

Article (refereed)

Dinsmore, Kerry J.; Skiba, Ute M.; Billett, Michael F.; Rees, Robert M.; Drewer, Julia. 2009 Spatial and temporal variability in CH₄ and N₂O fluxes from a Scottish ombrotrophic peatland: implications for modeling and upscaling. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 41 (6). 1315-1323. 10.1016/j.soilbio.2009.03.022

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2 **Spatial and temporal variability in CH₄ and N₂O fluxes from a**
3 **Scottish ombrotrophic peatland; implications for modelling and**
4 **upscaling**

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7 16 September 2008

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13 Submission of 'Research Paper' for publication in Soil Biology and Biochemistry

14 **Information on submitted article:**

15 Text pages: 30

16 Tables: 4

17 Figures: 3

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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 $1.06 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$
30 (300%) and $0.02 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$ (410%), respectively. The riparian zone was a significant
31 CH_4 hotspot contributing $\sim 12\%$ of the total catchment emissions whilst covering only
32 $\sim 0.5\%$ 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_4 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 CO₂ (Gorham,
42 1991). However, due to the prevalence of waterlogged conditions, they represent a
43 significant net source of CH₄ (Bartlett and Harriss, 1993; Huttunen et al., 2003) and in
44 some cases a net source of N₂O (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 CO₂ 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 CO₂ 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 CH₄ and N₂O
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

64 estimates is often extremely large. Furthermore, such high uncertainty leads to
65 difficulties in identifying the primary drivers of temporal variability and hence
66 predicting future emissions under different climate change scenarios or management
67 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 O₂ 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.

84 Although both temperature and water table have repeatedly been shown to be
85 strong drivers of temporal variability in surface CH₄ and N₂O fluxes, studies often
86 disagree as to their relative importance (Daulat and Clymo, 1998; Hargreaves and
87 Fowler, 1998; Updegraff et al., 2001). It is likely, given the degree of within-site

88 variability often observed, that the primary drivers of temporal variability are not
89 consistent across typical peatland sites. By examining how these drivers vary spatially
90 this study aims to improve our understanding of the underlying processes that control
91 surface emissions, and aid the design of future chamber studies to achieve the best
92 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
96 approximately 17 km south of Edinburgh, Scotland (55°47'34 N; 3°14'35 W). The site
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
99 nitrogen and sulphur deposition rates at the site are 16.5 kg N ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ and 6.9 kg S ha⁻¹
100 y⁻¹, respectively (Smith, personal communication, 2008). The land-use is primarily
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);
106 maximum and minimum monthly mean temperatures (1971-2000) are 19°C in July
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

134 for examining temporal variability. Alongside flux measurements, soil temperature,
135 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
140 Livingston and Hutchinson (1995). Polypropylene chamber bases were inserted into
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
146 approximately 17 litres for all other chambers. Enclosure time generally ranged
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
154 chromatograph (detection limits: CO₂ < 199 µl l⁻¹ (ppmv), CH₄ < 1.26 µl l⁻¹, N₂O <
155 0.2 µl l⁻¹) with electron capture (ECD) and flame ionisation detectors (FID) for N₂O
156 and CH₄, respectively. Fluxes were calculated as the observed rate of concentration
157 change times the enclosure volume to ground surface area ratio.

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
165 atmosphere wells were created by inserting Accurel[®] water tight, gas permeable
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
168 Accurel each time chamber measurements were made and analysed for CO₂, CH₄ and
169 N₂O; CO₂ was measured on the same gas chromatograph as CH₄ and N₂O 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
174 4000 mg l⁻¹), using ultraviolet oxidation and sparging with N₂ to remove acidified
175 inorganic carbon; NO₃ and NH₄ were analysed on a dual channel CHEMLAB
176 continuous flow colorimetric analyser (detection range NH₄-N: 0.25 to 3.0 mg l⁻¹;
177 NO₃-N: 0.25 to 5.0 mg l⁻¹).

178 Soil was collected from approximately 5 to 30 cm depth using a soil auger; 3
179 samples from within 0.5 m of each chamber were combined. A sub-sample of soil was
180 analysed for pH and the remainder frozen within 24 hours of collection for later
181 extraction with KCl and water for NO₃, NH₄ and DOC. Extracts were analysed

182 alongside the soil solution samples. Percent moss, grass, sedge and rush were visually
183 estimated 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, $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and net radiation (W m^{-2}),
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_4 and
194 N_2O 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_3 , NH_4 and DOC. However, due to the skewed
197 distribution of the data, the geometric mean was used to describe soil solution NO_3 ,
198 NH_4 , DOC and DIC, and soil atmosphere CO_2 , CH_4 and N_2O concentrations. Where
199 mean values are quoted, \pm refers to the standard error of the mean unless otherwise
200 stated.

201 As the CH_4 fluxes from Juncus/Hummock chambers in the riparian zone (site
202 3) were highly and significantly different from the Juncus/Hummock chambers in
203 both site 1 and site 2 ($F = 18.6$, $P < 0.01$), they were separated into a distinct class
204 (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 CH₄ and N₂O 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.

213 Fortnightly measurements of the 9 chambers within site 2 (plus auxiliary data)
214 were used for the analysis of temporal variability. The data were separated, prior to
215 analysis, by chamber type (Hollow, Sedge/Hummock, Juncus/Hummock). As before,
216 best-fit models for both CH₄ and N₂O emissions were created using a combination of
217 best-subsets and backward selection stepwise regression.

218 **3. Results**

219 Over the full study period the mean of the integrated CH₄ fluxes within the
220 groups Calluna, Hollow, Sedge/Hummock, Juncus/Hummock and Riparian were 8.12,
221 20.61, 2.30, 4.73 and 586 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, respectively (Table 1). Mean N₂O fluxes across
222 the same groups were 1.52, -1.18, 2.02, -0.68 and 3.87 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, respectively (Table
223 1). Overall group was not a significant factor explaining either CH₄ or N₂O flux
224 variability, however significant differences between specific groups are considered in
225 more detail below.

226 *3.1. Spatial variability*

227 *Influence of microtopographic/vegetative group*

228 The mean CH₄ flux from all chambers was 89.8 μg m⁻² h⁻¹; the median,
229 maximum and minimum were 0.72, 990 and -25.6 μg m⁻² h⁻¹, respectively. The
230 coefficient of variation in integrated means across the 21 individual chambers was
231 300%. However, the distribution of the CH₄ 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 μg m⁻² h⁻¹, respectively.
237 However, by excluding the riparian zone chambers, the coefficient of variation was
238 only reduced to 284%. The N₂O fluxes were much smaller and more variable than the
239 CH₄ fluxes, and followed a more normal distribution. The mean, median, maximum
240 and minimum N₂O fluxes across all chambers were 0.99, -0.36, 9.91 and -4.25 μg m⁻²
241 h⁻¹, respectively. The coefficient of variation in integrated means was 410%.

242 Variables which showed significant ($P < 0.05$) or near-significant ($P < 0.10$)
243 differences across microtopographic/vegetative groups included pH, water table
244 depth, soil extractable NH₄ and DOC, soil solution DOC, NO₃ and NH₄ and soil
245 atmosphere CH₄, CO₂ and N₂O concentrations (Table 1). The Riparian chambers in
246 particular showed characteristics distinct from the other groups (Table 2), of which
247 the greatest difference was in pH; the mean pH across Riparian chambers was 5.83
248 compared to a mean of 4.18 for all other groups combined.

249 Over the full study period, only the Riparian chambers, when compared to
250 each alternative group separately, showed significantly different CH₄ fluxes ($P <$
251 0.01). CH₄ 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 CH₄ 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 CH₄ 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 CH₄ 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
275 types (Table 1).

276 The N₂O fluxes were more variable and approximately one order of magnitude
277 lower than CH₄ 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 N₂O 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
288 variability in CH₄ fluxes could be modelled with an r² of 0.81 (P < 0.01) using the
289 variables soil moisture and soil CH₄ concentration. When separated by season, soil
290 CH₄ 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 r² 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 CH₄
296 flux during growing season 2006 was well modelled (r² = 0.80), with emissions
297 increasing in response to a lower proportion of rushes, a decrease in the depth of the
298 water table and concentration of soil NO₃, and an increase in soil moisture, soil
299 solution DOC and below-ground CH₄ concentration (Table 3b). Variability in CH₄

300 emissions during the winter season was modeled ($r^2 = 0.36$, $P = 0.05$), with negative
301 correlations between CH₄ emission and soil respiration and soil solution DIC, and
302 positive correlations with percent moss cover and below-ground CH₄ concentration
303 (Table 3c). Lastly, the best model for emissions during growing season 2007 ($r^2 =$
304 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 CH₄ 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 CH₄ 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 CH₄ 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 N₂O emissions amongst all chambers over the full study
315 period, was best modeled using only soil respiration ($r^2 = 0.28$, $P < 0.01$). Excluding
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 N₂O concentration (Table 3a);
319 however neither pH nor below-ground N₂O concentration was individually significant
320 at the 95% confidence limit. Other variables which appeared in the seasonal models
321 included soil CO₂ concentration (winter season: $t = -3.66$, $P < 0.01$) and soil solution
322 DOC (growing season 2007: $t = 2.27$, $P < 0.05$).

323 *3.2. Temporal variability (Site 2)*

324 Temporal variability in CH₄ 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) Q₁₀ across all 9 chambers was 4.16 ± 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) Q₁₀ across the 9 chambers was 7.12
339 ± 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); N₂O 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.

346 **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 CH₄ and N₂O from April 2006
355 until October 2007 were 291 and 5.12 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, or 1.06 and 0.019 $\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{y}^{-1}$,
356 respectively. Ignoring the different groups and treating the chambers as replicates
357 gave mean fluxes for CH₄ and N₂O of 2156 and 23.6 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, respectively, or 171
358 and 12.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ if the riparian chambers were excluded. With the riparian
359 chambers included, treating the chambers as replicates significantly overestimated
360 CH₄ emissions, whilst excluding them led to an underestimation of emissions. N₂O
361 emissions were overestimated with or without the riparian chambers included. Both
362 CH₄ and N₂O 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 CH₄ production and
366 low nitrate availability restricting denitrification.

367 The riparian zone alone contributed ~12% of the total catchment CH₄
368 emission, highlighting the importance of identifying and including emission hotspots
369 in catchment budgets even if they cover only a small proportion of the overall area, a
370 result also found by McNamara et al. (2008). Even after separating the chambers into
371 groups to minimize spatial variability, the uncertainty within each group was still
372 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 CH₄ and N₂O 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 (CH₄ 2.86%, N₂O 0.97%).

379 *4.2. Controls on spatial variation*

380 Clear differences in CH₄ 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 N₂O 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 CH₄ emissions and below-ground CH₄ concentrations measured in the riparian
386 chambers. Although DOC, often quoted as the primary substrate for methanogenic
387 bacteria (Segers, 1998), was low in the riparian zone (247 µg C g⁻¹) compared to the
388 rest of the catchment (386 µg C g⁻¹), the pH was significantly higher (Riparian 5.83,
389 Catchment 4.81), hence closer to the methanogenic optima of ~7 (Segers, 1998).
390 Studies have repeatedly reported an increase in potential CH₄ 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 CH₄
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 CH₄ 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 CH₄ emission
407 than an instantaneous water table measurement. The effect of water table depth on
408 CH₄ 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 (15cm – 50
412 cm). Soil respiration represents a measure of aerobic microbial activity and thus is
413 likely to correlate strongly with rates of CH₄ oxidation, hence the negative correlation
414 with emissions during the winter season.

415 During the growing seasons CH₄ emissions were negatively correlated to the
416 frequency of either rushes or sedges inside the chambers (Table 3b and d). Although
417 contrary to much of the current literature which suggests the presence of aerenchyma
418 containing vegetation (i.e. rushes and sedges) increases emissions (Shannon et al.,
419 1996; Yu et al., 1997; Greenup et al., 2000), a similar result to that observed here was
420 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 O₂ 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 CH₄ flux model led to a decrease in
429 simulated CH₄ emissions, due to the increase in oxidation outweighing the positive
430 influence of increased CH₄ transport.

431 For emissions to increase via plant-mediated transport, roots must penetrate
432 areas of high CH₄ 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 CH₄ was present in the shallow peat for plant roots to tap
437 into. Roura-Carol and Freeman (1999) suggest that the radial loss of O₂ 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 CH₄ 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 N₂O 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 N₂O production. However the partitioning of
451 N₂O and N₂ is also influenced by pH with a higher proportion of N₂O in more acid
452 conditions (Šimek et al., 2002). Soil pH was also strongly negatively correlated with
453 both soil extractable NO₃ ($r = -0.61$, $P < 0.001$) and soil extractable NH₄ ($r = -0.75$, P
454 < 0.01) concentrations over the same period. Therefore the reduction of N₂O
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 CH₄ emissions appeared to be
460 soil moisture and soil temperature (Table 4a). The temporal response in CH₄
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 Q₁₀ 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
465 N₂O dynamics with a very high Q₁₀ of 7.12, and an apparent switch from
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

470 al. (in press), N₂O fluxes are low and variability high, so further work is required to
471 assess the significance of this switch.

472 Net CH₄ 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 CH₄ 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 CH₄ 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 CH₄ 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 CH₄ emissions during the 2 growing seasons. Upscaling the calculated fluxes using
504 vegetation cover estimates from a satellite image, gave mean catchment CH₄ and N₂O
505 emissions of 291 µg CH₄ m⁻² d⁻¹ and 5.12 µg N₂O m⁻² d⁻¹, although these values are
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.

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

517 **Acknowledgements**

518 The work was funded by the UK Natural Environment Research Council (NERC)
519 through an algorithm PhD studentship grant.

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663

664

665 **Table 1** Mean \pm SE of data from full study period, separated by chamber type. *P*-
 666 values from ANOVA's testing for significant between group differences are indicated
 667 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
CH ₄ (μg m ⁻² h ⁻¹)	8.12 ± 5.77	20.6 ± 24.3	2.30 ± 6.47	4.73 ± 6.52	586 ± 311
N ₂ O (μg m ⁻² h ⁻¹)	1.52 ± 3.34	-1.18 ± 1.49	2.02 ± 1.97	-0.68 ± 1.36	3.87 ± 1.35
Soil respiration (g m ⁻² h ⁻¹)	0.29 ± 0.04	0.24 ± 0.01	0.28 ± 0.02	0.37 ± 0.11	0.45 ± 0.06
Soil pH **	3.74 ± 0.01	4.54 ± 0.09	4.03 ± 0.12	4.41 ± 0.07	5.83 ± 0.28
Water table depth (cm) †	-20.7 ± 0.89	-18.5 ± 2.65	-27.2 ± 2.25	-27.8 ± 2.88	-23.4 ± 8.1
Soil moisture (m ³ m ⁻³)	0.85 ± 0.04	0.88 ± 0.02	0.85 ± 0.02	0.85 ± 0.02	0.88 ± 0.04
Soil extractable NO ₃ (μg N g ⁻¹)	5.08 ± 0.90	3.14 ± 1.05	4.38 ± 0.91	3.61 ± 0.45	4.57 ± 2.41
Soil extractable NH ₄ (μg N g ⁻¹) **	42.9 ± 0.95	18.0 ± 3.31	21.7 ± 2.76	18.9 ± 0.73	24.8 ± 10.5
Soil extractable DOC (μg C g ⁻¹) *	595 ± 56	301 ± 57	410 ± 59	239 ± 11	247 ± 154
Soil solution NO ₃ (mg N l ⁻¹) †	0.17 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.01	0.14 ± 0.01	0.15 ± 0.04
Soil solution NH ₄ (mg N l ⁻¹) **	0.58 ± 0.17	0.08 ± 0.01	0.23 ± 0.03	0.17 ± 0.03	0.14 ± 0.04
Soil solution DOC (mg C l ⁻¹) *	33.0 ± 5.67	17.0 ± 0.92	23.8 ± 2.09	22.6 ± 2.84	17.3 ± 1.38
Soil solution DIC (mg C l ⁻¹)	2.24 ± 0.20	2.59 ± 0.51	2.76 ± 0.28	2.70 ± 0.31	3.88 ± 1.06
Soil CH ₄ concentration (μl l ⁻¹) **	9.35 ± 5.27	5.52 ± 1.13	2.73 ± 0.29	3.13 ± 0.41	48.2 ± 31.7
Soil CO ₂ concentration (μl l ⁻¹) *	4490 ± 894	3850 ± 802	2680 ± 411	3150 ± 535	2890 ± 538
Soil N ₂ O concentration (μl l ⁻¹)	0.35 ± 0.01	0.36 ± 0.02	0.44 ± 0.05	0.44 ± 0.03	0.37 ± 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
672 is higher or lower in Riparian chambers.

Variable		F	P-value
CH ₄ flux	↑	18.55	< 0.01
Soil respiration	↑	3.94	< 0.01
pH	↑	52	< 0.01
Soil extracted DOC	↓	3.51	0.08
Soil solution DIC	↑	5.33	0.03
Soil CH ₄ concentration	↑	13.30	< 0.01

673 **Table 3** Results from best subset multiple regression model describing the spatial
 674 variation in CH₄ and N₂O fluxes with the riparian chambers excluded across a) the
 675 full dataset, b) growing season 2006, c) the winter season 2006-07 and d) growing
 676 season 2007.

CH ₄ flux			N ₂ O flux		
Variable	t	P	Variable	t	P
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	pH	-1.94	0.07
pH	2.39	0.03	Soil N ₂ 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	pH	-1.93	0.07
Water table depth	-2.52	0.03			
Soil moisture	6.04	< 0.01			
Extractable NO ₃	-3.54	< 0.01			
Soil solution DOC	2.65	0.02			
Soil CH ₄ 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 ₄ 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	pH	2.58	0.02
pH	2.07	0.02	Soil solution DOC	2.27	0.04
			Soil N ₂ O concentration	1.69	0.12

677 **Table 4** Results from best subset multiple regression model describing the temporal
 678 variation in CH₄ and N₂O 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 ₄ flux			N ₂ O flux		
Variable	t	P	Variable	t	P
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

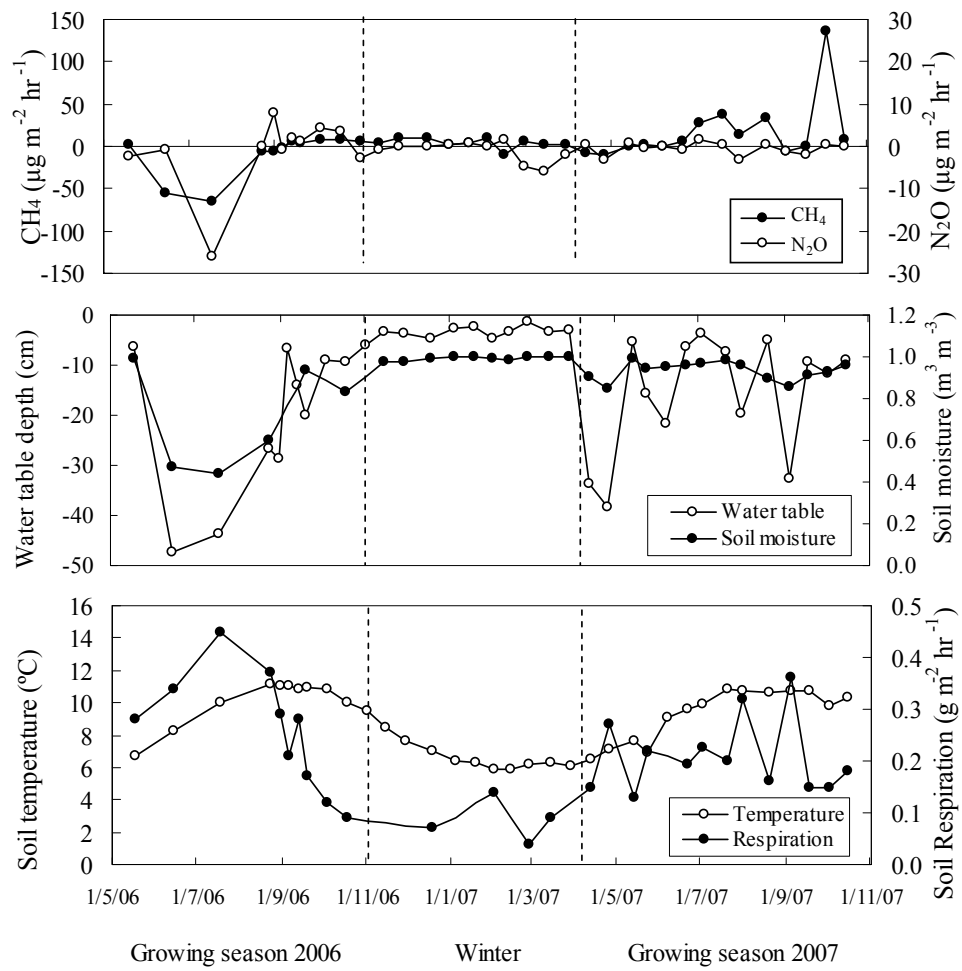
681 **Figure Legends**

682 **Figure 1** Time series of a) median CH₄ and N₂O fluxes from 9 chambers at site 2, b)
683 water table depth and soil moisture and c) soil temperature and respiration over the
684 study period. The dashed lines separate the study into growing season 2006, winter
685 period 2006-07 and growing season 2007, respectively

686 **Figure 2** Mean integrated CH₄ 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 ($P < 0.05$)

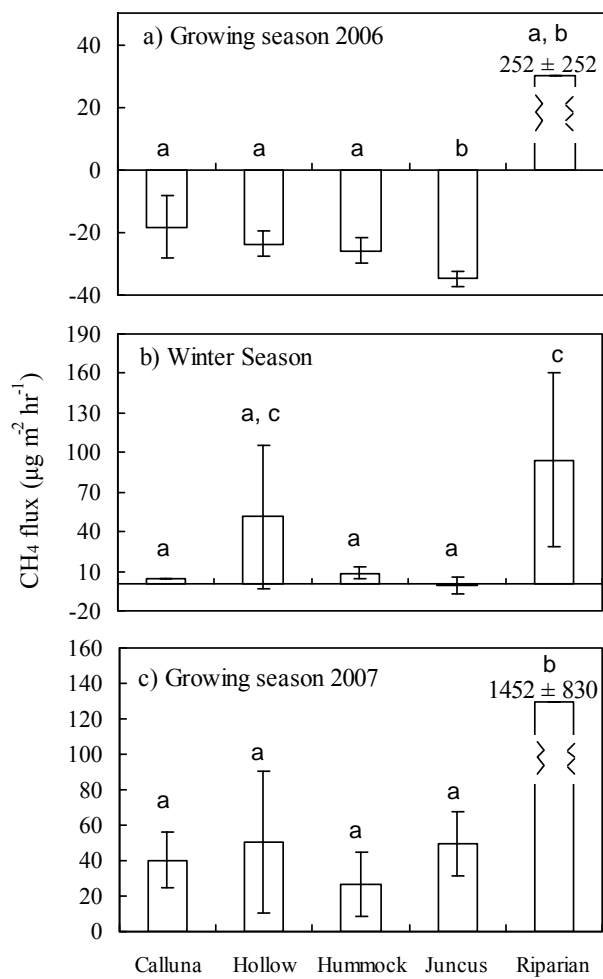
690 **Figure 3** Mean integrated N₂O flux during a) growing season 2006, b) winter period
691 2006-07 and c) growing season 2007, separated by microtopographic/vegetative
692 group. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean. Common letters indicate
693 statistically similar fluxes ($P < 0.10$)

694 Figure 1



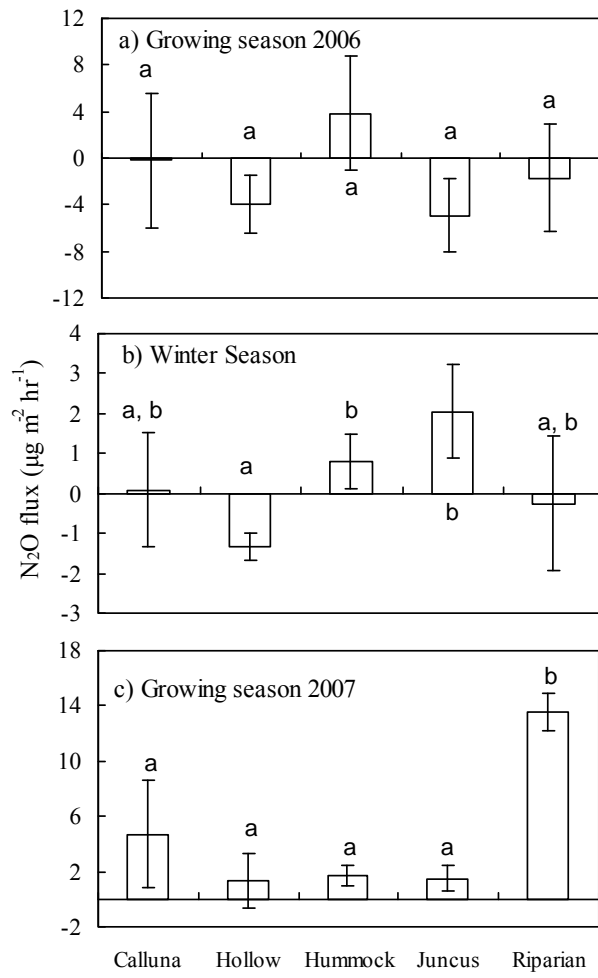
695

696 Figure 2
697



698

699 Figure 3



700