UC Santa Barbara

UC Santa Barbara Previously Published Works

Title

Higher Apparent Gas Transfer Velocities for CO_2 Compared to CH_4 in Small Lakes.

Permalink https://escholarship.org/uc/item/3c16j2sz

Journal Environmental science & technology, 57(23)

ISSN 0013-936X

Authors

Pajala, Gustav Rudberg, David Gålfalk, Magnus <u>et al.</u>

Publication Date 2023-06-01

DOI

10.1021/acs.est.2c09230

Copyright Information

This work is made available under the terms of a Creative Commons Attribution License, available at <u>https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/</u>

Peer reviewed



pubs.acs.org/est

Higher Apparent Gas Transfer Velocities for CO₂ Compared to CH₄ in Small Lakes

Gustav Pajala,* David Rudberg, Magnus Gålfalk, John Michael Melack, Sally Macintyre, Jan Karlsson, Henrique Oliveira Sawakuchi, Jonathan Schenk, Anna Sieczko, Ingrid Sundgren, Nguyen Thanh Duc, and David Bastviken*



these results, we infer that several gas-specific factors, including chemical and biological processes within the water surface microlayer, can influence apparent k estimates. We highlight the importance of accurately measuring relevant air—water gas concentration gradients and considering gas-specific processes when estimating k.

KEYWORDS: carbon dioxide, methane, lake, gas transfer, greenhouse gas, piston velocity

1. INTRODUCTION

Lakes cover less than 2% of the terrestrial surface area¹ and are estimated to emit carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄) in notable amounts with respect to the continental greenhouse gas exchange.^{2,3} Transport of dissolved gases across the water surface to the atmosphere constitutes the main pathway for lake emission of CO₂ and is also a major flux pathway for CH₄. The exchange of dissolved gases (Flux (*F*); mol m⁻² d⁻¹; units provided here and below are examples) between air and water depends on the concentration gradient expressed as the difference between the surface water gas concentration (C_w; mol m⁻³) and the gas concentration in equilibrium with the air (C_{air}; mol m⁻³), and the gas transfer velocity (*k*; m d⁻¹), according to eq 1,

1.7 times) normalized apparent k values for CO_2 than CH_4 . From

$$F = k \times (C_{\rm w} - C_{\rm air}) \tag{1}$$

Flux measurements by floating chambers (FCs) or eddy covariance have been used together with measurements of C_w and C_{air} to calculate k from eq 1, yielding local apparent k estimates.^{4–7} There has also been several attempts to develop general k models, predicting k from external drivers.^{8–11} A common assumption is that k can be converted between gases of interest if the key thermodynamic properties of the dissolved

gases (i.e., the ratio of the kinematic viscosity and mass diffusivity, expressed through the "Schmidt number") are considered.¹⁰ Usually, *k*-values are normalized to a Schmidt number of 600 (k_{600}), corresponding to *k* for CO₂ at 20 °C. This Schmidt normalization procedure was derived for ideal well-defined *k* values considered predictable from fundamental physical principles. However, the apparent *k* used for estimating gas fluxes in nature is influenced by many factors,¹² such as turbulence within the water column,^{9,11} physical mechanisms,¹³ biological and chemical mechanisms,^{14,15} or methodological uncertainties,^{16,17} that all determine how well-defined and accurate the apparent *k* becomes.

Recently, mismatches between apparent k_{600} for CO₂ and CH₄ in lakes and other aquatic systems have been observed.^{4,5,7,13,18–20} In some cases, higher k_{600} were found

Received:December 6, 2022Revised:May 12, 2023Accepted:May 15, 2023Published:May 30, 2023



💽 😳 💽

Article



| | Тa | ble | 1. | Lake | Characteristics | for | OBJ, | SOR, | BOL, | and | SOD ⁴ |
|--|----|-----|----|------|-----------------|-----|------|------|------|-----|------------------|
|--|----|-----|----|------|-----------------|-----|------|------|------|-----|------------------|

| system | OI | 3J | SC |)R | ВС | JL | SC | D |
|-----------------------|-------------|--------|--------------|--------|------------|--------|-----------|--------|
| coordinates | Ν | E | Ν | Е | Ν | E | Ν | E |
| | 64.122 | 18.785 | 58.723 | 16.084 | 58.781 | 16.154 | 58.339 | 16.023 |
| area (km²) | 0.05 | | 0.21 | | 0.48 | | 0.69 | |
| average depth (m) | 4 | | 4.4 | | 7.2 | | 1.8 | |
| maximum depth (m) | 9 | | 9 | | 14 | | 3.4 | |
| pН | 4.0 | | 6.8 | | 7.2 | | 7.8 | |
| DOC (mg L^{-1}) | 22 | | 21.5 | | 10.9 | | 14.7 | |
| TN (mg L^{-1}) | 0.5 | | 0.95 | | 0.6 | | 1.5 | |
| TP ($\mu g L^{-1}$) | 19 | | 10 | | 12 | | 323 | |
| trophic/humic status | mesotrophic | /humic | oligotrophic | /humic | mesotrophi | c | eutrophic | |

^{*a*}Water chemistry data for OBJ from Klaus et al.²¹ and MacIntyre et al.¹¹ Water chemistry for SOR, BOL, and SOD was sampled near the surface (0.1-0.5 m depth) during the ice-free season in 2020. DOC, TN, and TP denote dissolved organic carbon, total nitrogen, and total phosphorous, respectively. Trophic status is based on calculations from Carlson,²² using TP.

for CH₄ than for CO₂, attributed to CH₄ microbubble formation and transport.^{13,18} This explanation is linked to the assumption that gases with low solubility form or enter microbubbles that move faster across the water surface boundary layer than dissolved gases, but its importance for CH₄ depends on circumstantial indications. In one other case, higher k_{600} for CO₂ than for CH₄ were observed, which could be attributed to hydrodynamic and processes in the surface boundary layer that favors production and transport of CO₂,⁷ but the importance and general validity of this explanation for the k_{600} difference between CO₂ and CH₄ is also unclear. Further, for both these types of observations, there may be other, not yet widely discussed, potential explanations (details in the Discussion).

The incompatibility between apparent k_{600} for CO₂ and CH₄ generates questions regarding the assumption that apparent kdetermined for one gas can be easily converted to k for another gas via physical properties. If apparent k estimates are not directly comparable across gases, the general use of models to determine k beyond the physicochemical domains and the specific gas(es) represented by the measurements behind the model can be questioned. All of this could undermine the global estimates of gas emissions which are dependent on such models, and the interpretation of apparent k and comparability of apparent k_{600} among gases are challenged by the above discrepancies. In this study, we investigate differences in apparent k_{600} for CO₂ and CH₄ in four lakes, with different nutrient and dissolved organic carbon concentrations and discuss possible mechanisms for gas-specific variations in apparent k_{600} . We hypothesized contrasting k_{600} for CO₂ and CH_4 and that the k_{600} ratio between CO_2 and CH_4 would differ depending on lake characteristics (trophic status).

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Study Areas. Empirical data were collected in four lakes (Table 1): Övre Björntjärn (OBJ; Aug. 21–24, 2012), Sörsjön (SOR; Oct. 31, 2019), Bolen (BOL; Nov. 1, 2019), and Södra Teden (SOD; Nov. 1, 2019). OBJ is a small boreal and humic lake located in northern Sweden with an inlet draining a catchment of mires and coniferous forests.^{11,21} SOR, BOL, and SOD are oligo-, meso-, and eutrophic lakes, respectively, located in southern Sweden. Their catchments consist of coniferous and deciduous forests, and BOL and SOD are adjacent to small urban areas (about 500 inhabitants).

2.2. Measurements. 2.2.1. Gas Flux. Gas fluxes were measured using FCs, similar to those used in Natchimuthu et al.²³ The FCs consisted of plastic buckets with an opening of $0.062-0.075 \text{ m}^2$ facing the water surface and volumes of 5.4–8.6 L, depending on the model used. FCs were covered with reflective aluminum tape to minimize internal heating and had floats attached to the outer edges such that the edges penetrated 2–3 cm below the water surface. In previous studies, this FC design yielded flux estimates similar to other methods that do not interfere with the water surface.^{24,25}

In OBJ, 5-6 FCs were deployed simultaneously for 15-30 min. FC deployments were made 1-3 times per day over 4 days, usually between 11:00 and 14:00, and one day between 20:45 and 21:00, yielding 37 individual FC deployments. Sampling of 30 mL gas from inside the chamber was made every 10-30 min during 30-minute-long deployments by syringe sampling via a 50 cm long polyurethane tube (inner and outer diameter of 3 and 5 mm, respectively) at the top of each chamber. This resulted in 2-4 samples for each FC deployment (13 deployments with two samples, 11 deployments with three samples, and 8 deployments with four samples). Samples were analyzed within 24 h on a greenhouse gas analyzer (LGR DLT 100, Los Gatos Research Inc. USA) equipped with a custom-made syringe injection system. Regressions between FC headspace concentrations and time generated the rate of gas accumulation in each FC (ppm d^{-1}). Data were discarded when the regression R^2 for gas accumulation of either CO₂ or CH₄ was below 0.9 or if the data indicated leakage or sample handling errors (5 out of 37 measurements were discarded in total). After processing the data, 32 pairs of CO₂ and CH₄ accumulation rates were obtained.

In SOR, BOL, and SOD, one FC was deployed for repeated continuous measurements of gas flux for 10-16 min. Measurements were made by connecting the top of the FC to two polyurethane tubes, which were inserted to the inlet and outlet of an ultra-portable greenhouse gas analyzer (UGGA; Los Gatos Research Inc. USA). The FC connected to the UGGA was left floating freely on the water surface, see Figure S1. Between each measurement, the FC was lifted for ventilating it, allowing concentrations of CO₂ and CH₄ to reach background atmospheric concentrations. This provided data for a total of 16 individual FC deployments: seven in SOR, four in BOL, and five in SOD (no measurements were discarded). At least the first 60 s of gas accumulation was removed to allow time for mixing between the FC headspace

and the UGGA measurement cell. Ten-second (0.1 Hz) data were used in regressions for gas accumulation rates (ppm d⁻¹) for a time interval set as the minimum time needed for a gas concentration increase rate with an $R^2 > 0.7$ to be established (between 40 and 100 s of data; R^2 threshold slightly lower than for OBJ above to account for the random noise in gas spectrometry). Gas fluxes were calculated from the gas accumulation rates in the chambers and the ideal gas law according to Rudberg et al.²⁶ (See Supporting Information, Text S1 for detailed information.)

2.2.2. Dissolved CO₂ Concentration. In SOR, BOL, and SOD, C_{wCO2} was sampled through a headspace extraction technique (e.g., Cole et al.²⁷). Near-surface water was collected with a Ruttner sampler deployed horizontally at ~0.1 m. The outlet tube of the Ruttner sampler was inserted at the bottom of a 1.2 L plastic bottle and water was transferred, overflowing the bottle with at least two times the bottle volume. Then, the bottle was capped with a rubber stopper pierced by a long and a short polyurethane tube (inner and outer diameters of 3 and 5 mm), reaching the bottom of the bottle and the end of the stopper, respectively, each connected to closed 3-way luer-lock valves at the outer end. After connecting a 60 mL syringe (Becton-Dickinson) filled with atmospheric air to the short tube and connecting an empty 60 mL syringe to the long tube, air was pushed into the bottle via the short tube, while the added pressure pushed out a similar amount of water through the long tube, filling the empty syringe. The bottle was shaken for two minutes to equilibrate gases between the headspace and the water. The equilibrated headspace air was then extracted by the inverse procedure and transferred to evacuated vials. Separate air samples were collected to correct for initial CO_2 in the headspace.

For 21 of the flux measurements in OBJ, surface water gas concentrations of CO_2 (C_{wCO2}) were derived from separate chambers (here termed as equilibration chambers) equipped with CO₂ sensors (Senseair K33 ELG, Sweden) according to Bastviken et al.²⁸ Equilibration chambers were deployed for 24 h prior to flux measurements, allowing CO₂ concentrations in the chamber headspace to equilibrate with the water underneath. Equilibration chambers were placed next to the FCs used for flux measurements to minimize differences in spatial variability between measurements of CO₂ flux and $C_{\rm wCO2}$. To make sure that the equilibration chambers provided reliable measures for C_{wCO2} , snapshot samples for C_{wCO2} were collected using a headspace extraction technique described above. Parallel measurements with the equilibrated chambers and the headspace extraction technique of water samples differed by less than 5%.¹¹ For the additional 11 flux measurements in OBJ, CO₂ concentrations were measured with a common syringe headspace extraction technique by extracting 40 mL of water at ~0.1 m depth and 20 mL of air with a 60 mL syringe. The sample was equilibrated by shaking, and the resulting headspace gas was transferred to a dry syringe and analyzed within 120 min. Separate air samples were collected to correct for initial CO₂ in the headspace.

2.2.3. Dissolved CH_4 Concentration. Dissolved CH_4 (C_{wCH4}) was sampled using two approaches: for SOR, BOL, SOD, and for 21 of the flux measurements in OBJ, water was sampled next to the FCs at ~0.1 m depth using a 10 mL plastic syringe (Becton-Dickinson). The sampled volume was adjusted to 5 mL and transferred to a 22 mL N₂-filled glass vial (Agilent) containing 0.1 mL 85% H₃PO₄ and sealed with a butyl rubber stopper and aluminum crimp. The initial

overpressure of N_2 was removed prior to injection to adjust the vial pressure to ambient conditions. The acid preserved the sample and allowed the storage of CH_4 until analysis.

For the remaining 11 flux measurements in OBJ, water concentrations were sampled similarly to what was described in Section 2.2.2 for the additional 11 dissolved CO_2 concentration samples, with a common syringe headspace extraction technique.

2.2.4. Atmospheric Pressure and Wind Speed. At OBJ, atmospheric pressure and wind speed were measured at 10 m height from a meteorological station located 300 m north-east of the lake using an Onset S-WCA-M003 and an Onset S-BPB-CM50, respectively.¹⁸ For SOR, BOL, and SOD, atmospheric pressure and wind speed at 10 m were obtained from the Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute (SMHI) MESAN model. The model interpolates measurements from nearby weather stations combined with a meteorological model to estimate hourly means on a 2.5 × 2.5 km grid.²⁹ Although MESAN estimates wind speed at 10 m height, previous results from two lakes showed reasonable agreement between hourly MESAN values and wind speed measured at lake level ($R^2 = 0.65 - 0.74$).²⁶

2.3. Analysis of Dissolved Gas. The samples in vials from all lakes were analyzed by gas chromatography (Agilent 7890) with a Poropak Q column and FID detection connected to a headspace autosampler (Agilent 7697 headspace sampler). Samples in syringes from OBJ were analyzed in the field on the Los Gatos DLT100 greenhouse gas analyzer as described above. Water concentrations were calculated using the partial pressures (the measured mixing ratio times the barometric pressure) combined with (i) the ideal gas law to calculate the amount of the gas in the headspace $(n_{\rm h}; \text{ mol})$ and (ii) the temperature adjusted Henry's law³⁰ to calculate the residual gas in the water within the vial/syringe (n_{aq} ; mol). The sum of $n_{\rm h}$ and $n_{\rm ac}$, after subtracting the background target gas amount in the gas forming the headspace $(N_2 \text{ in vials and atmospheric})$ air in the syringe extractions), divided with the volume of the water sample extracted yielded target gas concentrations. For CO₂, we accounted for shifts in the carbonic acid equilibrium during equilibration according to Koschorreck et al.¹⁷ and Rudberg et al.²⁶

2.4. Calculating k_{600} . We used paired gas flux and concentration measurements of CO₂ and CH₄ to derive k from eq 1. These values were then converted to a standardized k with the same Schmidt number of 600 (k_{600}), i.e., the relationship between the kinematic viscosity of water divided by the diffusion coefficient of gas normalized to CO₂ at 20 °C,¹⁰ to allow comparison of gases¹² according to eq 2:

$$k_{600} = k_{\rm is} \times \left(\frac{600}{Sc_{\rm is}}\right)^{-n} \tag{2}$$

where k_{is} and Sc_{is} are k and Schmidt numbers in situ, 600 is the reference Schmidt number, and n is a variable that is linked to the roughness of the water surface. Similar to other studies^{4–7} and according to Jähne et al.¹² and Liss and Merlivat,³¹ we have used a value for n of $^2/_3$ and $^1/_2$ in conditions when wind speeds, either measured at 10 m or corrected to a height of 10 m, were below and above 3.6 m s⁻¹, respectively.

2.5. Statistical Analysis. Parameters and R^2 , adjusted to the number of observations (n) and predictor variables (p), according to eq 3, were derived from Ordinary Least Squares regression for linear relationships and from direct curve-fitting

in Python v.3.7 (scipy.optimize.curve_fit) for exponential relationships, where the latter estimates the parameters without log-transformation to not bias large x-values.

Adjusted
$$R^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2) \times \frac{n - 1}{n - p}$$
 (3)

Adjusted R^2 values according to eq 3 are in the following sections, including text and figures, referred to as R^2 . Since k_{600} data violated terms for parametric tests by not being normally distributed, the non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank (S-R) test and the Kruskal–Wallis analysis of variance rank test were performed in IBM SPSS statistics 28 to test for differences in k_{600} values for CO₂ and CH₄. We considered *p*-values below 0.05 as statistically significant to reject null-hypotheses in statistical tests and regressions.

3. RESULTS

All surface waters were supersaturated with CO₂ and CH₄, with water to air concentration ratios (C_w/C_{air}) ranging from 3.0 to 5.5 for CO₂ and from 95 to 335 for CH₄. C_{wCO2} and C_{wCH4} ranged from 70 to 118 and from 0.39 to 1.38 μ mol L⁻¹, respectively. This variability was mostly due to differences between lakes whereas within-lake variability in C_{wCH4} and C_{wCO2} was small (within-lake CV: 2–31% and 2–11% for C_{wCH4} and C_{wCO2} , respectively; Figure S2a). The measured fluxes ranged from 4 to 132 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ and 0.02 to 0.98 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ for CO₂ and CH₄, respectively, with the highest fluxes observed in OBJ (Figure S2b). Fluxes of CO₂ and CH₄ were highly related (p < 0.001, $R^2 = 0.91$; Figure S2b). The relationship was mainly driven by OBJ data where a greater flux range was observed, but it was also significant when OBJ data were excluded (p < 0.05, $R^2 = 0.43$).

Values of k_{600} ranged between 0.12 and 2.24 m d⁻¹ for CO₂ and between 0.08 and 1.84 m d⁻¹ for CH₄ (Figure 1), with an



Figure 1. Plot of apparent gas transfer velocities normalized to a Schmidt number of 600, derived for $\text{CO}_2(k_{600\text{CO}2})$ and $\text{CH}_4(k_{600\text{CH}4})$ for lakes OBJ (blue circles), BOL (green triangles), SOD (orange squares), and SOR (brown crosses). The dashed line shows a 1:1 relation, where values above and below this line denote higher k_{600} for CO_2 and CH_4 , respectively. The inset panel shows the smallest *k*-values and the dashed 1:1 line for clarity.

overall mean and median k_{600} ratio (k_{600CO2}/k_{600CH4}) of 1.68 ± 0.77 (mean ± 1 standard deviation) and 1.37, respectively, with only small differences in mean values between the lakes (OBJ = 1.67 ± 0.75 m d⁻¹, SOR = 1.72 ± 0.76 m d⁻¹). BOL = 1.52 ± 0.24 m d⁻¹, and SOD = 1.76 ± 1.07 m d⁻¹). This confirms the first part of our hypothesis that k_{600} for CO₂ and CH₄ would differ (p < 0.001). However, the second part of our hypothesis, that lake trophic status would influence the CO₂/ CH₄ k_{600} ratio, was not verified as this ratio was similar among the studied lakes (p > 0.05).

We observed that k_{600CO2} and k_{600CH4} were exponentially related to wind speed, which ranged from <0.4 to 3.9 m s⁻¹ in OBJ and from 1.2 to 1.7 m s⁻¹ elsewhere ($R^2 = 0.69$ to 0.75; Figure 2a; the relationship is primarily generated by OBJ data,



Figure 2. Regressions between wind speed at 10 m height (U₁₀) and (a) apparent gas transfer velocities normalized to Schmidt number 600 for CH₄ (k_{600CH4} ; red) and CO₂ (k_{600CO2} ; blue), and (b) apparent k_{600} -ratio (k_{600CO2}/k_{600CH4}). Different symbols represent different lakes: OBJ (circles), BOL (triangles), SOD (squares), and SOR (crosses). Gray area highlights where $k_{600CO2} < k_{600CH4}$.

where the wind speed range was greatest). There was no clear unidirectional relationship between wind speed and the k_{600} ratio for CO₂ and CH₄ (Figure 2b). The k_{600} ratio was negatively and positively linked to CO₂ and CH₄ saturation (gas concentration in the water divided by the theoretical concentration in equilibrium with the atmospheric partial pressure), respectively (Figure S3). Such trends were weak, yet significant considering all lakes combined (CO₂; p < 0.05, $R^2 =$ 0.12, CH₄; p < 0.01, $R^2 = 0.20$), and driven mainly by the OBJ lake data (CO₂; p < 0.001, $R^2 = 0.32$, CH₄; p < 0.001, $R^2 =$ 0.64).

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. Comparisons with Previous Studies. Our mean and median apparent k_{600} ratios for lakes, showing higher k_{600CO2} by a factor of 1.7 and 1.4 compared to k_{600CH4} , are consistent with one other study, suggesting that apparent k_{600CO2} exceeded k_{600CH4} .⁷ More specifically, Rosentreter et al.⁷ observed mean and median values for $k_{600} \sim 2.8$ and 1.6 times greater for CO₂ compared to CH₄ in a mangrove estuary. In contrast, observations from some other studies report higher apparent k_{600} for CH₄ than for CO₂ (Table 2). Prairie and del Giorgio, ¹³ McGinnis et al.,¹⁸ and Rantakari et al.¹⁹ found higher k_{600} for CH₄ in 90–100% of their measurements, compared to 10 and 17% of the measurements in our study and Rosentreter et al.,⁷ respectively. These mixed results indicate variability in k_{600} between gases, among systems and conditions for reasons not yet understood.

The results seem to indicate a hump-shaped relationship between the k_{600} ratio and wind speed (Figure 2b). The results indicate that differences in k_{600} between CO₂ and CH₄ can be substantial even at low wind speeds in both estuaries⁷ and lakes and could be larger at intermediate wind speeds for unknown reasons. If correct, it can be speculated that some of the mechanisms behind differences in k_{600} for CO₂ and CH₄ could have more effect at intermediate wind and intermediate k, while at higher wind speeds other factors become more important for gas flux and reduce the k_{600} differences. It is worth noting that other processes and factors other than wind influence $k^{10,11}$ and that the relationships shown in (Figure 2) should not be considered generally valid.

| | | C_{aq} met | hod | | | k ₆₀₀ (m d⁻ | -1) | |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------|--------|-----------------|------|------------------------|------|-----------------|
| | | | | CO ₂ | | CH_4 | | |
| source | systems | CO ₂ | CH_4 | min | max | min | max | $\rm CO_2/CH_4$ |
| McGinnis et al. ¹⁸ | temperate lake | Eq | Eq | 1.97 | 7.2 | 3.7 | 22 | 0.4 |
| Paranaiba et al. ⁶ | three tropical reservoirs | Eq | Eq | 0.1 | 7.9 | 0.2 | 19.1 | 0.4 |
| Prairie and del Giorgio ¹³ | boreal reservoir and lakes | Eq | Hs | 0.1 | 9.3 | 0.1 | 25 | 0.43 |
| Rantakari et al. ¹⁹ | two boreal lakes | Hs | Hs | 0.5 | 3.4 | 1.1 | 14.5 | 0.56 |
| Rosentreter et al. ²⁰ | six mangrove estuaries | Eq | Eq | 1 | 24 | 1 | 28 | 0.83 |
| Beaulieu et al. ⁵ | temperate river | Hs | Hs | 0.2 | 13.7 | 0.4 | 16.8 | < 1 |
| Guérin et al. ⁴ | tropical reservoir | Hs | Hs | 0.05 | 1.9 | 0.1 | 2.2 | 1.16 |
| This study | four boreal lakes | Hs, Eq ^b | Hs | 0.1 | 2.4 | 0.1 | 2 | 1.68 |
| Rosentreter et al. ⁷ | mangrove river estuary | Eq | Hs | 0.3 | 48 | 0.02 | 16 | 2.78 |

Table 2. Examples of Results from Studies Comparing k_{600} for CO₂ and CH₄ in Order of Lower to Higher k_{600CO2}/k_{600CH4} Ratios^{*a*}

^{*a*}Eq and Hs denote measurements with flow through equilibrator and headspace extraction techniques, respectively, for surface water concentrations. The equilibrated chambers technique includes headspace extraction in floating chambers allowed to equilibrate. ^{*b*}Equilibrated chambers were used in 21 of the samples from OBJ, and headspace extraction was used in the remaining 11 samples from OBJ and in SOR, BOL, and SOD.

4.2. Possible Explanations for Differences in k_{600} among Gases. The mixed results from previous studies, where some observe higher k_{600CO2} and others higher k_{600CH4} , can be due to mechanisms specific to either CH₄, CO₂, or to both gases. To highlight how specific mechanisms may influence k for CH₄ and CO₂, we discuss these mechanisms separately in the subsections below. Mechanisms related to the sampling methods are discussed in the section "Methodological reasons for gas k_{600} differences". A summary of the mechanisms discussed can be found in Figure 3 and Table 3.



Figure 3. Conceptual figure for potential effect of chemical reactivity and degradation processes in the surface microlayer on concentration gradients of CO₂ (blue dashed line) in relation to assumed concentration gradients for CO₂ or CH₄ without CO₂ reactivity (solid lines in blue and red, respectively) in waters supersaturated with both CO₂ and CH₄. Please note that our intention with the figure is to present processes that contributes to the increase of apparent k_{600} for CO₂ relative to CH₄, hence relating to the findings from our empirical measurements. Therefore, we chose not to include processes in the figure that have the opposite effect, i.e., enhancing apparent k_{600} for CH₄, e.g., by the contribution of microbubbles or other processes that may be the result of sampling bias.

4.2.1. Potential Mechanisms Leading to Higher Estimated k_{600} for CH₄ than for CO₂. 4.2.1.1. Microbubble Flux. Several studies reporting higher k_{600CH4} than k_{600CO2} considered the possibility of microbubble flux.^{5,13,18} Due to the buoyancy of bubbles, allowing faster transport of dissolved gases, microbubbles could favor the transport of gases with low water solubility, resulting in higher apparent k for low-compared to high-soluble gases.

Microbubble flux, enhancing k for CH₄, has also been suggested to be positively linked to the level of CH₄ supersaturation.¹³ Although dissolved CH₄ concentrations in

freshwater systems are usually supersaturated relative to atmospheric partial pressures (in the order of 2 μ atm), the surface water concentrations are far from supersaturated relative to pure CH_4 (1 atm). Therefore, it is not realistic that the CH₄ itself should form microbubbles in surface water. However, microbubbles based on other gases can form due to entrainment of air in breaking waves in turbulent aquatic environments³² and can remain entrained for several days.³³ Breaking waves and whitecap formation at wind speeds of 2-3m s⁻¹ has been suggested even at large-fetch systems.³⁴ The studies conducted by McGinnis et al.¹⁸ and Rosentreter et al.²⁰ are, to our knowledge, the only freshwater studies that identified relations between potential freshwater microbubble flux and wind speed or current velocity. In contrast, studies conducted by Rantakari et al.¹⁹ and Prairie and del Giorgio¹³ that suggest higher k_{600CH4} than k_{600CO2} , did not observe such patterns. Studies by Beaulieu et al.⁵ and Paranaiba et al.,⁶ also suggesting higher k_{600CH4} than k_{600CO2} , did not test for the above relationships. When it comes to our study, we did not experience any conditions with breaking waves or whitecap formation while sampling, thus limiting the potential of microbubble flux contribution.

Microbubbles, regardless of the formation mechanism, could transport all supersaturated gases, i.e., not only CH_4 but also CO_2 and other gases. The relative microbubble transport rates could be solubility dependent as suggested (favoring the transport of CH_4 over CO_2), but given the higher transfer rates of supersaturated CO_2 from water into a headspace (Figure S4), significant transport of CO_2 or other soluble gases via microbubbles cannot be excluded. Moreover, Beaulieu et al.⁵ observed no significant differences between k for CH_4 and nitrous oxide (N₂O) (t-test, p = 0.52), although solubility of N₂O is similar to CO_2 and would be expected to have lower k than CH_4 if microbubble flux was occurring and was solubility dependent.

Our results may indicate that k_{600CH4} relative to k_{600CO2} decrease with CH₄ supersaturation (Section 3; Figure S2b), and our calculations on the potential microbubble flux (F_{mb}), according to Prairie and del Giorgio¹³ (Text S2), show negligible effects on the enhancement of k for CH₄. This does not support previous suggestions on microbubble formation and gas transport in boreal lakes¹³ and shows that the relationship between microbubble flux and enhanced k for

| $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$ |
|--|
| app. k_{600CH4} if there is c > app. of CH ₄ i k_{600C02} |
| app. k_{600CH4} if there is 1 > app. CO ₂ is c k_{600CO2} |
| app. k_{600CH4} chemical e < app. this prov k_{600C02} |
| app. k_{600CH4} for cases w < app. concentr k_{600CO2} underesti |
| nents app. k_{600CH4} if gas concet > app. the CH ₄ (k_{600CO2} |
| $_{2}$ is app. k_{600CH4} if not accountions < app. will be untions k_{600CO2} |
| $_{2}$ is app. k_{600CH4} if not accoutions > app. will be ov k_{600CO2} |
| locity normalized to the Schr. s in the table is discussed furth in Section 4.2 to the studies t |

 CH_4 needs further consideration. Based on the abovementioned discussion, it is clear that the microbubble hypothesis, as an explanation for enhanced k for CH_4 relative to k for CO_2 , is not generally applicable and instead context dependent. The extent to which microbubbles influence apparent k_{600} for different gases is therefore still an open question. Some of the alternative explanations outlined below may in many situations be more likely when explaining differences in k_{600} among gases.

4.2.1.2. Oxic Surface Water CH₄ Production. CH₄ can be produced in waters under oxic conditions,^{35,36} and there is support for such production associated with photosynthesis by cyanobacteria and other mechanisms. The extent of this surface water CH₄ production is debated, but if it occurs close to the water surface, it could contribute to CH₄ being formed in the surface boundary layer, making the real concentration gradient steeper than measured from deeper sampling, and leading to overestimating the apparent k_{600CH4} when estimating k from concentration measurements below the boundary layer.

4.2.1.3. High Surface Primary Production. Under some conditions, e.g., severe light limitation caused by algal blooms, it is possible (albeit unlikely—see "Surface microfilm processes" below) that the majority of the primary production may be restricted to the uppermost (few centimeters) of the water, resulting in limited productivity below this layer.³⁷ This in turn could lead to elevated CO₂ consumption near the water surface, and C_{wCO2} sampled some cm or deeper below the water surface may not represent the real C_{wCO2} driving the CO₂ gas exchange. In such cases, C_{wCO2} could be overestimated yielding underestimation of k_{600CO2} , resulting in a higher apparent k_{600CH4} than k_{600CO2} . This explanation illustrates a case of method bias if gas concentration measurements do not represent the actual concentration gradient shaping the gas fluxes.

4.2.2. Potential Mechanisms Leading to Higher k_{600} for CO_2 than for CH_4 . 4.2.2.1. Chemical Reactivity. In contrast to dissolved CH₄, CO₂ has two ways to pass the water-side boundary layer at the water-atmosphere interface. One way, which is shared with other gases, is via molecular diffusion. In addition, CO₂ can react with the water and form bicarbonate or carbonate ions. Accordingly, a part of the CO_2 can diffuse through the water boundary layer as bicarbonate (Figure 3). This generates a second way for CO₂ to cross the wateratmosphere interface that is not shared by dissolved CH₄. At high pH, which is common in lakes with high primary productivity and low inorganic carbon concentrations, this is well acknowledged as chemical enhancement.^{15,21} However, at low pH, when the carbonic acid equilibrium system favors a dominance of CO₂ as the net result of equilibrium reactions, there is still a continuous formation of bicarbonate that could potentially contribute to the transport of CO₂ across the surficial boundary layer. As a part of this mechanism and in the case with CO2-supersaturated waters, loss of CO2 through emissions to the atmosphere will shift the inorganic carbon equilibrium balance in the surface water boundary layer to convert more bicarbonate to CO2, which leads to a higher resupply of CO_2 in the layer where the actual loss to the atmosphere occurs. This dual mechanism for passage across the diffusive boundary layer differs from gases not reacting with the water (such as CH₄). Thereby, water samples taken below the boundary layer may underestimate the concentration gradient of CO_2 and in turn overestimate k_{600} for CO_2 in relation to gases such as CH_4 (Figure 3). A higher reactivity for

 CO_2 compared to CH_4 in the surficial boundary layer, that is not limited to conditions of high pH, might explain the higher apparent *k*-values of CO_2 that we observed during conditions of CO_2 supersaturation, and similar observations being consistent with this explanation have also been obtained in CO_2 -supersaturated parts of estuaries.

4.2.2.2. Surface Microfilm Processes Stimulating CO₂ Production. The surface microfilm at the air-water interface of water bodies is often enriched in nutrients, particulate and dissolved carbon, phytoplankton, and microbes.³⁸⁻⁴⁰ This is a zone where photochemical processes can degrade dissolved organic matter to CO₂ and labile compounds, providing additional substrate for microbes⁴¹⁻⁴⁴ (Figure 3). This is also a zone where photoinhibition may reduce primary production^{37,45,46} and where buoyant particles aggregate and are respired, which enhances net production of CO₂ (Figure 3). Hence, C_{wCO2} measurements a few centimeters into the water may underestimate the C_{wCO2} and in such cases k_{600CO2} will be overestimated and the apparent result would be that k_{600CO2} is greater than k_{600CH4} .

Biological and chemical processes in ocean surface microlayers have been suggested to influence $k_{600}^{14,47-49}$ but to our knowledge their effect on k_{600} in inland waters is largely unknown. A study using FCs in the tropical Atlantic Ocean found mismatches in k_{600} between CH₄, carbon monoxide (CO), N₂O, and hydrogen (H₂) and concluded that microbial gas consumption within the surface layer film was the only plausible explanation for such differences in k_{600} .¹⁴ Frost⁴⁷ came to the same conclusion when he identified a mismatch with up to 8% higher k_{600} for CH₄ compared to sulfur hexafluoride (SF_6) in the North Sea, and results were corroborated by Upstill-Goddard et al.,⁵⁰ who replicated similar patterns in a controlled experiment by adding methanotrophs to the surface microlayer film. In the subtropical Atlantic, Calleja et al.⁵¹ found that k_{600} for CO₂ was controlled by microbial metabolism in the uppermost (<2 cm) water layer, with sevenfold and tenfold differences in respiration and gross primary production, respectively, compared to the mixed photic layer below. If the above findings in ocean systems are valid for lakes, microbial communities within the uppermost water layer could potentially alter the concentration of CH₄ or CO₂ in lakes and bias our k determination method. It might explain the contrasting patterns found in different systems, where some studies indicate enhanced k_{600CH4} and some show enhancement of k_{600CO2} .

4.2.3. Methodological Reasons for Gas k₆₀₀ Differences. Discrete sample headspace analysis is associated with a risk of introducing systematic error into calculations if chemical equilibration of the carbonate system inside the sample vial is not accounted for. Koschorreck et al.¹⁷ found that such bias could lead to error, underestimating C_{wCO2} by a factor of 3 in highly undersaturated waters when using atmospheric air for the equilibration, but overestimating C_{wCO2} by less than 5% in supersaturated (>1000 μ atm) waters. Bias is reduced if a high water to air volume ratio is used in the sampling syringe. We accounted for this error when calculating C_{wCO2} , but bias would otherwise only be $\sim 2\%$ due to high supersaturation in our lakes and a water to air volume ratio of ~ 19 when sampling. Nevertheless, it is possible that the findings from Koschorreck et al.¹⁷ could influence the k_{600} -ratios (CO₂/ CH_4) presented in Table 2 if not considered in all studies.

When using flow-through equilibrators, a mismatch between k for CO₂ and CH₄ could increase if differences in gas equilibration times are not accounted for.¹⁶ The equilibration time for CH₄ is considerably longer than for CO₂ due to the greater supersaturation of CH₄ in water and its lower solubility, and thereby the greater proportional mass transport of CH₄ is needed from the water to the gas phase to reach equilibrium (Figure S4). Accordingly, if measurements of C_{wCH4} are not fully equilibrated, this will underestimate C_{wCH4} and consequently result in overestimation of k_{600} for CH₄.

Regardless of choosing equilibrator or headspace extraction approaches, the depth of the water sampling is critical, as highlighted above. Potential explanations for the differences between apparent k_{600} for CO₂ and CH₄ could be attributed to methodological inconsistency regarding the depth where water samples are taken to measure the gas concentration due to gradients in the very near-surface water. From this perspective, it could be argued that a more accurate way to estimate the surface water gas concentrations driving the flux may be to use long-term FC equilibrations, designed to make in situ chamber headspace gas concentrations reflect the gas concentrations in the uppermost water layer. Further exploration of such chambers designed for quickest possible equilibration rates (e.g., large surface area to volume ratio and constant water renewal under the chamber²⁸) and evaluating their pros and cons would be of interest to improve future k measurements.

Another methodological aspect regards the common temporal mismatch between flux measurements (integrating gas transport over 10-30 min) and instantaneous snap-shot concentration measurements or from the delay in the equilibration of chambers. This contributes uncertainty to kestimates as the flux and concentration data used to calculate krepresents different time periods. The direction of this bias depends on how gas concentrations in the water change during the flux measurement. This time-mismatch may therefore not cause a systematic bias on k_{600} differences among gases if considering many measurement periods and systems. However, reducing the related k uncertainty needs further consideration by, e.g., combining flux measurements with repeated or continuous concentration measurements during the whole flux measurement period or optimized FCs for rapid equilibration.

4.3. Future Considerations and Implications. It is imperative to understand controls on k_{600} to accurately estimate gas fluxes from surface waters. Our results from four boreal lakes add to the growing literature which indicates that current assumptions made when calculating k_{600} from measurements designed for other gases, do not hold when tested in situ. Additional mechanisms than those outlined here may be possible. For example, variability in k values for CO_2 and CH₄ may also depend on conditions within the water column, and exploring potential patterns in k_{600CH4} to k_{600CO2} versus, e.g., local hydrodynamics influenced by heating, cooling, and wind speed and direction would be of interest. Clearly, several explanations to observed differences in k_{600} among gases exist that can interact and differ in relative importance among studies. This is a matter of concern as kdependent gas exchange models are widely used in regional studies due to the perceived simplicity of collecting water samples to estimate gas concentration and modeling k to derive fluxes in comparison with making actual flux measurements. Many such studies, incorporating k-dependent gas exchange models, are used in global upscaling of fluxes, and the

discrepancy-ranges observed in k_{600} seem large enough to substantially affect aquatic greenhouse gas emissions estimates. Future studies should be designed to address potential biases in gas concentration measurements and account for the possible mechanisms that may affect k differently for CO₂ and CH₄. Before these challenges are addressed, attempts to convert k from one gas to another based solely on physical properties may not be reliable beyond controlled laboratory conditions, and in situ empirical assessments of k for each gas of interest remain important for accurate flux assessments.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.est.2c09230.

Gas calculations for CO_2 and CH_4 in lake systems SOR, BOL, and SOD (Text S1) and supplemental method description of microbubble flux calculations (Text S2), with figures showing the in situ sampling setup using UGGA and flux chamber for measuring fluxes of CH_4 and CO_2 (Figure S1), the relationship between measured, lake dissolved CO_2 and CH_4 concentrations, and lake CO_2 and CH_4 fluxes (Figure S2), the measured k_{600} ratio (CO_2/CH_4) and CO_2 saturation, and CH_4 saturation (Figure S3), and gas specific equilibration time measurements for CO_2 and CH_4 in an aquatic environment (Figure S4) (PDF)

Source data contain data needed to reproduce results in the manuscript and include in situ measurements of the apparent k_{600} for CO₂ and CH₄, wind speeds approximated at 10 m height (U₁₀), apparent k_{600} ratio (CO₂/CH₄), dissolved CO₂ and CH₄, gas fluxes of CO₂ and CH₄, and apparent ratio of dissolved gases in the surface waters versus the above lying atmosphere (C_w / C_{air}) for CO₂ and CH₄, respectively (XLSX)

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Authors

- Gustav Pajala Department of Thematic Studies Environmental Change, Linköping University, Linköping 58183, Sweden; orcid.org/0000-0001-7960-0129; Email: gustav.pajala@liu.se
- David Bastviken Department of Thematic Studies Environmental Change, Linköping University, Linköping 58183, Sweden; © orcid.org/0000-0003-0038-2152; Phone: +46 73 693 63 86; Email: david.bastviken@liu.se

Authors

- David Rudberg Department of Thematic Studies Environmental Change, Linköping University, Linköping 58183, Sweden; orcid.org/0000-0003-0934-2077
- Magnus Gålfalk Department of Thematic Studies Environmental Change, Linköping University, Linköping 58183, Sweden; © orcid.org/0000-0003-1107-3929
- John Michael Melack Department of Ecology, Evolution and Marine Biology, University of California, Santa Barbara, California 93117, United States; Earth Research Institute, University of California, Santa Barbara, California 93106, United States
- Sally Macintyre Department of Ecology, Evolution and Marine Biology, University of California, Santa Barbara, California 93117, United States; Earth Research Institute,

University of California, Santa Barbara, California 93106, United States; Marine Science Institute, University of California, Santa Barbara, California 93117, United States; orcid.org/0000-0003-3644-7237

- Jan Karlsson Climate Impacts Research Centre, Department of Ecology and Environmental Sciences, Umeå University, Umeå 90736, Sweden
- Henrique Oliveira Sawakuchi Department of Thematic Studies – Environmental Change, Linköping University, Linköping 58183, Sweden; orcid.org/0000-0002-6815-7261
- Jonathan Schenk Department of Thematic Studies Environmental Change, Linköping University, Linköping 58183, Sweden
- Anna Sieczko Department of Thematic Studies Environmental Change, Linköping University, Linköping 58183, Sweden
- Ingrid Sundgren Department of Thematic Studies Environmental Change, Linköping University, Linköping 58183, Sweden
- Nguyen Thanh Duc Department of Thematic Studies Environmental Change, Linköping University, Linköping 58183, Sweden

Complete contact information is available at: https://pubs.acs.org/10.1021/acs.est.2c09230

Author Contributions

D.B., G.P., D.R., and M.G. designed the study and the experimental setup. D.B. was supervising the study and secured resources for it. D.B., G.P., and M.G. performed most of the empirical data collection, with assistance from the other authors. Lab analysis of the empirical data collected was done by G.P., J.S., M.G., I.S., and D.B. Calculating and structuring the data was done by G.P. and D.R. with help from D.B. and M.G., G.P. and D.R. led the development of the manuscript, including writing the first draft of the manuscript with input from D.B. All authors contributed to the development of the manuscript and have approved the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was funded by the European Research Council (ERC), European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation program (grant agreement No. 725546), the Knut and Alice Wallenberg Foundation (grant agreement No. 2016.0083), the Swedish Research Council (VR; grant agreement No. 2016-04829), and the Swedish Research Council for Sustainable Development (FORMAS; grant agreement No. 2018-01794). Support and development for manuscript review was also provided by the US National Science Foundation (Division of Environmental Biology, grant number 1753856). Many thanks to Balathandayuthabani Panneer Selvam and Sivakiruthika Balathandayuthabani for contributions made in the empirical collection phase, lab analysis, or discussions regarding the experimental setup and data handling.

REFERENCES

(1) Messager, M. L.; Lehner, B.; Grill, G.; Nedeva, I.; Schmitt, O. Estimating the volume and age of water stored in global lakes using a geo-statistical approach. *Nat. Commun.* **2016**, *7*, 13603.

(2) Raymond, P. A.; Hartmann, J.; Lauerwald, R.; Sobek, S.; McDonald, C.; Hoover, M.; Butman, D.; Striegl, R.; Mayorga, E.; Humborg, C.; Kortelainen, P.; Dürr, H.; Meybeck, M.; Ciais, P.; Guth, P. Global carbon dioxide emissions from inland waters. *Nature* **2013**, 503, 355–359.

(3) Johnson, M. S.; Matthews, E.; Du, J.; Genovese, V.; Bastviken, D. Methane Emission From Global Lakes: New Spatiotemporal Data and Observation-Driven Modeling of Methane Dynamics Indicates Lower Emissions. J. Geophys. Res.: Biogeosci. 2022, 127, No. e2022JG006793.
(4) Guérin, F.; Abril, G.; Serça, D.; Delon, C.; Richard, S.; Delmas, R.; Tremblay, A.; Varfalvy, L. Gas transfer velocities of CO₂ and CH₄ in a tropical reservoir and its river downstream. J. Mar. Syst. 2007, 66, 161–172.

(5) Beaulieu, J. J.; Shuster, W. D.; Rebholz, J. A. Controls on gas transfer velocities in a large river. *J. Geophys. Res.: Biogeosci.* **2012**, *117*, 2007.

(6) Paranaíba, J. R.; Barros, N.; Mendonça, R.; Linkhorst, A.; Isidorova, A.; Roland, F. B.; Almeida, R. M.; Sobek, S. Spatially Resolved Measurements of CO_2 and CH_4 Concentration and Gas-Exchange Velocity Highly Influence Carbon-Emission Estimates of Reservoirs. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2018**, *52*, 607–615.

(7) Rosentreter, J. A.; Wells, N. S.; Ulseth, A. J.; Eyre, B. D. Divergent Gas Transfer Velocities of CO2, CH4 and N2O Over Spatial and Temporal Gradients in a Subtropical Estuary. *J. Geophys. Res.: Biogeosci.* **2021**, *126*, No. e2021JG006270.

(8) MacIntyre, S., Wanninkhof, R., Chanton, J. P., *Trace gas exchange across the air-sea interface in fresh water and coastal marine environments*; Blackwell Science: Oxford, 1995; pp 52–97.

(9) Zappa, C. J.; McGillis, W. R.; Raymond, P. A.; Edson, J. B.; Hintsa, E. J.; Zemmelink, H. J.; Dacey, J. W.; Ho, D. T. Environmental turbulent mixing controls on air-water gas exchange in marine and aquatic systems. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **2007**, *34*, L10601.

(10) Wanninkhof, R. Relationship between wind speed and gas exchange over the ocean revisited. *Limnol. Oceanogr.: Methods* 2014, 12, 351–362.

(11) MacIntyre, S.; Bastviken, D.; Arneborg, L.; Crowe, A. T.; Karlsson, J.; Andersson, A.; Gålfalk, M.; Rutgersson, A.; Podgrajsek, E.; Melack, J. M. Turbulence in a small boreal lake: Consequences for air-water gas exchange. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **2021**, *66*, 827–854.

(12) Jähne, B.; Münnich, K. O.; Bösinger, R.; Dutzi, A.; Huber, W.; Libner, P. On the parameters influencing air-water gas exchange. *J. Geophys. Res.* **1987**, *92*, 1937.

(13) Prairie, Y.; del Giorgio, P. A new pathway of freshwater methane emissions and the putative importance of microbubbles. *Inland Waters* **2013**, *3*, 311–320.

(14) Conrad, R.; Seiler, W. Influence of the surface microlayer on the flux of nonconservative trace gases (CO, H2, CH4, N2O) across the ocean-atmosphere interface. *J. Atmos. Chem.* **1988**, *6*, 83–94.

(15) Wanninkhof, R.; Knox, M. Chemical enhancement of CO_2 exchange in natural waters. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **1996**, 41, 689–697.

(16) Webb, J. R.; Maher, D. T.; Santos, I. R. Automated, in situ measurements of dissolved CO₂, CH₄, and δ 13C values using cavity enhanced laser absorption spectrometry: Comparing response times of air-water equilibrators. *Limnol. Oceanogr.: Methods* **2016**, *14*, 323–337.

(17) Koschorreck, M.; Prairie, Y. T.; Kim, J.; Marcé, R. CO_2 is not like CH_4 -limits of and corrections to the headspace method to analyse pCO_2 in fresh water. *Biogeosciences* **2021**, *18*, 1619–1627.

(18) McGinnis, D. F.; Kirillin, G.; Tang, K. W.; Flury, S.; Bodmer, P.; Engelhardt, C.; Casper, P.; Grossart, H.-P. Enhancing surface methane fluxes from an oligotrophic lake: exploring the microbubble hypothesis. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2015**, *49*, 873–880.

(19) Rantakari, M.; Heiskanen, J.; Mammarella, I.; Tulonen, T.; Linnaluoma, J.; Kankaala, P.; Ojala, A. Different apparent gas exchange coefficients for CO_2 and CH_4 : Comparing a brown-water and a clear-water lake in the boreal zone during the whole growing season. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2015**, *49*, 11388–11394.

(20) Rosentreter, J.; Maher, D. T.; Ho, D.; Call, M.; Barr, J.; Eyre, B. D. Spatial and temporal variability of CO_2 and CH_4 gas transfer velocities and quantification of the CH_4 microbubble flux in mangrove dominated estuaries. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **2017**, *62*, 561–578.

(21) Klaus, M.; Geibrink, E.; Jonsson, A.; Bergström, A.-K.; Bastviken, D.; Laudon, H.; Klaminder, J.; Karlsson, J. Greenhouse gas emissions from boreal inland waters unchanged after forest harvesting. *Biogeosciences* **2018**, *15*, 5575–5594.

(22) Carlson, R. E. A trophic state index for lakes 1. Limnol. Oceanogr. 1977, 22, 361-369.

(23) Natchimuthu, S.; Sundgren, I.; Gålfalk, M.; Klemedtsson, L.; Bastviken, D. Spatiotemporal variability of lake pCO_2 and CO_2 fluxes in a hemiboreal catchment. *J. Geophys. Res.: Biogeosci.* **2017**, *122*, 30–49.

(24) Cole, J. J.; Bade, D. L.; Bastviken, D.; Pace, M. L.; Van de Bogert, M. Multiple approaches to estimating air-water gas exchange in small lakes. *Limnol. Oceanogr.: Methods* **2010**, *8*, 285–293.

(25) Gålfalk, M.; Bastviken, D.; Fredriksson, S.; Arneborg, L. Determination of the piston velocity for water-air interfaces using flux chambers, acoustic Doppler velocimetry, and IR imaging of the water surface. *J. Geophys. Res.: Biogeosci.* **2013**, *118*, 770–782.

(26) Rudberg, D.; Duc, N.; Schenk, J.; Sieczko, A.; Pajala, G.; Sawakuchi, H.; Verheijen, H.; Melack, J.; MacIntyre, S.; Karlsson, J. Diel Variability of CO_2 Emissions from Northern Lakes. *J. Geophys. Res.: Biogeosci.* **2021**, *126*, No. e2021JG006246.

(27) Cole, J. J.; Caraco, N. F.; Kling, G. W.; Kratz, T. K. Carbon dioxide supersaturation in the surface waters of lakes. *Science* **1994**, 265, 1568–1570.

(28) Bastviken, D.; Sundgren, I.; Natchimuthu, S.; Reyier, H.; Gålfalk, M. Technical Note: Cost-efficient approaches to measure carbon dioxide (CO_2) fluxes and concentrations in terrestrial and aquatic environments using mini loggers. *Biogeosciences* **2015**, *12*, 3849–3859.

(29) Häggmark, L.; Ivarsson, K.-I.; Gollvik, S.; Olofsson, P.-O. Mesan, an operational mesoscale analysis system. *Tellus A* **2000**, *52*, 2–20.

(30) Sander, R.; Acree, W. E., Jr.; De Visscher, A.; Schwartz, S. E.; Wallington, T. J. Henry's law constants (IUPAC Recommendations 2021). *Pure Appl. Chem.* **2022**, *94*, 71–85.

(31) Liss, P. S.; Merlivat, L., Air-sea gas exchange rates: Introduction and synthesis. In *The role of air-sea exchange in geochemical cycling*; Springer: 1986; pp 113–127.

(32) Woolf, D. K.; Thorpe, S. Bubbles and the air-sea exchange of gases in near-saturation conditions. *J. Mar. Res.* **1991**, *49*, 435–466. (33) Turner, W. Microbubble persistence in fresh water. *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* **1961**, *33*, 1223–1233.

(34) Monahan, E. C.; Muircheartaigh, I. Optimal power-law description of oceanic whitecap coverage dependence on wind speed. *J. Phys. Oceanogr.* **1980**, *10*, 2094–2099.

(35) Grossart, H. P.; Frindte, K.; Dziallas, C.; Eckert, W.; Tang, K. W. Microbial methane production in oxygenated water column of an oligotrophic lake. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **2011**, *108*, 19657–19661.

(36) Bižić, M.; Klintzsch, T.; Ionescu, D.; Hindiyeh, M.; Günthel, M.; Muro-Pastor, A. M.; Eckert, W.; Urich, T.; Keppler, F.; Grossart, H.-P. Aquatic and terrestrial cyanobacteria produce methane. *Sci. Adv.* **2020**, *6*, No. eaax5343.

(37) Staehr, P. A.; Brighenti, L. S.; Honti, M.; Christensen, J.; Rose, K. C. Global patterns of light saturation and photoinhibition of lake primary production. *Inland Waters* **2016**, *6*, 593–607.

(38) Danos, S. C.; Maki, J. S.; Remsen, C. C. Stratification of microorganisms and nutrients in the surface microlayer of small freshwater ponds. *Hydrobiologia* **1983**, *98*, 193–202.

(39) Hillbricht-Ilkowska, A.; Kostrzewska-Szlakowska, I. Surface microlayer in lakes of different trophic status: nutrients concentration and accumulation. *Pol. J. Ecol.* **2004**, *52*, 461–478.

(40) Hörtnagl, P.; Perez, M. T.; Zeder, M.; Sommaruga, R. The bacterial community composition of the surface microlayer in a high mountain lake. *FEMS Microbiol. Ecol.* **2010**, *73*, 458–467.

(41) Zhou, X.; Mopper, K. Photochemical production of lowmolecular-weight carbonyl compounds in seawater and surface microlayer and their air-sea exchange. *Mar. Chem.* **1997**, *56*, 201–213.

(42) Bertilsson, S.; Stefan, L. J. Photochemically produced carboxylic acids as substrates for freshwater bacterioplankton. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **1998**, *43*, 885–895.

(43) Bertilsson, S.; Tranvik, L. J. Photochemical transformation of dissolved organic matter in lakes. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **2000**, *45*, 753–762.

(44) Anesio, A. M.; Granéli, W. Increased photoreactivity of DOC by acidification: Implications for the carbon cycle in humic lakes. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **2003**, *48*, 735–744.

(45) Patterson, J. C. Modelling the effects of motion on primary production in the mixed layer of lakes. *Aquat. Sci.* 1991, *53*, 218–238.
(46) Karentz, D.; Bothwell, M.; Coffin, R.; Hanson, A.; Herndl, G.; Kilham, S.; Lesser, M.; Lindell, M.; Moeller, R.; Morris, D. Impact of UV-B radiation on pelagic freshwater ecosystems: report of working group on bacteria and phytoplankton. *Ergeb. Limnol.* 1994, *43*, 31–69.
(47) Frost, T. *Environmental controls of air-water gas exchange*; University of Newcastle upon Tyne, 1999.

(48) Cunliffe, M.; Upstill-Goddard, R. C.; Murrell, J. C. Microbiology of aquatic surface microlayers. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* 2011, 35, 233-246.

(49) Cunliffe, M.; Engel, A.; Frka, S.; Gašparović, B.; Guitart, C.; Murrell, J. C.; Salter, M.; Stolle, C.; Upstill-Goddard, R.; Wurl, O. Sea surface microlayers: A unified physicochemical and biological perspective of the air-ocean interface. *Prog. Oceanogr.* **2013**, *109*, 104–116.

(50) Upstill-Goddard, R. C.; Frost, T.; Henry, G. R.; Franklin, M.; Murrell, J. C.; Owens, N. J. Bacterioneuston control of air-water methane exchange determined with a laboratory gas exchange tank. *Global Biogeochem. Cycles* **2003**, *17*, 19-1.

(51) Calleja, M. L.; Duarte, C. M.; Navarro, N.; Agusti, S. Control of air-sea CO_2 disequilibria in the subtropical NE Atlantic by planktonic metabolism under the ocean skin. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **2005**, *32*, L08606.