

1 **Long-term warming amplifies shifts in the carbon cycle of experimental ponds**

2

3 Gabriel Yvon-Durocher^{1¶*}, Chris J Hulatt^{2¶}, Guy Woodward³, Mark Trimmer^{2*}

4

5 1. Environment and Sustainability Institute, University of Exeter, Penryn, Cornwall, TR10 9EZ. U.K.

6 2. School of Biological & Chemical Sciences, Queen Mary University of London, London E1 4NS, UK.

7 3. Imperial College London, Department of Life Sciences, Silwood Park Campus, Buckhurst Road, Ascot, Berkshire
8 SL5 7PY, UK.

9

10 ¶ denotes equal author contribution

11 *Correspondence to: Gabriel Yvon-Durocher (g.yvon-durocher@exeter.ac.uk) or Mark Trimmer
12 (m.trimmer@qmul.ac.uk)

13

14 Words in abstract: 194

15 Words in main text: 1743

16 Figures: 3

17 Tables: 2

18

19 **Lakes and ponds cover only about 4% of the Earth's non-glaciated surface¹, yet they**
20 **represent disproportionately large sources of methane and carbon dioxide²⁻⁴. Indeed, very**
21 **small ponds (e.g. < 0.001 km²) may account for approximately 40% of all CH₄ emissions from**
22 **inland waters⁵. Understanding how greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from aquatic ecosystems**
23 **will respond to global warming is therefore vital for forecasting biosphere-carbon cycle**
24 **feedbacks. Here, we present findings on the long-term effects of warming on the fluxes of**
25 **GHGs and rates of ecosystem metabolism in experimental ponds. We show that shifts in CH₄**
26 **and CO₂ fluxes, and rates of gross primary production (GPP) and ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}),**
27 **observed in the first year became amplified over seven years of warming. The capacity to**
28 **absorb CO₂ was nearly halved after seven years of warmer conditions. The phenology of**
29 **GHG fluxes were also altered, with CO₂ drawdown and CH₄ emissions peaking one month**
30 **earlier in the warmed treatments. These findings show that warming can fundamentally alter**
31 **the carbon balance of small ponds over a number of years, reducing their capacity to**
32 **sequester CO₂ and increasing emissions of CH₄; such positive feedbacks could ultimately**
33 **accelerate climate change.**

34 Respiration and methanogenesis respond more strongly to temperature change than
35 photosynthesis⁶⁻⁹. Consequently, warming has been shown to increase CO₂ and CH₄ emissions and
36 reduce carbon sequestration in experimental ponds¹⁰⁻¹³. However, these experiments have either
37 been restricted to relatively short-term responses to warming (e.g. 1 year or less)^{10,11} or have not
38 investigated how the effects of warming change over time^{13,14}. Therefore, a key unanswered
39 question for understanding how greenhouse gas dynamics in freshwater ponds will respond to
40 global warming is: *do the high temperature sensitivities of methanogenesis and respiration result in*
41 *increased emissions of CH₄ and CO₂, and reduced carbon sequestration under warming that is*
42 *sustained over the long-term, and which could potentially accelerate the rate of climate change?*

43 Unlike work in aquatic ecosystems, the long-term effects of experimental warming have
44 been assessed in terrestrial ecosystems, and tend to show elevated emissions of CO₂ in the short-

45 term, driven by the exponential temperature dependence of respiration, followed by a damped effect
46 of warming later¹⁵⁻¹⁷. These diminishing long-term responses have been attributed to loss of labile
47 carbon substrates¹⁵, physiological acclimation¹⁶, evolutionary adaptation¹⁸ or community turnover
48 through ecological dynamics¹⁹. These findings are important because they imply carbon cycle
49 responses to global warming should be more complex than the simple exponential effect of
50 temperature on respiration rates alone¹⁷.

51 Small freshwater ponds contribute disproportionately to greenhouse gas emissions budgets
52 from inland waters⁵. However, whether shifts in the fluxes of CH₄ and CO₂ observed in short-term
53 warming experiments^{10,11}, are sustained in the long-term (e.g. > 1 year to decadal timescales) in
54 these ecosystems is unknown, which severely limits our ability to predict whether future changes in
55 greenhouse gas fluxes^{4,5} will contribute to accelerating or slowing global warming. We tackled this
56 fundamental knowledge gap using an array of experimental mesocosms that were designed to
57 mimic mid-latitude ponds, to investigate the effects of long-term warming on the ecosystem-level
58 exchange of CO₂ and CH₄ with the atmosphere. We present a detailed analysis of the seasonal
59 dynamics of the key metabolic and GHG fluxes in the carbon cycle in the sixth (2012) and seventh
60 (2013) year of the experiment, which we contrast with our initial findings from the first year (2007)
61 of warming^{10,11} to explore whether, like terrestrial ecosystems¹⁵⁻¹⁷, the effects of warming on the
62 carbon cycle in freshwater ponds are dampened in the long-term.

63 CH₄ emissions were elevated in the warmed treatments in both 2007 and 2013. However,
64 the magnitude of the effect size increased over the seven years of the experiment (Fig. 1). Annual
65 rates of CH₄ emissions were 1.5-fold higher in the warmed treatments after one year of
66 experimental warming¹¹, but after seven years this effect size had increased to 2.5-fold (Fig. 1;
67 Table 1; Table 2). Consequently, a generalised additive mixed effects model (GAMM) that included
68 a ‘treatment’ by ‘year’ interaction on the intercept provided the best fit to the data (Table 1),
69 demonstrating that the effects of warming on median CH₄ emissions were larger in 2013 than 2007.

70 We also saw a comparable amplification of the effects of warming on total ecosystem-level

71 carbon metabolism. The effect size of warming increased from 1.2- to 1.8-fold for gross primary
72 production (GPP) and 1.4- to 2-fold for ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}) between 2007 and 2012 (Fig.
73 2a-d; Table 1). Consequently, GAMMs fitted to the seasonal distributions of GPP and R_{eco} and
74 including a ‘treatment’ by ‘year’ interaction on the intercept, provided the best fit to the data.
75 Because rates of R_{eco} increased more with warming than those of GPP, the R_{eco} /GPP ratio was 1.15-
76 fold higher in the warmed treatments, indicating reduced capacity for carbon sequestration in both
77 2007 and 2012 (Fig 2e & f). High frequency measurements of CO_2 exchange between the ponds
78 and the atmosphere in 2013 confirmed these findings, with annual net CO_2 uptake reduced by 50%
79 in the warmed mesocosms (Fig. 3; Table 1; Table 2). Together these results demonstrate that the
80 effects of warming on the key fluxes in the carbon cycle became amplified over the seven years of
81 the experiment, in stark contrast to the damped effects of long-term warming reported for terrestrial
82 systems¹⁵⁻¹⁷. So what mechanisms might be responsible for the amplified effects of warming in
83 freshwater ponds?

84 The experimental mesocosms were seeded in 2005 with organisms and organic matter (see
85 Methods) and have since been on a trajectory of ecosystem development. Succession theory
86 proposes that in the early stages of ecosystem development, as organic matter and biomass
87 accumulate, rates of GPP exceed R_{eco} and the ratio of R_{eco} /GPP < 1²⁰. As ecosystems develop
88 towards later successional stages, energy fixed by GPP tends to be balanced by energy consumed
89 through R_{eco} (i.e. the ratio of R_{eco} /GPP \approx 1) and biomass production is maximised²⁰. Consistent with
90 ecosystem succession theory, the R_{eco} /GPP ratio and annual totals for GPP and R_{eco} all increased
91 substantially over the course of the experiment in both the warmed and ambient treatments, with
92 increases in GPP and R_{eco} much larger in the warmed mesocosms (Fig. 2a-d). In line with the data
93 on total carbon metabolism, we also observed consistently higher biomass of macrophytes (Fig S5;
94 Table S3), phytoplankton and zooplankton in the warmed treatments in the long term²¹. Together,
95 these data show that warming enhanced rates of ecosystem development, community succession
96 and biomass accumulation, amplifying the divergence between treatments in GHG emissions and

97 metabolic fluxes. These results demonstrate that warming can fundamentally alter the energetic
98 balance at the ecosystem level: firstly, because in the short term, rates of respiration rise more
99 sharply with temperature than photosynthesis (increasing R_{eco}/GPP); and secondly, over the long
100 term, because higher rates of metabolism drive more rapid ecosystem development²², magnifying
101 energetic imbalances and shifts in the carbon cycle. Natural ecosystems are typified by far from
102 equilibrium dynamics²³, and thus, because warming can act both as a stressor and a driver of
103 physiology, understanding the long-term impacts of warming on ecosystem properties requires both
104 an appreciation of the acute effects of temperature change on organism metabolism and subsequent
105 impacts on the successional dynamics of ecosystems.

106 Focusing on the fluxes of CO_2 and CH_4 measured in 2013 at a high temporal resolution
107 reveals that, in addition to driving shifts in the annual budgets, long-term warming also profoundly
108 altered the seasonality of CH_4 emissions (Fig. 1) and net daily exchange of CO_2 (Fig. 3). Rates of
109 net daily CO_2 emission (i.e. days where total CO_2 emissions > absorption) peaked in October in the
110 warmed treatments, whilst, on average, ambient ponds were net sinks for CO_2 over the entire year.
111 By contrast, rates of net daily CO_2 absorption (i.e. days where total CO_2 absorption > emissions)
112 peaked in the warmed treatments in June, while they peaked in July in the ambient ponds (Fig. 3).
113 These respective peaks in net CO_2 absorption coincided with peak CH_4 emissions (Fig. 1), implying
114 a strong coupling between CO_2 drawdown by photosynthesis and substrate supply for
115 methanogenesis, which is a well-known characteristic of many natural aquatic ecosystems²⁴. Indeed,
116 the most marked effects of warming on CH_4 emissions occurred during the spring and early summer
117 (Fig. 1). Later in the year, however, the effects were negligible (Fig. 1) when rates of respiration
118 exceeded those of photosynthesis (e.g. CO_2 production > CO_2 consumption leading to net CO_2
119 emissions; cf Figs 1 & 3) in the warmed treatments and rates of methanogenesis may have been
120 limited by photosynthetically derived carbon. These results suggest that the effects of global
121 warming could shift the seasonal timing of carbon fluxes, which, in turn, affect the supply and
122 demand of substrates that support aquatic ecosystem productivity.

123 Overall, our findings provide the first experimental evidence that the annual balance of
124 greenhouse gas fluxes from freshwater ponds remain profoundly altered at inter-annual timescales,
125 with substantially elevated CH₄ emissions and lower CO₂ absorption. The extent to which these
126 results are important for understanding how carbon fluxes from globally important pond
127 ecosystems⁵ respond to warming depends on whether carbon dynamics in our experimental
128 mesocosms are broadly representative of those in natural systems. One important distinction
129 between the mesocosms and natural shallow lakes is that they are not embedded within a watershed,
130 and consequently, receive little terrestrially derived organic carbon, which is often an important
131 carbon flux in lakes and ponds²⁵. In consequence, carbon cycle dynamics in the mesocosms are
132 driven predominantly by autochthonous production, which could alter sediment characteristics,
133 coupling between photosynthesis and respiration, and GHG emissions compared with natural ponds
134 that receive allochthonous carbon subsidies. To investigate this and assess the relevance of our
135 findings for natural ponds, we measured the carbon (C), nitrogen (N) and C:N ratios of the
136 mesocosm sediments (Table 2) and compared them with values from natural lakes and ponds
137 spanning the dystrophic to oligotrophic spectrum²⁵. The sediment characteristics of the mesocosms
138 are similar to those from natural oligotrophic lakes²⁶. Mean annual rates of gross primary
139 production and ecosystem respiration (Table 2) are also comparable to those from natural lakes^{5,27},
140 indicating that rates of total carbon metabolism reflect those of natural systems. Finally, recent
141 work has shown that the size of lakes and ponds (in terms of surface area) are critical for
142 determining their greenhouse gases (GHG) emissions, with CH₄ flux per unit area increasing as a
143 power function of decreasing lake surface area^{5,28,29}. Our mesocosms, with a surface area of $3.14 \times$
144 10^{-4} ha, fall within the smallest category of ponds analysed in a global synthesis of GHG emissions⁵
145 and have average CH₄ concentrations that are indistinguishable from natural ponds of a similar size
146 (Fig. S4). Taken together, this evidence demonstrates results from our mesocosm experiment are of
147 direct relevance for understanding carbon cycle responses to warming in freshwater ponds. Our
148 results suggest that profound shifts in the carbon fluxes of small ponds should be expected over the

149 long term in a warming world, which is of particular concern in light of the fact that we are only
150 just beginning to appreciate the importance of such small water bodies in global budgets of GHG
151 emissions from inland waters^{5,28,29}.

152

153 **Acknowledgements**

154 This study was supported by a grant from the Natural Environment Research Council of the UK
155 (NE/H022511/1) awarded to MT, GY-D & GW.

156

157 **Author contributions**

158 MT and G. Y-D conceived the study. CJH & G. Y-D conducted the experiments. G. Y-D, CJH and
159 MT analysed the data. G. Y-D. wrote the manuscript and all authors contributed to revisions. The
160 authors declare no conflict of interest.

161

162 **Corresponding Authors**

163 Requests for materials should be sent to Gabriel Yvon-Durocher (g.yvon-durocher@exeter.ac.uk)
164 or Mark Trimmer (m.trimmer@qmul.ac.uk).

165

166 **References**

- 167 1. Verpoorter, C., Kutser, T., Seekell, D. A. & Tranvik, L. J. A global inventory of lakes based
168 on high-resolution satellite imagery. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **41**, 6396–6402 (2014).
- 169 2. Bastviken, D., Tranvik, L. J., Downing, J. A., Crill, P. M. & Enrich-Prast, A. Freshwater
170 Methane Emissions Offset the Continental Carbon Sink. *Science* **331**, 50–50 (2011).
- 171 3. Cole, J. J. *et al.* Plumbing the global carbon cycle: Integrating inland waters into the
172 terrestrial carbon budget. *Ecosystems* **10**, 171–184 (2007).
- 173 4. Wik, M., Varner, R. K., Anthony, K. W., MacIntyre, S. & Bastviken, D. Climate-sensitive
174 northern lakes and ponds are critical components of methane release. *Nature Geoscience* **9**,
175 99– (2016).
- 176 5. Holgerson, M. A. & Raymond, P. A. Large contribution to inland water CO₂ and CH₄
177 emissions from very small ponds. *Nature Geosci* **9**, 222–226
- 178 6. Yvon-Durocher, G. *et al.* Reconciling the temperature dependence of respiration across
179 timescales and ecosystem types. *Nature* **487**, 472–476 (2012).
- 180 7. Yvon-Durocher, G. *et al.* Methane fluxes show consistent temperature dependence across
181 microbial to ecosystem scales. *Nature* **507**, 488– (2014).
- 182 8. Allen, A. P., Gillooly, J. F. & Brown, J. H. Linking the global carbon cycle to individual

- 183 metabolism. *Functional Ecology* **19**, 202–213 (2005).
- 184 9. Marotta, H. *et al.* Greenhouse gas production in low-latitude lake sediments responds
185 strongly to warming. *Nature Climate Change* **4**, 467–470 (2014).
- 186 10. Yvon-Durocher, G., Jones, J. I., Trimmer, M., Woodward, G. & Montoya, J. M. Warming
187 alters the metabolic balance of ecosystems. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society*
188 *B - Biological Sciences* **365**, 2117–2126 (2010).
- 189 11. Yvon-Durocher, G., Montoya, J. M., Woodward, G., Jones, J. I. & Trimmer, M. Warming
190 increases the proportion of primary production emitted as methane from freshwater
191 mesocosms. *Global Change Biology* **17**, 1225–1234 (2011).
- 192 12. Atwood, T. B. *et al.* Warming alters food web-driven changes in the CO₂ flux of
193 experimental pond ecosystems. *Biology Letters* **11**, (2015).
- 194 13. Davidson, T. A. *et al.* Eutrophication effects on greenhouse gas fluxes from shallow-lake
195 mesocosms override those of climate warming. *Global Change Biology* **21**, 4449–4463
196 (2015).
- 197 14. Liboriussen, L. *et al.* Effects of warming and nutrients on sediment community respiration in
198 shallow lakes: an outdoor mesocosm experiment. *Freshwater Biology* **56**, 437–447 (2010).
- 199 15. Melillo, J. M. Soil Warming and Carbon-Cycle Feedbacks to the Climate System. *Science*
200 **298**, 2173–2176 (2002).
- 201 16. Luo, Y., Wan, S., Hui, D. & Wallace, L. Acclimatization of soil respiration to warming in a
202 tall grass prairie. *Nature* **413**, 622–625 (2001).
- 203 17. Luo, Y. Terrestrial carbon-cycle feedback to climate warming. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst.*
204 (2007).
- 205 18. Bradford, M. A., Watts, B. W. & Davies, C. A. Thermal adaptation of heterotrophic soil
206 respiration in laboratory microcosms. *Global Change Biology* **16**, 1576–1588 (2010).
- 207 19. Karhu, K. *et al.* Temperature sensitivity of soil respiration rates enhanced by microbial
208 community response. *Nature* **513**, 81– (2014).
- 209 20. Odum, E. P. The strategy of ecosystem development. *Science* **164**, 262–270 (1969).
- 210 21. Yvon-Durocher, G. *et al.* Five Years of Experimental Warming Increases the Biodiversity
211 and Productivity of Phytoplankton. *Plos Biol* **13**, (2015).
- 212 22. Anderson-Teixeira, K. J., Vitousek, P. M. & Brown, J. H. Amplified temperature dependence
213 in ecosystems developing on the lava flows of Mauna Loa, Hawai'i. *P Natl Acad Sci Usa* **105**,
214 228–233 (2008).
- 215 23. Levin, S. A. Ecosystems and the biosphere as complex adaptive systems. *Ecosystems* **1**, 431–
216 436 (1998).
- 217 24. Whiting, G. J. & Chanton, J. P. Primary production control of methane emission from
218 wetlands. *Nature* **364**, 794–795 (1993).
- 219 25. Tranvik, L. J. *et al.* Lakes and reservoirs as regulators of carbon cycling and climate. *Limnol.*
220 *Oceanogr.* **54**, 2298–2314 (2009).
- 221 26. Dean, W. E. The carbon cycle and biogeochemical dynamics in lake sediments. *Journal of*
222 *Paeleolimnology* **21**, 375–393 (1999).
- 223 27. Likens, G. E. in *Primary Productivity of the Biosphere* **14**, 185–202 (Springer Berlin
224 Heidelberg, 1975).
- 225 28. Kankaala, P., Huotari, J., Tulonen, T. & Ojala, A. Lake-size dependent physical forcing
226 drives carbon dioxide and methane effluxes from lakes in a boreal landscape. *Limnol.*
227 *Oceanogr.* **58**, 1915–1930 (2013).
- 228 29. Bastviken, D., Cole, J., Pace, M. & Tranvik, L. Methane emissions from lakes: Dependence
229 of lake characteristics, two regional assessments, and a global estimate. *Global Biogeochem.*
230 *Cycles* **18**, (2004).
- 231 30. Dossena, M. *et al.* Warming alters community size structure and ecosystem functioning.
232 *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* **279**, 3011–3019 (2012).
- 233

234 **Table 1| Multi-model selection on generalised additive mixed effects models fitted to the**
 235 **seasonal CH₄, CO₂ and metabolic flux data.** A range of models testing hypotheses on the effects
 236 of the warming treatment ('treat') and the 'year' of the experiment were fitted to the seasonal
 237 greenhouse gas and metabolic flux data; 'treat' and 'year' along with their interaction assess
 238 differences in median flux values, while comparisons between s(DOY) and s(DOY, by = treat)
 239 assess whether the seasonality of flux differs among treatments. Models were compared via the
 240 small sample size corrected Akaike Information Criterion (AICc), delta AICc is the difference in
 241 AICc score relative to the model with the lowest value (most parsimonious model) and AICc
 242 Weight (Wt) is the relative support for the model. The best fitting models were selected as those
 243 returning the lowest AICc score and the highest AICc weight and are highlighted in bold.
 244

Model	df	N	AICc	Δ AICc	AICc Wt
CH₄ Emissions					
ME0 – fixed = treat * year + s(DOY)	8	311	961.53	0.00	0.71
ME1 – fixed = treat + year + s(DOY)	7	311	965.47	3.94	0.16
ME2 – fixed = treat * year + s(DOY, by = treat)	10	311	966.03	1.51	0.13
ME3 – fixed = year + s(DOY)	6	311	969.66	5.13	0.00
ME4 – fixed = treat + s(DOY)	6	311	996.13	31.60	0.00
ME3 – fixed = s(DOY)	5	311	999.85	35.32	0.00
GPP					
GPP0 – fixed = treat * year + s(DOY)	8	208	243.00	0.00	0.97
GPP1 – fixed = treat + year + s(DOY)	7	208	250.58	7.59	0.02
GPP2 – fixed = treat * year + s(DOY, by = treat)	10	208	253.66	10.67	0.00
GPP3 – fixed = year + s(DOY)	6	208	255.69	12.69	0.00
GPP4 – fixed = treat + s(DOY)	6	208	266.18	23.19	0.00
GPP5 – fixed = s(DOY)	5	208	271.54	28.55	0.00
R_{eco}					
R0 – fixed = treat * year + s(DOY)	8	208	277.11	0.00	0.82
R1 – fixed = treat + year + s(DOY)	7	208	280.34	3.23	0.16
R2 – fixed = treat * year + s(DOY, by = treat)	10	208	285.33	8.22	0.01
R3 – fixed = year + s(DOY)	6	208	293.76	16.65	0.00
R4 – fixed = treat + s(DOY)	6	208	315.73	38.63	0.00
R5 – fixed = s(DOY)	5	208	327.21	50.11	0.00
R_{eco}/ GPP					
RAT0 – fixed = treat + year + s(DOY)	7	208	46.14	0.00	0.81
RAT1 – fixed = year + s(DOY)	6	208	49.90	3.76	0.12
RAT2 – fixed = treat + year + s(DOY)	8	208	51.17	5.03	0.07
RAT3 – fixed = treat * year + s(DOY, by = treat)	10	208	59.43	13.29	0.00
RAT4 – fixed = treat + s(DOY)	6	208	65.17	19.03	0.00
RAT5 – fixed = s(DOY)	5	208	67.37	21.23	0.00
Net CO₂ Flux - 2013					
NEE0 – fixed = treat + s(DOY, by = treat)	8	4656	103884.7	0.00	1.00
NEE1 – fixed = s(DOY, by = treat)	7	4656	103901.5	16.79	0.00
NEE2 – fixed = treat + s(DOY)	6	4656	103965.2	80.55	0.00
NEE3 – fixed = s(DOY)	5	4656	103982.0	97.34	0.00

245 **Table 2| Annual carbon fluxes and sediment characteristics of the mesocosms.**

246

	2007		2012		2013	
	Ambient	Heated	Ambient	Heated	Ambient	Heated
CH ₄ emissions (g CH ₄ m ⁻² y ⁻¹)	0.20 (0.016)	0.27 (0.013)	-	-	0.33 (0.012)	0.74 (0.04)
Net CO ₂ flux (g C m ⁻² y ⁻¹)	-	-	-	-	-20.1 (6.4)	-10.9 (12.3)
GPP (g C m ⁻² y ⁻¹)	207.1 (1.1)	243.7 (1.6)	221.9 (1.1)	392.1 (1.8)	-	-
R _{eco} (g C m ⁻² y ⁻¹)	164.3 (1.4)	233.2 (1.7)	210.3 (1.3)	422.9 (1.9)	-	-
R _{eco} /GPP	0.83 (0.06)	0.97 (0.09)	1.03 (0.1)	1.16 (0.20)	-	-
Sediment % Carbon	-	-	-	-	2.9 (1.3)	3.7 (2.3)
Sediment % Nitrogen	-	-	-	-	0.3 (0.1)	0.4 (0.3)
Sediment C:N (molar)	-	-	-	-	11.8 (1.1)	11.1 (1.3)

247

Annual flux values were calculated by exponentiation of the median natural log-transformed daily fluxes estimated for each pond from the mixed effects model and multiplying by 365.

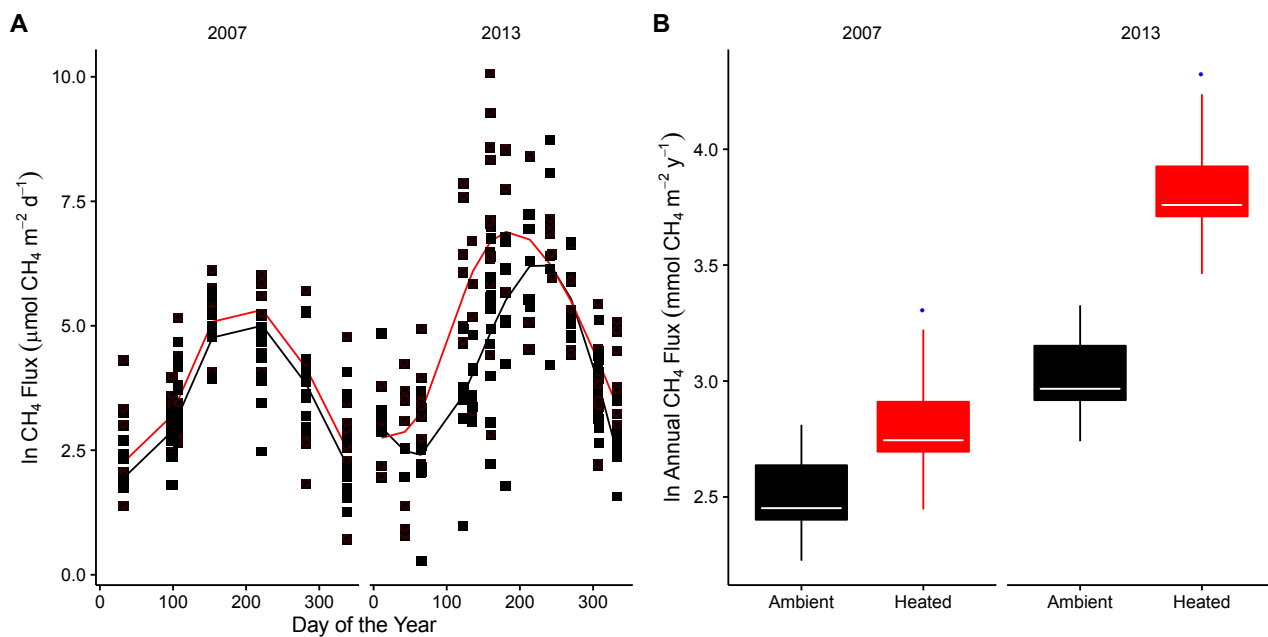
248

Values given in the table are averages of the annual fluxes across treatments and years. Numbers in parentheses are standard deviations. Positive fluxes indicate that the mesocosms were sources of GHGs to the atmosphere, whilst negative fluxes denote they were sinks.

249

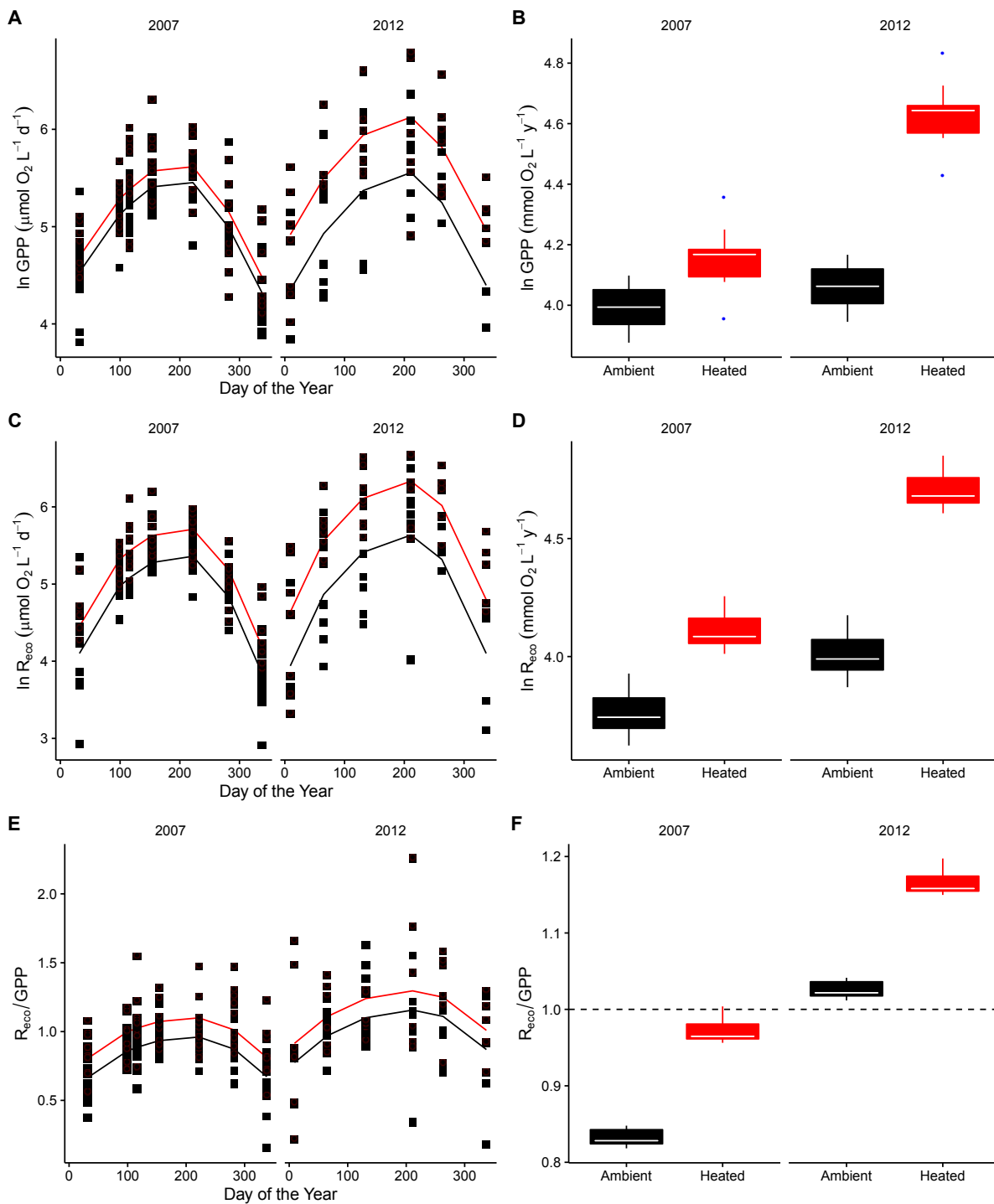
250

251



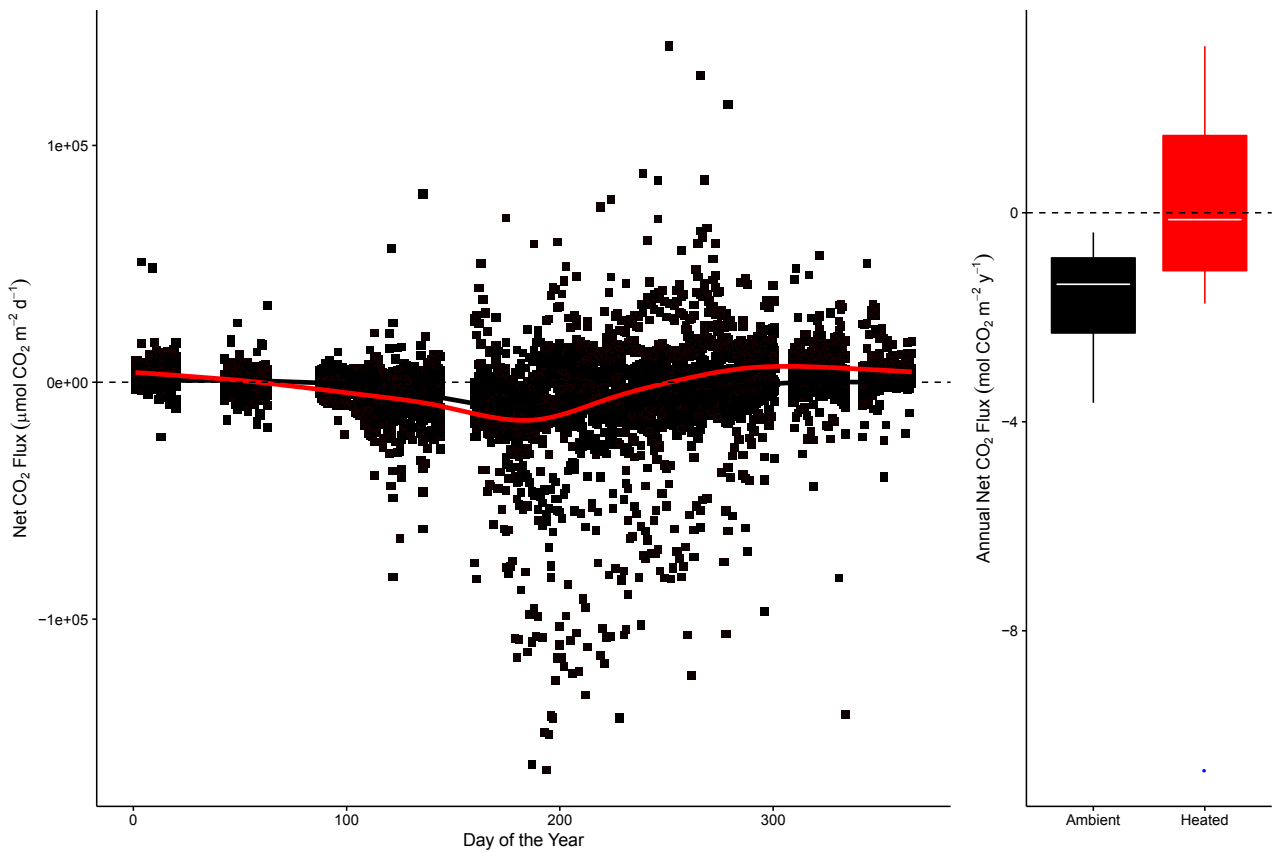
253

254 **Figure 1| Long-term experimental warming amplifies shifts in CH₄ emissions.** (a) The seasonal
 255 variation in CH₄ flux from 2007 and 2013 demonstrate that the effect of warming was larger in
 256 2013 than 2007. (b) Box whisker plots of annual CH₄ flux from each pond calculated by integrating
 257 the seasonal data over time. These data show that the effect size of warming increased from 1.5 fold
 258 in 2007 to 2.5 fold in 2013 highlighting that the effects of warming became amplified in the long
 259 term. The solid lines denote the fixed effects from the best fitting GAMM model (see Table 1 for
 260 model selection). Red circles and lines denote warmed treatments, while the ambient treatments are
 261 in black. Tops and bottoms of boxes in box-whisker plots correspond to the 25th and 75th
 262 percentiles, horizontal white lines correspond to medians, whisker extents correspond to 1.5 x the
 263 interquartile range and blue points are outliers.



264

265 **Figure 2| Long-term experimental warming amplifies shifts in ecosystem metabolism.** Seasonal
 266 distributions of (a) Rates of gross primary production, GPP, (c) ecosystem respiration, R_{eco} , and (e)
 267 the R_{eco}/GPP ratio were fitted to generalised additive mixed effects models (see Methods). For GPP
 268 and R_{eco} the effects of warming on median rates of ecosystem metabolism were larger in 2012 than
 269 in 2007. The R_{eco}/GPP ratio was higher in the warmed ponds and increased between 2007 and 2012.
 270 The solid lines denote the fixed effects from the best fitting GAMM model (see Table 2 for model
 271 selection). Red circles and lines denote warmed treatments, while the ambient treatments are in
 272 black. Box whisker plots of annual rates of (b) GPP, (d) R_{eco} , and (f) R_{eco}/GPP ratio from each pond
 273 calculated by integrating the seasonal data over time. Tops and bottoms of boxes in box-whisker
 274 plots correspond to the 25th and 75th percentiles, horizontal white lines correspond to medians,
 275 whisker extents correspond to 1.5 x the interquartile range and blue points are outliers.
 276



277
 278 **Figure 3| Experimental warming alters the phenology and annual budget of net CO₂ flux.** (a)
 279 Seasonal distribution of net CO₂ flux data collected in 2013 reveal differences in the seasonality of
 280 net daily CO₂ fluxes with maximal rates of net CO₂ absorption peaking earlier in the year in the
 281 warmed treatments. The solid lines denote the fixed effects from the best fitting GAMM model.
 282 Red circles and lines denote warmed treatments, while the ambient treatments are in black. (b) Box
 283 whisker plot of the annual net CO₂ fluxes calculated for each pond by integrating over the seasonal
 284 data reveal higher net fluxes in the warmed treatments (indicating lower CO₂ absorption). Tops and
 285 bottoms of boxes in box-whisker plots correspond to the 25th and 75th percentiles, horizontal white
 286 lines correspond to medians, whisker extents correspond to 1.5 x the interquartile range and blue
 287 points are outliers.

288 **METHODS**

289 **Mesocosm pond facility**

290 The facility was established in 2005 and consists of 20 artificial ponds of approximately 1m³
291 volume, 50cm depth, sited in southern England (Freshwater Biological Association Rivers
292 Laboratory, East Stoke, 2°10`W, 50°13`N), designed to be broadly representative of mid-latitude
293 shallow lakes¹⁰. Warming of 4-5°C above ambient began in half of the ponds in 2006 by
294 maintaining a constant differential between thermocouples in a pair of warmed and ambient ponds
295 (Fig. S1). The ponds contain well established benthic and pelagic communities including
296 assemblages of macrophytes (Table S2), phytoplankton, algal biofilms and invertebrates; for a
297 detailed description of the community composition see previous publications from this facility^{10,21,30}.
298 Sediments are comprised of 8-10 cm of fine sands with a developed organic layer of 1-3 cm (Table
299 2).

300

301 **Methane flux measurements**

302 CH₄ fluxes were measured using a static, polythene-dome chamber (0.5 L) fitted with a foam collar
303 and butyl septum³¹. Gas samples (1 mL) were withdrawn from the chamber through the septum
304 using a gas-tight syringe and transferred to a glass-vial (3 mL, Exetainer, Labco, UK) containing
305 helium-purged water. A single flux measurement on each pond was made by collecting samples at
306 five time-points over an hour just after sunrise. Samples of atmospheric air and water were also
307 collected immediately after each flux measurement and stored in the same way. All water samples
308 were fixed with mercuric chloride (50µL saturated solution) and stored at 4°C before analysis.
309 Methane in the headspace of vials was measured by Gas Chromatography with a Flame Ionization
310 Detector (GC-FID, Agilent Technologies, UK)³². The GC was calibrated using 0 and 100 ppm span
311 gases. The concentration of methane in the sample headspace was converted to *in situ* concentration
312 using the solubility coefficient of methane in water at analytical temperature³³. CH₄ efflux (µmol m⁻²
313 d⁻¹) was calculated using linear regression of methane concentration in the chamber headspace *vs*

314 time, taking the respective chamber volume and surface-area into account. In 2007-8, after one year
315 of experimental warming, CH₄ fluxes were measured on 7 occasions over a year¹¹. In 2013-14, after
316 seven years of warming, CH₄ fluxes were measured on 12 occasions (2-6 weeks apart).

317

318 **Carbon dioxide flux measurements**

319 Carbon dioxide fluxes were measured over the annual cycle of 2013-14 using sixteen multiplexed
320 automatic gas flux chambers (LI8100 & LI8150, Li-Cor) mounted on floating rings (Fig. S1c).
321 Because this system is limited to analysing 16 parallel ports, we deployed gas flux chambers on 8 of
322 the 10 heated and 8 of the 10 ambient replicate ponds and all analyses of the CO₂ flux data focus on
323 this subset of the experiment. Acquisition frequency was 1Hz and one flux measurement was
324 recorded from each pond hourly. The optical bench of the infra-red gas analyser was calibrated
325 using zero and 500 ppm span-gases (Spantech, UK). Fluxes of CO₂ were estimated by linear
326 regression of the chamber CO₂ concentration over time using standard Li-Cor software. Carbon
327 dioxide fluxes followed a regular diel pattern of emission during darkness followed by absorption
328 during daylight (Fig. S3). Trapezoidal integration was used to find the daily area under the efflux
329 and influx curves, and daily net exchange was calculated as the sum of daily influx and efflux.

330

331 **Ecosystem metabolism**

332 Rates of gross primary production (GPP) and ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}) were measured over a
333 24h diel cycle for each replicate mesocosm on alternate months in 2007-08 and 2012-13 using the
334 free water dissolved oxygen (DO) change technique³⁴. Measurements of DO and temperature were
335 taken every 15 minutes for 24 hours at mid-depth (0.25 m) in the water column of each pond with
336 YSI 600XLM multi-parameter Sondes, equipped with 6562 rapid pulse™ dissolved oxygen sensors.
337 Prior to deployment, the Sondes were calibrated in water-saturated air with a correction for
338 barometric pressure. Calibration accuracy was verified by monitoring the DO concentration of
339 water-saturated air for 10 minutes and checking against 100% O₂ saturation for the measured

340 temperature and pressure. Measurements of DO, wind speed at 1.7m (Cole-Parmer, WS-821), and
341 light intensity (Licor, LI-193) at mid-depth in the water column were used to calculate GPP and
342 R_{eco} following the methods outlined in Staehr *et al*³⁴ and using the equations given in Table S1.

343

344 **Temperature**

345 Water temperature was recorded automatically every 15 minutes by a temperature probe (TMC6-
346 HD Air/Soil/Water sensor, Onset, USA) and data-logger installed in each pond and additionally
347 checked on each visit to the facility with a YSI thermometer (Model 550A, YSI, USA). The
348 temperature of the warmed ponds averaged 4.8 ± 1.0 °C higher than that of the ambient ponds over
349 the entire experiment.

350

351 **Sediment characteristics**

352 Sediment samples were collected in August 2013 using a 100 mm diameter corer (area 78.5 cm²).
353 Carbon and Nitrogen analysis of fine benthic organic matter (<250 µm particle size) was conducted
354 using homogenized sediment that was acidified (1M HCl) to remove carbonates³⁵. The carbon and
355 nitrogen content of oven-dried (60°C) samples was measured with an elemental analyzer (Integra,
356 Sercon UK). In-house certified reference materials were EMA P2 and Casein (Elemental
357 Microanalysis, UK). These materials were included during each batch of samples to check for
358 accuracy and repeatability.

359

360 **Statistical analysis**

361 Rates of CH₄ emissions, GPP and R_{eco} exhibited strong right-skew (e.g. high frequency of low rates
362 and few high rates) and were therefore natural-logarithm transformed prior to statistical analyses
363 and plotting. Net CO₂ fluxes were normally distributed and were therefore left untransformed. We
364 used generalised additive mixed effects models (GAMMs) to characterise the phenology and
365 overall treatment effects on rates of greenhouse gas emissions (CH₄ and CO₂ fluxes) and ecosystem

366 metabolism (GPP and R_{eco}), to account for the hierarchical nature of our experimental data³⁶. For
367 example, our experimental design yielded replicate seasonal responses for each rate in each
368 treatment over two sampling years (2007 and 2012 [GPP and Reco] or 2013 [CH₄ and CO₂ fluxes]).
369 This hierarchical structure meant that rate measurements were non-independent – e.g.
370 measurements from the same pond and sampling year are likely to be autocorrelated. We account
371 for this by treating sampling year nested within pond as a random effect on the intercept of the
372 model which models deviations among ponds and years from the fixed effects as normally
373 distributed with a mean of zero. The most complex models included a treatment by year interaction
374 on the intercept (which characterises the median value of the response variable) and allowed the
375 shape of the seasonal phenology, which was modelled using a cubic regression spline, to vary
376 among treatments. Treatment effects on the shape and intercept of the seasonal phenology and year
377 effects on the intercept were modeled as fixed effects in the GAMMs. Model selection entailed
378 fitting a range of models to the rate data, starting with the full model and then a series of reduced
379 models with interaction terms and main effects removed to test hypotheses about the potential
380 differences in rates among treatments and sampling years. For multi-model selection we computed
381 small sample-size corrected AIC scores (AICc) and then compared between models by calculating
382 delta AICc values and AIC weights using the ‘MuMIn’ package. GAMMs were fitted to the data
383 using the ‘gamm4’ package and all statistical analyses were conducted in R (v.3.23). We calculated
384 the annual rates of greenhouse gas emissions (CH₄ and CO₂ fluxes) and ecosystem metabolism
385 (GPP and R_{eco}) for each pond on each year by exponentiation of the median natural log-transformed
386 daily rate estimated from the mixed effects model and multiplying by 365.

387

388 **Data availability**

389 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon
390 reasonable request.

391

392

393 **References**

- 394 31. Bastviken, D., Ejlertsson, J. & Tranvik, L. Measurement of methane oxidation in lakes: A
395 comparison of methods. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **36**, 3354–3361 (2002).
- 396 32. Sanders, I. A. *et al.* Emission of methane from chalk streams has potential implications for
397 agricultural practices. *Freshwater Biology* **52**, 1176–1186 (2007).
- 398 33. Wilhelm, E., Battino, R. & Wilcock, R. J. Low-pressure solubility of gases in liquid water.
399 *Chem. Rev.* **77**, 219–262 (1977).
- 400 34. Staehr, P. A. *et al.* Lake metabolism and the diel oxygen technique: State of the science.
401 *Limnol Oceanogr-Meth* **8**, 628–644 (2010).
- 402 35. Hedges, J. I. & Stern, J. H. Carbon and nitrogen determinations of carbonate-containing
403 solids. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **29**, 657–663 (1984).
- 404 36. Zuur, A., Ieno, E., Walker, N. & Saveliev, A. *Mixed effects models and extensions in ecology*
405 *with R.* (Springer Verlag, 2009)

