatial variation models (Table 401 3) were pH, DOC, water table depth and soil moisture. The correlation with water 402 table depth has been well documented in previous studies (Moore and Dalva, 1993; 403 Aerts and Ludwig, 1997; Hargreaves and Fowler, 1998; MacDonald et al., 1998; 404 Dinsmore et al., in press). Soil moisture is strongly linked to water table depth and 405 may act as an indication of not only current but also antecedent water levels. 406 Therefore in some cases soil moisture represents a better indicator of CH<sub>4</sub> emission 407 than an instantaneous water table measurement. The effect of water table depth on 408  $CH_4$  emissions was only significant during growing season 2006, when it ranged from 409 approximately 5 to 50 cm below the peat surface. Similarly Shannon and White 410 (1994) found that water table was only important in one of 3 annual cycles, 411 corresponding to the year with the greatest range of water table depths (15 cm - 50)412 cm). Soil respiration represents a measure of aerobic microbial activity and thus is 413 likely to correlate strongly with rates of CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation, hence the negative correlation 414 with emissions during the winter season.

During the growing seasons CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were negatively correlated to the frequency of either rushes or sedges inside the chambers (Table 3b and d). Although contrary to much of the current literature which suggests the presence of aerenchyma containing vegetation (i.e. rushes and sedges) increases emissions (Shannon et al., 1996; Yu et al., 1997; Greenup et al., 2000), a similar result to that observed here was found in an earlier study with mesocosms collected from Auchencorth Moss

421 (Dinsmore et al., in press). As well as providing a source of readily available organic 422 substrate, plants containing aerenchymous tissue can provide a direct pathway for 423 many greenhouse gases to the atmosphere, bypassing the aerobic surface horizon and 424 therefore reducing the potential for oxidation (Bartlett and Harriss, 1993; Minkkinen 425 and Laine, 2006). However, studies have also shown that aerenchyma can transport 426  $O_2$  into the rhizosphere and can significantly alter the redox state of the surrounding 427 peat (Visser et al., 2000; Wiebner et al., 2002). Similarly, Arah and Stephen (1998) 428 found that increasing root-mediated transport in a CH<sub>4</sub> flux model led to a decrease in 429 simulated CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, due to the increase in oxidation outweighing the positive 430 influence of increased CH<sub>4</sub> transport.

431 For emissions to increase via plant-mediated transport, roots must penetrate 432 areas of high CH<sub>4</sub> production, thought to occur ~15-20 cm below the water table 433 (Daulat and Clymo, 1998; Kettunen et al., 1999), and bypass the surface oxidizing 434 peat layer. As the water table was drawn down to almost 50 cm during much of the 435 2006 growing season, and repeatedly to similar low levels during 2007, it is likely that 436 no significant reservoir of CH<sub>4</sub> was present in the shallow peat for plant roots to tap 437 into. Roura-Carol and Freeman (1999) suggest that the radial loss of O<sub>2</sub> from plant 438 roots is likely to be dependent on photosynthetic activity. Rhizospheric oxidation is 439 therefore likely to be minimal during the winter when plants are relatively inactive, 440 and this may explain the lack of an aerenchymous vegetation variable in our winter 441 season model (Table 3c). In the riparian zone where water table levels remained high 442 throughout the growing season and high below-ground CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations were 443 evident, the effect of plant-mediated transport may outweigh rhizospheric oxidation. 444 However, this could not be tested in this study as all our riparian chambers included J. 445 effusus.

446	$N_2O$ emissions were negatively correlated ( $P < 0.1$ ) with soil pH in both the
447	full study period and the growing season 2006 models (Table 3a and b). The optimum
448	pH from denitrifiers is often thought to be between approximately 6.5-8.0 (Knowles,
449	1981; Šimek and Cooper, 2002), therefore any increase above the mean catchment pH
450	of 4.18 should theoretically increase $N_2O$ production. However the partitioning of
451	$N_2O$ and $N_2$ is also influenced by pH with a higher proportion of $N_2O$ in more acid
452	conditions (Šimek et al., 2002). Soil pH was also strongly negatively correlated with
453	both soil extractable NO <sub>3</sub> (r = -0.61, $P < 0.001$ ) and soil extractable NH <sub>4</sub> (r = -0.75, $P$
454	< 0.01) concentrations over the same period. Therefore the reduction of N <sub>2</sub> O
455	emissions at higher pH values could also have occurred as an indirect response to low
456	soil nitrogen availability.

#### 457 *4.3. Drivers of temporal variation (site 2)*

458 Considering all 9 plots within site 2 where measurements were made 459 fortnightly, the main drivers of temporal variability in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions appeared to be 460 soil moisture and soil temperature (Table 4a). The temporal response in CH<sub>4</sub> 461 emissions to variations in temperature is consistent with previous studies (Frolking 462 and Crill, 1994; Shannon and White, 1994; Laine et al., 2007) and the mean Q<sub>10</sub> of 463 4.16 is similar to values previously reported for a different Scottish peatland 464 (MacDonald et al., 1998). Soil temperature was also an important driver of temporal  $N_2O$  dynamics with a very high  $Q_{10}$  of 7.12, and an apparent switch from 465 466 consumption to production at approximately 8°C (data not shown). A very similar 467 result was observed by Dinsmore et al. (in press) in mesocosms collected from 468 Auchencorth Moss, where a switch from consumption to production was recorded 469 between approximately 7.5 and 8.5°C. However, as was also the case in Dinsmore et al. (in press), N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes are low and variability high, so further work is required to
assess the significance of this switch.

472 Net CH<sub>4</sub> flux is dependent on the balance between oxidation and production 473 processes. As the temperature response in methanogens is generally greater than that 474 of methanotrophs (Segers, 1998), the overall effect on net emissions is positive. 475 Where temperature is a significant driver of variability, as in both Hollow and 476 Sedge/Hummock chambers, it suggests that variability is due primarily to changes in 477 methanogen activity rather than oxidation. However the primary correlate with net 478 emissions in the Juncus/Hummock plots was soil respiration, itself likely to be an 479 indicator of aerobic microbial activity, and as such linked to potential oxidation. The 480 dominance of oxidation in controlling emission variability in the Juncus/Hummock 481 plots may be due to potential methanogenesis being limited by lower substrate 482 availability, possibly reflected in the lower concentrations of extractable DOC in the 483 Juncus/Hummock chambers (Table 1). Hence the controls on temporal changes in 484 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions appear to be variable across the site.

485 Although significant changes in water table depth (e.g. drainage or drain 486 blocking) have repeatedly been shown to strongly influence CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Alm et 487 al., 1999; Strack et al., 2004), a much weaker relationship is often observed with 488 temporal water table variability in the field (Frolking and Crill, 1994; Shannon and 489 White, 1994). In our study water table was a significant correlate only in the Hollow 490 chambers, although soil moisture, which may provide a better measure of both current 491 and antecedent soil water conditions, was also included in the Sedge/Hummock 492 model. The presence of aerenchyma containing vegetation in the Sedge/Hummock 493 and Juncus/Hummock chambers might have partially off-set any increase in CH4

494 emissions associated with a rise in water table by increasing oxidation in the

495 rhizosphere. Again the drivers of temporal variability do not appear consistent across

496 the site; hence differences between studies in the importance of water table as a driver

497 of variability may be caused in part by differences in site-specific vegetation cover.

498 *4.4. Conclusions* 

499 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions varied considerably across the catchment, with the riparian 500 zone representing a significant hotspot. High emissions also appeared to be linked to 501 areas with consistently near-surface water tables. Contrary to many previous studies, 502 the presence of either sedges or rushes containing aerenchymous tissue decreased net 503 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions during the 2 growing seasons. Upscaling the calculated fluxes using 504 vegetation cover estimates from a satellite image, gave mean catchment CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions of 291  $\mu$ g CH<sub>4</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> and 5.12  $\mu$ g N<sub>2</sub>O m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, although these values are 505 506 extremely sensitive to error in the cover estimates. Hence it is important when 507 planning future studies to identify the presence of significant emission hotspots, such 508 as the riparian zone or areas with a consistently near-surface water table, prior to 509 experimental set-up.

The drivers of temporal variability were not consistent across the study site. The within-site differences in drivers found at Auchencorth Moss, possibly linked in this case to vegetation and substrate availability, may partially explain the discrepancies between previous studies. Depending on the heterogeneity of the site, creating a number of spatially distinct integrated models which are parameterized independently, may be more accurate than using a single model based on averaged catchment values.

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**Table 1** Mean  $\pm$  SE of data from full study period, separated by chamber type. *P*-values from ANOVA's testing for significant between group differences are indicated by asterisks where \* and \*\* refer to *P* < 0.05 and *P* < 0.01, respectively; † indicates that 

668	the result was not significant but had $P < 0.10$ .							
		Calluna	Hollow	Sedge/Hummock	Juncus/Hummock	Riparian		
CU	(,,-21,-1)	0 10 + 5 77	20 ( + 24 2	$2.20 \pm 6.47$	4 72 + 6 52	596 + 21		

$CH_4 (\mu g m^{-2} h^{-1})$	$8.12 \pm 5.77$	$20.6\pm24.3$	$2.30\pm6.47$	$4.73\pm6.52$	$586 \pm 311$
$N_2O (\mu g m^{-2} h^{-1})$	$1.52 \pm 3.34$	$-1.18 \pm 1.49$	$2.02 \pm 1.97$	$-0.68 \pm 1.36$	$3.87 \pm 1.35$
Soil respiration (g m <sup>-2</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> )	$0.29\pm0.04$	$0.24\pm0.01$	$0.28\pm0.02$	$0.37\pm0.11$	$0.45\pm0.06$
Soil pH <sup>**</sup>	$3.74 \pm 0.01$	$454 \pm 0.09$	$4.03 \pm 0.12$	$4.41 \pm 0.07$	$5.83 \pm 0.28$
Water table depth (cm) $\dagger$	$-20.7 \pm 0.89$	$-18.5 \pm 2.65$	$-27.2 \pm 2.25$	$-27.8 \pm 2.88$	$-23.4 \pm 8.1$
Soil moisture (m <sup>3</sup> m <sup>-3</sup> )	$0.85\pm0.04$	$0.88\pm0.02$	$0.85\pm0.02$	$0.85\pm0.02$	$0.88\pm0.04$
Soil extractable NO <sub>3</sub> ( $\mu$ g N g <sup>-1</sup> )	$5.08 \pm 0.90$	$3.14 \pm 1.05$	$4.38 \pm 0.91$	$3.61 \pm 0.45$	$4.57 \pm 2.41$
Soil extractable NH <sub>4</sub> ( $\mu$ g N g <sup>-1</sup> ) **	$42.9 \pm 0.95$	$18.0 \pm 3.31$	$21.7 \pm 2.76$	$18.9 \pm 0.73$	$24.8 \pm 10.5$
Soil extractable DOC( $\mu g C g^{-1}$ ) *	$595\pm56$	$301\pm57$	$410\pm59$	$239\pm11$	$247\pm154$
Soil solution NO <sub>3</sub> (mg N $l^{-1}$ ) <sup>†</sup>	$0.17 \pm 0.02$	$0.12 \pm 0.02$	$0.12 \pm 0.01$	$0.14 \pm 0.01$	$0.15 \pm 0.04$
Soil solution $NH_4$ (mg N l <sup>-1</sup> ) **	$0.58 \pm 0.17$	$0.08 \pm 0.01$	$0.23 \pm 0.03$	$0.17 \pm 0.03$	$0.14 \pm 0.04$
Soil solution DOC (mg C $l^{-1}$ ) *	$33.0 \pm 5.67$	$17.0 \pm 0.92$	$23.8 \pm 2.09$	$22.6 \pm 2.84$	$17.3 \pm 1.38$
Soil solution DIC (mg C l <sup>-1</sup> )	$2.24\pm0.20$	$2.59\pm0.51$	$2.76\pm0.28$	$2.70\pm0.31$	$3.88 \pm 1.06$
Soil CH <sub>4</sub> concentration ( $\mu$ l l <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>**</sup>	$9.35 \pm 5.27$	$5.52 \pm 1.13$	$2.73 \pm 0.29$	$3.13 \pm 0.41$	$48.2 \pm 31.7$
Soil CO <sub>2</sub> concentration ( $\mu$ l l <sup>-1</sup> ) *	$4490\pm894$	$3850 \pm 802$	$2680 \pm 411$	$3150 \pm 535$	$2890 \pm 538$
Soil N <sub>2</sub> O concentration ( $\mu$ l l <sup>-1</sup> )	$0.35 \pm 0.01$	$0.36 \pm 0.02$	$0.44 \pm 0.05$	$0.44 \pm 0.03$	$0.37 \pm 0.04$
669					

- 670 **Table 2** Results from ANOVA tests describing variables which make Riparian
- 671 chambers distinct from all other groups combined. Arrows indicate whether variable

Variable		F	<i>P</i> -value
CH <sub>4</sub> flux	<b>↑</b>	18.55	< 0.01
Soil respiration	<b>↑</b>	3.94	< 0.01
рН	<b>↑</b>	52	< 0.01
Soil extracted DOC	$\downarrow$	3.51	0.08
Soil solution DIC	<b>↑</b>	5.33	0.03
Soil CH <sub>4</sub> concentration	<b>↑</b>	13.30	< 0.01

672 is higher or lower in Riparian chambers.

**Table 3** Results from best subset multiple regression model describing the spatial674variation in  $CH_4$  and  $N_2O$  fluxes with the riparian chambers excluded across a) the675full dataset, b) growing season 2006, c) the winter season 2006-07 and d) growing

676 season 2007.

CH <sub>4</sub> flux			N <sub>2</sub> O flux		
Variable	t	Р	Variable	t	Р
a) Full study period					
$(r^2 = 0.46; P = 0.03)$			$(r^2 = 0.25; P = 0.05)$		
Intercept			Intercept		
Sedges (%)	-1.37	0.10	pН	-1.94	0.07
pН	2.39	0.03	Soil N <sub>2</sub> O concentration	1.81	0.09
Extractable DOC	2.22	0.05			
Soil solution DIC	-2.50	0.03			
Soil moisture	1.92	0.08			
b) Growing season 2006					
$(r^2 = 0.80; P < 0.01)$			$(r^2 = 0.14; P = 0.07)$		
Intercept			Intercept		
Rushes (%)	-4.04	< 0.01	pН	-1.93	0.07
Water table depth	-2.52	0.03			
Soil moisture	6.04	< 0.01			
Extractable NO <sub>3</sub>	-3.54	< 0.01			
Soil solution DOC	2.65	0.02			
Soil CH <sub>4</sub> concentration	2.48	0.03			
c) Winter season 2006-07					
$(r^2 = 0.36; P = 0.05)$			$(r^2 = 0.44; P < 0.01)$		
Intercept			Intercept		
Soil respiration	-2.28	0.04	Soil $CO_2$ concentration	-3.66	< 0.01
Soil solution DIC	-2.65	0.02			
Soil CH <sub>4</sub> concentration	2.70	0.02			
Mosses (%)	2.36	0.04			
d) Growing season 2007					
$(r^2 = 0.45; P = 0.02)$			$(r^2 = 0.65; P < 0.01)$		
Intercept			Intercept		
Sedges (%)	-2.07	0.06	рН	2.58	0.02
pН	2.07	0.02	Soil solution DOC	2.27	0.04
-			Soil N <sub>2</sub> O concentration	1.69	0.12

- 677 **Table 4** Results from best subset multiple regression model describing the temporal
- 678 variation in CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes across a) all chambers within site 2 (n = 9), b)
- 679 Hollow chambers within site 2 (n = 3), c) Sedge/Hummock chambers within site 2 (n
- 680 = 3) and d) Juncus/Hummock chambers within site 2 (n = 3)

CH <sub>4</sub> flux			N <sub>2</sub> O flux		
Variable	t	Р	Variable	t	Р
a) All chambers					
$(r^2 = 0.55; P < 0.01)$			$(r^2 = 0.18; P = 0.03)$		
Intercept			Intercept		
Soil moisture	5.85	< 0.01	Soil respiration	-2.67	0.01
Soil temperature (40 cm)	3.45	< 0.01	Soil temperature (40 cm)	1.76	0.09
b) Hollow					
$(r^2 = 0.68; P < 0.01)$			$(r^2 = 0.45; P < 0.01)$		
Intercept			Intercept		
Soil respiration	-2.09	0.05	Soil respiration	-1.98	0.06
Water table depth	-6.13	< 0.01	Soil moisture	2.00	0.06
Soil temperature (5 cm)	4.59	< 0.01	Water table depth	-4.43	< 0.01
c) Sedge/Hummock					
$(r^2 = 0.50; P < 0.01)$			$(r^2 = 0.25; P = 0.01)$		
Intercept			Intercept		
Soil moisture	5.13	< 0.01	Soil moisture	3.28	< 0.01
Soil temperature (40 cm)	3.85	< 0.01	Soil temperature (40 cm)	1.55	0.13
d) Juncus/Hummock					
$(r^2 = 0.41; P < 0.01)$			$(r^2 = 0.16; P = 0.04)$		
Intercept			Intercept		
Soil respiration	-4.40	< 0.01	Soil respiration	-2.24	0.03
			Soil temperature (40 cm)	2.07	0.05

# 681 Figure Legends

**Figure 1** Time series of a) median CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes from 9 chambers at site 2, b)

- 683 water table depth and soil moisture and c) soil temperature and respiration over the
- study period. The dashed lines separate the study into growing season 2006, winter
- period 2006-07 and growing season 2007, respectively
- **Figure 2** Mean integrated CH<sub>4</sub> flux during a) growing season 2006, b) the winter
- 687 period and c) growing season 2007, separated by microtopographic/vegetative group.
- 688 Error bars represent the standard error of the mean. Common letters indicate
- 689 statistically similar fluxes (P < 0.05)
- 690 Figure 3 Mean integrated N<sub>2</sub>O flux during a) growing season 2006, b) winter period
- 691 2006-07 and c) growing season 2007, separated by microtopographic/vegetative
- 692 group. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean. Common letters indicate
- 693 statistically similar fluxes (P < 0.10)







