This document is the accepted manuscript version of the following article: Tyroller, L., Tomonaga, Y., Brennwald, M. S., Ndayisaba, C., Naeher, S., Schubert, C., ... Kipfer, R. (2016). Improved method for the quantification of methane concentrations in unconsolidated lake sediments. Environmental Science and Technology, 50(13), 7047-7055. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.5b05292

Improved method for the quantification of methane concentrations in unconsolidated lake sediments

Lina Tyroller,* *,†,‡ Yama Tomonaga, †,¶ Matthias S. Brennwald, † Cyprien Ndayisaba, † Sebastian Naeher, § Carsten Schubert, § Ryan P. North, † and Rolf Kipfer $^{\dagger,\parallel}$

†Eawag, Department of Water Resources and Drinking Water, Swiss Federal Institute of
Aquatic Science and Technology, CH-8600 Dübendorf, Switzerland

‡Institute of Biogeochemistry and Pollutant Dynamics, Swiss Federal Institute of
Technology (ETH), CH-8092 Zurich, Switzerland

- ¶Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute, The University of Tokyo, 5-1-5 Kashiwanoha,

 Kashiwa-shi, Chiba 277-8564, Japan
- §Eawag, Department of Surface Waters Research and Management, Swiss Federal Institute
 of Aquatic Science and Technology, CH-6047 Kastanienbaum, Switzerland
 ||Institute of Geochemistry and Petrology, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology (ETH),
 CH-8092 Zurich, Switzerland

E-mail: lina.tyroller@eawag.ch

Abstract

There is conclusive evidence that the methods most commonly used to sample methane (CH₄) dissolved in pore water of lake sediments produce results that are likely to be affected by gas loss or gas exchange with the atmosphere. To determine the in situ amount of CH₄ per unit mass of pore water in sediments, we developed and validated a new method, that combines techniques developed for noble gas analysis in pore waters with a standard headspace technique to quantify the CH₄ present in the pore space in dissolved and gaseous form. The method was tested at two sites: Lake Lungern, where CH₄ concentrations were close to saturation; and Lake Rotsee, where CH₄ concentrations are known to exceed saturation, and where CH₄ bubble formation and gas ebullition are commonly observed. We demonstrate that the new method, in contrast to the available methods, more reliably captures the total amount of CH₄ per unit mass of pore water consisting of both dissolved and free CH₄ (i.e., gas bubbles) in the pore space of the sediment.

15 Introduction

Methane (CH₄) in the atmosphere acts as a potent greenhouse gas. ¹ Inland waters ² are one 16 of its many sources, particularly microbiological production in eutrophic lakes.^{3,4} Anthropo-17 genically - induced eutrophication currently affects inland waters (lakes, reservoirs, ponds 18 and rivers) on a global scale, 5-7 together with increasing CH₄ production⁸, which has re-19 cently been identified as relevant for the global carbon budget. 9-12 Taking into account that 20 sediments are the main zone of CH_4 production in lakes and rivers, 13 quantifying the real 21 amount present in sediment pore water is vital for an understanding of its impact on aquatic systems and its relevance for climate change. ^{13,14} A method that can accurately determine the spatial and temporal distribution of CH₄ amounts in the sediment pore space is required in order to quantify the CH₄ budget in 25 lake sediments. The central experimental challenge, applying commonly used methods for 26 the analysis of CH₄ concentrations in the pore water of (lacustrine) sediments, is that CH₄ 27 occurs in both dissolved and free gaseous form (e.g., as bubbles). 15 In this paper, we refer to the sum of both the in situ dissolved CH₄ concentration plus the amount of CH₄ present in 29 gaseous form as the total amount of CH₄ per unit mass of pore water (i.e., "CH₄-TAMP"). 30 CH₄ bubbles are formed in the lacustrine sediment when methane concentrations exceed the 31 CH₄ in situ saturation concentration (i.e., supersaturation) in the pore water. ¹⁶ Causes for this CH₄ supersaturation are CH₄ production by microorganisms within the sediment and hydrostatic pressure decrease during reservoir drawdown. ¹⁷ In aquatic systems characterised by active bubble emission from the sediments, CH₄ 35 amounts are expected to exceed the in situ saturation concentration in the pore water. However, conventional methods for CH₄ analysis are often subject to gas loss and fail to ad-37 equately determine CH₄-TAMP expected in such systems. ^{8,18,19} Using conventional methods attempting to determine CH₄-TAMP in lacustrine sediments (for a review see Adams et al. 1995), samples are collected either (1) from the recovered cores or (2) by in situ devices, ¹⁵ as discussed below.

1. In recovered sediment cores, CH₄-TAMP is usually determined by using a tipless syringe to sub-core the sediment core at previously-defined sampling ports along the core liner (syringe standard method "SSM"). The extracted bulk sediment is transferred by the tipless syringe into a glass vial, which is closed with a septum for subsequent headspace analysis. 8,15,20-24 During this transfer, the sediment is normally exposed to air for about two seconds, resulting in secondary gas exchange, i.e., CH₄ loss from the sample. 20 Such CH₄ loss is estimated to range from 2 to 31% during transfer of the sediment from the core to a sample vial by a syringe, when applying the SSM method to bulk sediment containing numerous bubbles. 15 Although being known to be subject to gas loss, the SSM method is commonly used to quantify CH₄ concentrations in the sediment pore water of lakes and oceans. 8,15,20-24 As a result, the concentrations reported in such studies are conceived to be biased. For example, sediment samples from a study using the SSM method at Lake Wohlen, where an active CH₄ bubble emission to the atmosphere was demonstrated ¹⁸, showed CH₄ concentrations that were significantly lower than respective in situ saturation concentration.⁸ Another example is the application of the SSM method at Lake Geneva at locations where bubbles were abundant and visible in the sediment core: ¹⁹ "Ebullition was observed at several (...) coring locations but supersaturation of CH₄, which is needed for bubble formation, ¹⁶ was not reached in most of the cores (...)". 21 While the authors suggest that this undersaturation is explained by the heterogeneity of the sediment, we hypothesize that it might be the result of gas loss during the sampling procedure. The amounts of CH₄ in the pore water of Lake Rotsee have been investigated in studies applying different methods, one study applied the dialyzer method (see below), whereas the others applied the SSM method. $^{24-27}$ The results determined by the SSM method (0.7 - 5.9 mM CH₄) always showed concentrations lower than in situ saturation concentration and were an order of magnitude lower than the CH₄-TAMP determined by the dialyzer method (20 - 40 mM CH₄). ²⁷ To conclude, in productive sediments with obvious

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

CH₄ supersaturation, the concentrations determined by the SSM method are severely biased toward lower concentrations. This is mainly explained by secondary gas exchange during SSM sampling, resulting in gas loss. Therefore, the SSM method is not an appropriate method to quantify the true CH₄-TAMP in unconsolidated sediments of lakes (and oceans). Nevertheless the SSM method is frequently applied.^{8,15,20–24}

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

2. Another method commonly applied for in situ sampling is the peeper or dialyzer method. 15,28,29 According to this method, a plexiglas plate with water-filled chambers covered by a dialysis membrane 15 is inserted into the sediment. The plate is left in the sediment for 1-3 weeks until the equilibrium between the pore water and the water in the chambers is attained. After the plate has been retrieved, the water in the chambers is sampled by piercing the membrane with a syringe. Diffusion of gases through the membrane during retrieval of the dialyzer plate and gas exchange with the atmosphere when piercing the membrane of the dialyzer compartments can result in gas loss. 15 In addition, the method is time consuming and the degree of equilibration is often uncertain, as it depends on the sediment porosity, which may not be known. And again, the determined $\mathrm{CH_4} ext{-}\mathrm{TAMPs}$ tend to be biased toward lower values. ¹⁵ Peeper methods appear to be inappropriate for quantitatively capturing poorly soluble species, as indicated by the comparison of CH₄-TAMPs obtained from peepers and squeezing technique for the determination of total methane in the sediment. 30 Further disadvantages are the high expenses and high amounts of work associated with setting and collecting of the dialyzer plates. If dialyzer plates are used to sample gas-rich sediments at great depths, the membranes can break as a result of degassing during retrieval. ²⁸

In order to reliably quantify the real, in-situ CH₄-TAMP in lacustrine sediments, we propose an adaptation of a method that has been developed to sample and analyse noble gases in the pore water of unconsolidated sediments. Noble-gas concentrations in the sediment pore water provide information on transport and gas exchange processes within the sediment and were used to reconstruct past climatic conditions and to quantify CH₄

ebullition. ^{33–35} The method for noble gas analysis in lacustrine sediments has been shown to prevent degassing and atmospheric contamination artefacts during sampling ^{31,32,36} and thus might allow the unbiased assessment of the CH₄-TAMP of unconsolidated sediments in rivers, lakes and oceans. We tested the new method in a laboratory experiment and at two Swiss lakes: (1) Lake Lungern, where CH₄-TAMPs throughout the sediment core are expected to agree with the in situ saturation concentration; and (2) Lake Rotsee, where the pore water of the sediment is significantly supersaturated with CH₄ and where bubbles are visible in sediment cores.

Experimental methods and procedures

$_{\scriptscriptstyle{105}}$ Methods

To determine CH₄ concentrations in the pore water of sediments, the sampling method commonly used for the measurement of noble gases in the pore water of unconsolidated sediments^{31,32} was combined with a standard headspace technique.³⁷ Important features of this combined method, the copper tube centrifugation ("CTC") method include the separation of pore fluids from the sediment by centrifugation and storage of the pore water in a copper tube, prior to analysis.

112 Copper tube centrifugation method

Pore water samples for CH₄ analysis were acquired according to the sampling protocol developed and optimised for noble gas analysis in lacustrine sediments^{31,32}. The sediment cores were collected using a gravity corer and a plastic liner, where holes (or sampling ports) were drilled along the liner. Threads were carved in these sampling ports allowing the later connection to modified Swagelock-fittings (SS-600-1-6BT). Prior to coring the sampling ports were sealed by adhesive tape. Immediately after core retrieval (within a few to 30 min after core retrieval), each sediment core was placed in a horizontal position to prevent the vertical

migration and loss of bubbles formed in the core during sampling. Copper tubes (30 cm length, ≈1 cm diameter) with modified Swagelock-fittings were then attached to the predrilled sample ports of the liner by piercing the adhesive tape. For more details regarding 122 sediment core retrieval and sampling refer to Brennwald et al. 2003. Subsequently, the 123 sediment in the liner was pressurised by two pistons inserted into each end of the core. Such 124 pressurising minimises and counteracts the bubble formation that arises from degassing as 125 a result of increased temperatures and the equilibration of the core with ambient pressure. 126 The pistons were pushed into the liner to increase the pressure acting on the sediment within 127 the liner. Pressure is augmented until pushing the bulk sediment through the ports into the 128 attached sample containers, i.e., copper tubes. This squeezing results in a displacement of 129 the sediment in the liner, which reduces the spatial resolution of the sampling depth. After 130 adequate flushing and optical observation that sediments was pushed through the copper 131 tube, the copper tubes were made airtight using two stainless steel pinch-off clamps (see 132 Figure 1, panel A), the same as those used for sampling noble gases dissolved in lake and 133 groundwater. 38,39 We note that sandy or other coarse sediments where grain size is similar 134 with the diameter of the copper tube, severely constrains sampling. Subsequently the closed 135 copper tubes were split into two aliquots by adding and closing additional pinch-off clamps. The two aliquots of each sample were centrifuged. The first aliquot was used to determine the geometrical position of the sediment/water interface within the copper tube. According to this position (~ 3 cm next to the pinch-off clamp in the up position during centrifugation), 139 an additional pinch-off clamp was placed on the remaining aliquot to separate the pure pore 140 water from the compressed sediment matrix.³² 141 While the previously described steps of sample processing are the same as in case of pro-142 cessing sediment samples for noble gas analysis (for details see Tomonaga et al. 2011), in the 143 following the processing of the sediment samples for methane analysis differs to the processing 144 of sediment samples for noble gas analysis. 31,32,38 The aliquot samples were treated twice in 145 an ultrasonic bath for 15 minutes each time (i.e., before centrifugation and after separation of the pure pore water). Treatment in the ultrasonic bath has two purposes: it loosens the sediment matrix (e.g., improves the compressibility of the sediment) and suppresses bacterial activity of in the water phase (refer to Figure 1, Panel B, step 1). The storage of the pore water in the copper tube constrains bacterial growth. To further reduce bacterial activity, the samples were kept at +3°C and were processed immediately after sediment sampling. If analysis could not be carried out within a few days after sampling, the samples were frozen and stored at -20°C to inhibit biological activity.

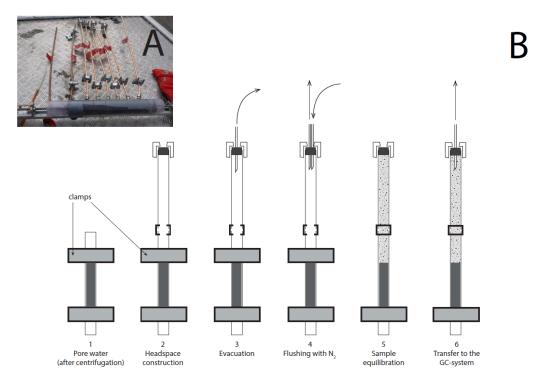


Figure 1: **A.** Experimental set-up: The photo was taken after sampling the sediment and after closing copper tubes airtight with pinch-off clamps. The core liner is mounted in the squeezer and copper tubes with fittings are attached to the sampling ports. **B.** Preparation of the sample's headspace for the subsequent gas/methane analysis by gas chromatography (GC). 1) Pure pore water sample separated from the sediment matrix by centrifugation (Tomonaga et al., 2011). 2) Headspace construction by mounting an additional copper tube segment with Swagelok fittings. 3) Headspace evacuation and 4) flushing the headspace with nitrogen at atmospheric pressure (steps 3 and 4 are repeated three times). 5) Opening and shaking of the water sample 3 times for 60 seconds to reach gas equilibrium with the headspace (the gas mixture from the head space and from the water sample are shown in the graph as grey and dotted area). 6) Gas injection into the GC for final CH₄ quantification.

For the final gas chromatographic (GC) analysis, the gas content within the sample was

154

extracted using a common headspace technique. For this purpose, an additional copper tube 155 segment with a septum was attached to build a headspace of about 8 mL. One end of this 156 additional copper tube segment was connected to the pore water sample using a Swagelok 157 SS-600-6 fitting (Figure 1, Panel B, step 2). The other end was sealed airtight with a 158 Swagelok SS-8-VCO-6-600 fitting and a Swagelok SS-8-VCO-4 female nut holding a 3.4-159 mm-thick PTFE septum (Infochroma G074-SK32FW02) tailored to fit into the connector. 160 The headspace was filled with pure nitrogen (N_2) before opening the sample towards the 161 headspace. To this end, the copper tube segment (headspace) was evacuated and flushed 162 with pure N₂ three times (Figure 1, Panel B, steps 3 and 4) and finally left filled with 163 N_2 at atmospheric pressure. The pinch-off clamp separating the pore water sample from 164 the headspace was then opened. To equilibrate the headspace with the pore water, the 165 sample was shaken for 3 minutes by hand (Figure 1, Panel B, step 5). The sample gas 166 was extracted from the headspace (Figure 1, Panel B, step 6) and injected to a GC for 167 final CH₄ analysis by an gas tight injector, i.e., a needle connected to a metal tube coupled 168 with a 24-port valve (VICI). To control the stability of the analysis a standard with a known 169 methane concentration was measured alternating with the samples. The oven of the GC-FID 170 (flame ionisation detector made up of Agilent HP6890GC, with a 30 m Supelco Carboxen 171 1010 column x 530 μm inner diameter x 3 μm film thickness, and a carrier gas He) was programmed to run at 100°C for 4 minutes. Subsequently, the temperature was increased 173 by 20°C per minute up to 130°C and kept at that temperature for another 3.5 minutes. 174 The detector signal was converted into CH₄ amounts by calibration against gas standards 175 with known CH₄ concentrations. The used calibration fully covered the range of methane 176 concentrations in the samples. The pore water mass of each sample was determined by 177 the difference in weight between the pore water - sample container (copper tube with N_2 -178 headspace and pore water sample prior to analysis) and the empty sample container (empty 179 copper tube, clean and dry after analysis). In addition, the volume of the headspace was 180 determined for each sample by filling the total volume of the sample container with water 181

(copper tube completely filled with water). The headspace volume was then calculated by
the difference in the weight of the total volume of the sample container and the weight of the
pore water - sample container (copper tube with N₂ filled headspace and pore water sample
prior to analysis). The total volume of the sample container was determined for each copper
tube by refilling the empty sample container with water and measuring the quantity. The
CH₄-TAMP in the pore water was calculated using Bunsen solubility ⁴² for CH₄ at the given
equilibration temperature in the headspace.

189 Syringe standard method

For the CH_4 analysis by the SSM method $^{8,15,20-24}$ sediment cores were collected in the same 190 manner as for the CTC method (see Brennwald et al. 2003). After core retrieval at each 191 sampling port, $2.0 \pm 0.2 \text{ cm}^3$ of the sediment were extracted with a tipless 5ml-syringe. 192 Sediments in the syringe were transferred to 25 mL glass vials. At the same time, 5 mL 193 of 25% sodium hydroxide solution were added to prevent bacterial activity. The headspace gas contains ambient air (≈ 1.75 ppm methane). The vials were sealed with a butyl stopper, 195 crimped with an aluminium cap. The samples were equilibrated overnight in a water bath 196 at a constant temperature. Subsequently, the headspace gas content was analysed using 197 the GC-FID described above and the methane concentrations from the whole sediment were 198 corrected to pore water concentration by accounting the sediment porosity. 199

200 Performance of the method

We tested the performance of the CTC method in comparison with the SSM method in three steps: i. Assessment of the efficiency of the copper-tube headspace gas extraction; ii. Comparison of the performance of the CTC and SSM methods in the sediment pore water with CH₄-TAMP in the range of CH₄ in situ saturation concentration (Lake Lungern); and iii. Comparison of the performance of the CTC and SSM methods for sediments from Lake Rotsee that were obviously heavily supersaturated in CH₄.

i. Assessment of the efficiency of the copper-tube headspace gas extraction

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

228

229

230

231

232

233

Water with a virtually constant CH₄ concentration was generated by pumping pure CH₄ gas through a diffuser at the bottom of a 10-litre container filled with tap water. Small CH₄ bubbles were generated by the diffuser and, during their rise in the water column, the initially-dissolved gases were replaced by CH₄. The oxygen concentration in the tap water was continuously controlled by an O₂ sensor (WTW Multi 340ielectrode CellOx(R) 325). When oxygen concentration in the water became zero, the water was assumed to have reached CH₄ saturation and bubbling was stopped. Subsequently, water samples were taken and analysed by means of a standard technique (using 117ml glass vials and N_2 to create a headspace, see Kampbell et al. 1989) for the analysis of dissolved methane³⁷ and the copper tube headspace extraction (see methods). Samples were taken consecutively through a plastic tube connected to an outlet at the bottom of the water container. Sampling time between consecutive samples was kept short to minimise the effect of gas loss from the tank being covered with a cap. For the CH₄ analysis by the copper tube headspace technique, a copper tube was flushed with the $\mathrm{CH_4}$ -loaded water. A sample of approximately 2 $\mathrm{cm^3}$ was sealed airtight by closing two pinch-off clamps. The volume taken was similar to the amount of pore water extracted by the centrifugation of a typical lacustrine sediment sample. This volume is about 6 times smaller than the sample in the glass vial (12 cm³). Results for the copper tube sample were therefore more likely to be affected by weighing errors and errors in determining the headspace volume. As a result, the overall analytical uncertainties are considerably larger than those for the analysis using glass vials. A better analytical precision for the CTC method can be achieved by optimising the sample inlet to the GC, e.g., by extracting the dissolved gases from pore water directly into a pre-evacuated extraction line. 43 Nevertheless, the advantage of using the copper tube headspace for CH₄ extraction is that samples can be readily analysed by most GCs without any modifications.

ii. Comparison of the performance of the CTC and SSM methods in the sediment pore water where CH₄-TAMP is known to be in the range of CH₄ in situ saturation concentration (Lake Lungern)

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

Lake Lungern, a reservoir situated in Canton Obwalden (Switzerland), is used for hydropower production and is therefore subject to high, artificially-induced water level variations. The lake level fluctuates between approximately 650 and 690 m.a.s.l. with low levels in winter and high levels in summer. Most of the littoral sediments originate from cropland that was flooded when the lake was dammed. The organic and mineral load of two inflowing rivers contributes to sediment formation in the littoral zone. ${
m High~CH_4}$ concentrations were reported in the water column of Lake Lungern. 44 ${
m CH_4}$ emissions in the form of small bubbles visible at the water surface have also been reported in the littoral area. 45 During field sampling in March 2013, two sediment cores were taken at the same location within a radius of less than 1m, from a site which had shown active CH₄ bubble release in the previous summer when the lake was at its highest level. When sampling the sediment, the water level was at its lowest and had been virtually stable throughout the preceding month. The difference between the lake level at its lowest in the winter and its maximum level in the summer was 20 m. This lowering of the lake level caused a strong pressure release in the sediment and fostered degassing and bubble formation as the overlying water column decreased. Depleted dissolved gas concentrations (i.e., He, Ne, Ar, Kr, Xe) in the pore water of these sediments, with regard to the expected air-saturated water concentrations, were found in an earlier study and were interpreted as resulting from gas stripping by CH₄ bubbles formed in and released from the sediment. 46 Due to low air and water temperatures during sampling (between +4 and -5°C), biological activity in the sediment was most likely very low or even non-existent. 47 In order to avoid the effect of pressure release and degassing during sediment core retrieval, the cores were taken from a site with a water depth of only 5 cm. For these reasons (namely, low hydraulic pressure, limited biological activity, and stable lake levels over a long period), we assume that CH₄ concentrations in the pore water of the sediments are close or equal to the expected saturation concentration.

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

iii. Comparison of the performance of the CTC and SSM methods for sediments supersaturated in methane (Lake Rotsee)

Lake Rotsee is a small eutrophic pre-Alpine lake, close to the city of Lucerne (Switzerland). Due to its wind shielded location Lake Rotsee only mixes once a year in early spring and has a stable stratified water column and an anoxic hypolimnion for the rest of the year. 24 The sediments of Lake Rotsee are known to emit CH₄. 24-26 The CH₄-TAMP of the sediments had been determined previously by the SSM and dialyzer methods. 24-27 The sediments of Lake Rotsee were sampled towards the end of September 2011, 2013 and 2014. At each campaign, 2 to 4 sediment cores were taken within a radius of circa 15 m from the same location at a water depth of 15–16 m. Because of the stable conditions in Lake Rotsee and because samples were always taken in the same month and at virtually the same location similar methane amounts were expected in the different years. Cores taken in 2011 and 2013 were processed with the CTC method (see Section 2.1). However, the sediment core from 2014 was processed differently. In 2014, the holes for the ports to connect the copper tubes to sample the sediment were drilled after retrieval of the sediment core. This procedure allows the ports to be set in ideal positions with regard to the retrieved sediment core. We note, however, that post-retrieval drilling induces vibration and prolongs sampling time. Both actions foster bubble movement within the sediment core and subsequent bubble loss.

Results and Discussion

Performance of the copper tube headspace gas extraction (lab experiment)

Methane concentrations of CH₄-enriched water determined using a standard technique ³⁷ and copper tube headspace technique agree within experimental errors (see Figure 2), both were in a range of 2 - 3 mM CH₄. Thus, the performance of the copper tube headspace method for CH₄ analysis is at the same level as that of the accepted standard method.

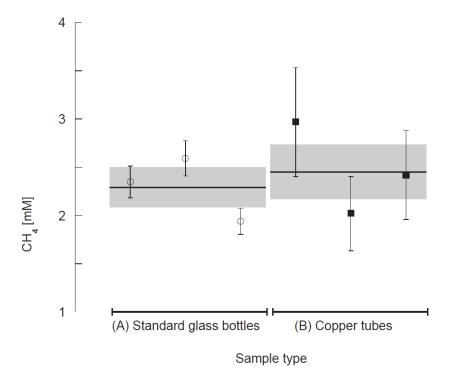


Figure 2: Comparison of the CH₄ concentrations determined in artificially CH₄-supersaturated water samples by (A) standard technique³⁷ in glass bottles (open circles) and (B) with the new copper tube headspace technique (black squares). The mean CH₄ concentration (continuous black lines) determined with both sampling methods (A) and (B) agrees in terms of experimental errors (grey areas represent the error of the mean). The determined concentrations exceed the expected CH₄ saturation concentration most likely due to microbubbles formation⁴⁸, which is often found in aquatic systems that are artificially aerated.⁴⁹

Comparison of the performance of the two methods in sediments that have CH₄ concentrations in the range of the expected methane saturation (Lake Lungern)

SSM method: The CH₄-TAMPs determined with the SSM method in the pore water of Lake

294

Lungern ranged between 0.5 and 1.7 mM (see Figure 3) and were always lower than in situ saturation concentrations for CH₄.

CTC method: The CH₄-TAMPs determined by the CTC method show a gradient in the upper 20 cm of the sediment. Starting at the water/sediment interface, CH₄-TAMP values were continuously increasing and stabilised at about 2.1 mM, at a sediment depth of 20 cm. From a sediment depth of 20 cm and downward, the CH₄-TAMP calculated by the CTC method agrees with the in situ saturation concentration (2.0–2.5 mM CH₄, Figure 3). We note that sampling was performed at a point in time where the sediment had virtually no overlying water column and therefore the retrieval of the sediment core was expected not to foster degassing due to pressure release.

Performance of the two methods when sampling sediments with active bubble formation (Lake Rotsee)

SSM method: In Lake Rotsee, CH₄-TAMPs determined by the SSM method were in the 307 range of 3 to 5 mM CH₄ (see Figure 4). The results are in line with results from previous studies at Lake Rotsee that used the same method. 24 We note that immediately after core 309 recovery, formation of gas bubbles was observed in the sediment during sampling (see Figure 310 5). The presence of a free gas phase implies that the CH₄-TAMP exceeded the in situ satura-311 tion concentration (7°C, approximately 15 to 16 m depth, 5.3–5.6 mM CH₄). Thus, although 312 CH₄ supersaturation was obvious, the CH₄-TAMPs determined by the SSM method were 313 commonly found to be even lower than in situ saturation concentration of CH₄. Only in 314 some samples of the 2014 core CH₄-TAMPs were found to slightly exceed the in situ satur-315

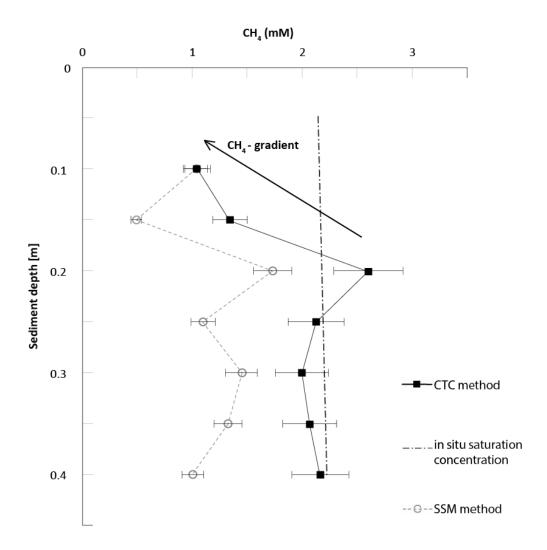


Figure 3: Comparison of the CH₄ concentration profiles determined with SSM and CTC method in the pore water in Lake Lungern in the winter of 2012 at low water level and hence with a very low overlying water column (5 cm). We note that CH₄ in situ saturation concentration was calculated with Henry's law, ⁵⁰ assuming a pure CH₄ gas phase. Spatial error on the sediment depth varies between 1 cm for the SSM method and 2.5 cm for the CTC method. Due to displacement of the sediment during squeezing the error on the vertical localisation of samples taken with CTC method is higher. In the upper 20 cm of the sediment, CH₄ concentrations are characterised by a strong gradient decreasing towards the sediment/water interface.

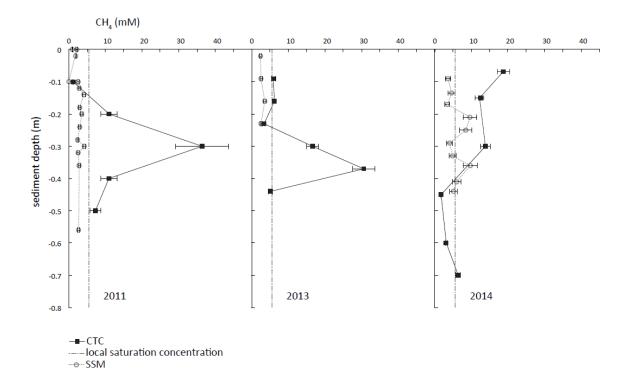


Figure 4: Comparison of the CH_4 concentration profiles measured in the pore water of Lake Rotsee in 2011, 2013 and 2014 at a water depth of about 16 m: SSM; CTC method; and in situ saturation concentration of CH_4 calculated with Henry's law ⁵⁰ assuming a pure CH_4 gas phase. Due to a different design of the sample inlet to the gas chromatograph (GC), the errors of all samples analysed in 2011 are larger. The spatial error of sediment displacement is: SSM method +/- 2.5 cm; CTC method +/- 1.0 cm.

ation concentration of CH₄. We also note that the CH₄-TAMP values determined using the SSM method show a "scatter" with regard to depth and do not show a clear concentration maximum.

CTC method: CH₄-TAMPs determined by the CTC method were larger than values determ-319 ined with SSM method. In Lake Rotsee, down to a sediment depth of 30 cm, CH₄-TAMPs in 320 the pore water were higher than the CH₄ in situ saturation (up to 40 mM CH₄, see Figure 4). 321 CH₄-TAMPs in samples taken at a depth below 40 cm were found to be close to the in situ 322 saturation concentration. The CH₄-TAMPs being higher than the CH₄ in situ saturation 323 concentration make a clear argument for the presence of CH₄ bubbles in the sediment and 324 hence are in line with the observation of gas bubbles in the sediment core (see Figure 5). 325 CH₄-TAMPs determined using the CTC method were approximately an order of magnitude 326 higher than those determined by the SSM method. Our maximum CTC CH₄-TAMP results 327 (20 - 35 mM CH₄) agree with the range of results from dialyzer analysis at Lake Rotsee (20 328 - 40 mM CH₄). ²⁷ Although the dialyzer results at Lake Rotsee ²⁷ agree with the CTC results 329 overall, we note that the dialyzer method did not yield any CH₄-TAMP maximum within 330 the sediments and that concentrations were subject to considerable scatter with regard to 331 depth. As mentioned above, such erratic CH₄-TAMP data may well be result from sampling artefacts, e.g. due to gas exchange with the atmosphere during sampling. 15,29 333

CTC samples from 2011 and 2013 repeatedly show a marked CH₄-TAMP maximum at 334 a depth of 30 to 40 cm. Their $\mathrm{CH_4}\text{-}\mathrm{TAMP}$ exceeds the in situ $\mathrm{CH_4}$ saturation concentration 335 by at least an order of magnitude. A slight offset of the peak CH₄-TAMPs in cores between 336 2011 and 2013 is likely to be related to the uneven sediment displacement in the liner due 337 to squeezing and to the spatial heterogeneity of microbiological CH₄ production. Given a 338 sedimentation rate of between 0.38 and 0.40 cm/y (sedimentation rate was determined by 339 identifying the 137 Cs peak of the Chernobyl accident and assuming a constant sedimentation 340 rate^{51}), the CH₄-TAMP peak is found in sediments deposited between 1920 and 1950. In 341 the 2014 core, where sampling ports were set after core retrieval, no clear concentration peak



Figure 5: Visible bubbles (within white circle) within the retrieved sediment core from Lake Rotsee 2013. Such bubbles occur spontaneously and immediately after core retrieval indicating that CH₄ concentrations in the pore water is supersaturated.

was observed. Nevertheless, down to a level of 40 cm, CH₄-TAMP was significantly higher than the in situ CH₄ saturation concentration. The total CH₄ excess, defined by saturation concentration and the measured CH₄-TAMP integrated over the sediment depth, is roughly the same for all three cores (2011, 2013 and 2014). Thus, all cores contain a similar amount of CH₄-TAMP; however, spatial distribution varies. We conclude that different vertical CH₄-TAMPs indicate that CH₄ was redistributed within the core due to agitation during drilling in 2014, but was not allowed to escape from the bulk sediment mass.

350 Implications

Although the sediments investigated in this study are known to actively emit CH₄, the
CH₄-TAMPs measured using the SSM method were either lower than the expected CH₄ in
situ saturation concentration (Lake Lungern) or were not able to detect the expected CH₄

supersaturation (Lake Rotsee) in the sediment pore - water. The difference between CH₄-TAMPs determined using the SSM and CTC methods increased with higher real CH₄-TAMP 355 and, particularly, with the presence of bubbles in the sediment. CH₄-TAMP determined 356 using the SSM method were severely biased toward lower concentrations. A CH₄ loss of 357 up to 90% was inferred. Our study confirmed that the SSM method fails to quantitatively 358 and reliably determine the in situ CH₄-TAMP of unconsolidated lacustrine sediments. In 359 contrast CH₄-TAMPs determined by the CTC method were always found to be higher than 360 values measured using the SSM method. The concentrations determined by CTC method 361 fell well within the expected CH₄ concentration range. 362

It is crucial to determine CH₄ in the pore water of lacustrine sediments in a truly quant-363 itative manner in order to set a robust experimental anchor for studying CH₄ dynamics in 364 lakes and their sediments. 24 Our study makes the case that the CTC method may allow the 365 accurate quantification of the real in situ CH₄-TAMP of sediments, even where CH₄ con-366 centrations exceed the in situ saturation concentration, e.g., in productive sediments known 367 to actively emit CH₄ bubbles. The CTC method is applicable in all sediments that can 368 be sampled with a gravity corer and gives good results as long as methane bubbles stay 369 in the local sediment matrix during core recovery. In addition, the CTC method allows us to depict the real spatial distribution of CH₄-TAMPs within the lacustrine sediments, e.g. 371 concentration gradients can be reconstructed accurately (Lake Lungern) and zones of en-372 hanced CH₄ production can be identified (Lake Rotsee). Although rather demanding from 373 an experimental point of view, the CTC method represents a significant improvement in the 374 analysis of the CH₄-TAMP of unconsolidated sediments in lakes and oceans. The sampling 375 technique using gas-tight copper tubes avoids gas loss during sample acquisition, and thus 376 eliminates the most critical sampling artefact when quantifying gas amounts in sediments. 377 Use of the CTC method for noble gas analysis 31,32 showed that CTC method could be ap-378 plied to the quantification of the gas concentrations in highly compacted sediments, e.g., 379 in ocean sediments or sediments being retrieved by deep drilling. 52,53 Furthermore, in principle, the CTC method also makes it possible to determine the real, in situ concentrations of other dissolved gases (e.g., H₂S, NH₃, CO₂, N₂ by using a different head space gas) as well as their isotopic composition in the pore space of unconsolidated sediments. This enables the characterisation of the gas/solute budget in the sediment and the gas exchange at the sediment/water interface.

386 Acknowledgement

We would like to thank Alfred Lück for determining the sedimentation rate in Lake Rotsee 387 and Serge Robert for contributing the SSM results for 2014. This study is dedicated to the 388 memory of Gijs Nobbe who helped to run the first analysis in 2011 with great dedication. We also appreciate the constructive input of three anonymous reviewers, which greatly helped 390 to improve our manuscript. The study was mainly funded by the Swiss National Science 391 Foundation (SNF Grants 200020-132155 and 200021-124981). Further funding was provided 392 by the European Union project Hypox – In situ monitoring of oxygen depletion in hypoxic 393 ecosystems of coastal and open seas and land-locked water bodies (EC Grant 226213), a 394 Marie Curie International Outgoing Fellowship (Contract No. PIOF-GA-2012-332404, Project NoGOS), and the European Cooperation in the Field of Scientific and Technical Research (COST) Actions ES0902 (Swiss State Secretariat for Education and Research, Project SBF 397 C11.0029) and ES1301 and by Eawag, the Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and Technology.

References

(1) Forster, P.; Ramaswamy, V.; Artaxo, P.; Berntsen, T.; Betts, R.; Fahey, D. W.; Haywood, J.; Lean, J.; Lowe, D. C.; Myhre, G.; Nganga, J.; Prinn, R.; Raga, G.; Schulz, M.;

Van Dorland, R. In *Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis.*; Solomon, S.,

- Qin, D., Manning, M., Chen, Z., Marquis, M., Averyt, K. B., Tignor, M., Miller, H. L.,
 Eds.; Cambridge University Press, 2007; pp 131–217.
- (2) Kirschke, S. et al. Three decades of global methane sources and sinks. *Nat. Geosci.* **2013**, 6, 813–823.
- 408 (3) Lovley, D. R.; Klug, M. J. Intermediary metabolism of organic matter in the sediments
 409 of a eutrophic lake. *Appl. Environ. Microb.* **1982**, 43, 552–560.
- (4) Sobek, S.; E. Durisch-Kaiser, R.; Zurbrügg, N.; Wongfun, M.; Wessels, N.; N., P.; B., W.
 Organic carbon burial efficiency in lake sediments controlled by oxygen exposure time
 and sediment source. Limnol. Oceanogr. 2009, 54, 2243–2254.
- 413 (5) Smith, V. H. Eutrophication of freshwater and coastal marine ecosystems a global 414 problem. Environ. Sci. Pollut R. 2003, 10, 126–139.
- (6) Søndergaard, M.; Jeppesen, E.; Lauridsen, T. L.; Skov, C.; Van Nes, E. H.; Roijackers, R.; Lammens, E.; Portielje, R. Lake restoration: Successes, failures and long-term effects. J. Appl. Ecol. 2007, 44, 1095–1105.
- telainen, P.; Prairie, Y. T.; Laube, K. Sediment organic carbon burial in agriculturally eutrophic impoundments over the last century. *Global Biogeochem. Cy.* **2008**, *22*.
- (8) Sobek, S.; DelSontro, T.; Wongfun, N.; Wehrli, B. Extreme organic carbon burial fuels intense methane bubbling in a temperate reservoir. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **2012**, *39*.
- (9) Battin, T. J.; Luyssaert, S.; Kaplan, L. A.; Aufdenkampe, A. K.; Richter, A.; Tranvik, L. J. The boundless carbon cycle. *Nat. Geosci.* **2009**, 2, 598–600.
- (10) Cole, J.; Prairie, Y.; Caraco, N.; McDowell, W.; Tranvik, L.; Striegl, R.; Duarte, C.;
 Kortelainen, P.; Downing, J.; Middelburg, J.; Melack, J. Plumbing the global carbon

- cycle: integrating inland waters into the terrestrial carbon budget. *Ecosystems* **2007**, 10, 172–185.
- 11) Downing, J. A. Emerging global role of small lakes and ponds: little things mean a lot.
 2010, 29, 0009–24.
- 431 (12) Ortiz-Llorente, M.; Alvarez-Cobelas, M. Comparison of biogenic methane emissions 432 from unmanaged estuaries, lakes, oceans, rivers and wetlands. *Atmos. Environ.* **2012**, 433 59, 328–337.
- different lake habitats: Connecting whole-lake budgets and CH4 emissions. *J. Geophys.*Res.) 2008, 113.
- 437 (14) Bastviken, D.; Cole, J.; Pace, M.; Tranvik, L. Methane emissions from lakes: Depend-438 ence of lake characteristics, two regional assessments, and a global estimate. *Global* 439 *Biogeochem. Cycles* **2004**, *18*.
- 440 (15) Adams, D. D. In Sediment pore water sampling; Murdoch, A., MacKnight, S., Eds.;
 441 Lewis Publishers: Boca Raton, FL, 1995; pp 171–202.
- 442 (16) Boudreau, B. P.; Algar, C.; Johnson, B. D.; Croudace, I.; Reed, A.; Furukawa, Y.;
 443 Dorgan, K. M.; Jumars, P. A.; Grader, A. S.; Gardiner, B. S. Bubble growth and rise
 444 in soft sediments. Geology 2005, 33, 517–520.
- ⁴⁴⁵ (17) Joyce, J.; Jewell, P. W. Physical controls on methane ebullition from reservoirs and lakes. *Environ. Eng. Geoscience* **2003**, *9*, 167–178.
- (18) DelSontro, T.; McGinnis, D. F.; Sobek, S.; Ostrovsky, I.; Wehrli, B. Extreme methane
 emissions from a Swiss hydropower reservoir: contribution from bubbling sediments.
 Environ. Sci. Technol 2010, 44, 2419–2425.

- (19) Corella, J. P.; Arantegui, A.; Loizeau, J.-L.; DelSontro, T.; Le Dantec, N.; Stark, N.;
 Anselmetti, F.; Girardclos, S. Sediment dynamics in the subaquatic channel of the
 Rhone delta (Lake Geneva, France/Switzerland). Aquat. Sci. 2014, 76, 73–87.
- 453 (20) Hoehler, T. M.; Alperin, M. J.; Albert, D. B.; Martens, C. S. Field and laboratory 454 studies of methane oxidation in an anoxic marine sediment: Evidence for a methanogen-455 sulfate reducer consortium. *Global Biogeochem. Cycles* **1994**, *8*, 451–463.
- (21) Sollberger, S.; Corella, J. P.; Girardclos, S.; Randlett, M.-E.; Schubert, C.; Senn, D.;
 Wehrli, B.; DelSontro, T. Spatial heterogeneity of benthic methane dynamics in the
 subaquatic canyons of the Rhone River Delta (Lake Geneva). Aquat. Sci. 2014, 76,
 89–101.
- (22) Jørgensen, B. B.; Weber, A.; Zopfi, J. Sulfate reduction and anaerobic methane oxidation in Black Sea sediments. Oceanogr. Res. Pap. 2001, 48, 2097–2120.
- 462 (23) Popp, B. N.; Sansone, F. J.; Rust, T. M.; Merritt, D. A. Determination of concentra-463 tion and carbon isotopic composition of dissolved methane in sediments and nearshore 464 waters. Anal. Chem. 1995, 67, 405–411.
- Vazquez, F.; Müller, B. Oxidation and emission of methane in a monomictic lake (Rotsee, Switzerland). *Aquat. Sci.* **2010**, *72*, 455–466.
- Naeher, S.; Smittenberg, R. H.; Gilli, A.; Kirilova, E. P.; Lotter, A. F.; Schubert, C. J.
 Impact of recent lake eutrophication on microbial community changes as revealed by
 high resolution lipid biomarkers in Rotsee (Switzerland). Org. Geochem. 2012, 49, 86–95.
- 472 (26) Naeher, S.; Niemann, H.; Peterse, F.; Smittenberg, R. H.; Zigah, P. K.; Schubert, C. J.

 473 Tracing the methane cycle with lipid biomarkers in Lake Rotsee (Switzerland). Org.

 474 Geochem. 2014, 66, 174–181.

- 475 (27) Falz, K. Z.; Holliger, C.; Grosskopf, R.; Liesack, W.; Nozhevnikova, A.; Müller, B.;
 476 Wehrli, B.; Hahn, D. Vertical distribution of methanogens in the anoxic sediment of
 477 Rotsee (Switzerland). Appl. Environ. Microb. 1999, 65, 2402–2408.
- 478 (28) Stephenson, M.; Schwartz, W. J.; Melnyk, T. W.; Motycka, M. F. Measurement of 479 advective water velocity in lake sediment using natural helium gradients. *J. Hydrol.* 480 **1994**, 154, 63–84.
- 481 (29) Dyck, W.; Da Silva, F. The use of ping-pong balls and latex tubing for sampling the
 482 helium content of lake sediments. J. Geochem. Explor. 1981, 14, 41–48.
- 483 (30) Adams, D. D.; Van Eck, G. T. M. Biogeochemical cycling of organic carbon in the
 484 sediments of the Grote Rug reservoir. Archiv für Hydrobiologie Ergebnisse Limnologie
 485 1988, 31.
- 486 (31) Brennwald, M. S.; Hofer, M.; Peeters, F.; Aeschbach-Hertig, W.; Strassmann, K.; Kip-487 fer, R.; Imboden, D. M. Analysis of dissolved noble gases in the porewater of lacustrine 488 sediments. *Limmnol. Oceanogr.: Methods* **2003**, *1*, 51–62.
- dissolved noble gases in the porewater of unconsolidated sediments. *Limmnol. Oceanogr.: Methods* **2011**, *9*, 42–49.
- 492 (33) Kipfer, R.; Aeschbach-Hertig, W.; Peeters, F.; Stute, M. In *Noble gases in geochemistry*493 and cosmochemistry; Porcelli, D., Ballentine, C., Wieler, R., Eds.; Mineralogical Society
 494 of America, Geochemical Society, 2002; Vol. 47; Chapter Noble gases in lakes and
 495 ground waters, pp 615–700.
- 496 (34) Brennwald, M.; Vogel, N.; Scheidegger, Y.; Tomonaga, Y.; Livingstone, D.; Kipfer, R.
 497 In The Noble Gases as Geochemical Tracers; Burnard, P., Hoefs, J., Eds.; Advances
 498 in Isotope Geochemistry; Springer: Berlin, Heidelberg, 2013; Chapter Noble gases as

- environmental tracers in sediment porewaters and in stalagmite fluid inclusions, pp

 123–153.
- 501 (35) Brennwald, M. S.; Imboden, D. M.; Kipfer, R. Release of gas bubbles from lake sediment 502 traced by noble gas isotopes in the sediment pore water. *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett.* **2005**, 503 235, 31–44.
- 504 (36) Brennwald, M.; Vogel, N.; Scheidegger, Y.; Tomonaga, Y.; Livingstone, D.; Kipfer, R.
 505 The Noble Gases as Geochemical Tracers; Springer, 2013; pp 123–153.
- 506 (37) Kampbell, D.; Wilson, J. T.; Vandegrift, S. Dissolved oxygen and methane in water by
 a GC headspace equilibration technique. *Int. J. Environ. An. Ch.* **1989**, *36*, 249–257.
- 508 (38) Beyerle, U.; Aeschbach-Hertig, W.; Imboden, D. M.; Baur, H.; Graf, T.; Kipfer, R.

 A mass spectrometric system for the analysis of noble gases and tritium from water

 samples. Env. Sci. Technol. 2000, 34, 2042–2050.
- (39) Kipfer, R. Primordiale Edelgase als Tracer für Fluide aus dem Erdmantel. Ph.D. thesis,
 ETH Zürich, 1991.
- 513 (40) Ince, N. H.; Belen, R. Aqueous phase disinfection with power ultrasound: process

 514 kinetics and effect of solid catalysts. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2001**, *35*, 1885–1888.
- 515 (41) Sarsan, S. Effect of storage of water in different metal vessels on coliforms. *Int. J. Curr.*516 *Microbiol. App. Sci* **2013**, 2, 24–29.
- ⁵¹⁷ (42) Colt, J. Dissolved Gas Concentration in Water: Computation as Functions of Temper-⁵¹⁸ ature, Salinity and Pressure; Elsevier, 2012.
- (43) Brennwald, M. S.; Hofer, M.; Kipfer, R. Simultaneous Analysis of Noble Gases, Sulfur
 Hexafluoride, and Other Dissolved Gases in Water. Environ. Sci. Technol. 2013, 47,
 8599–8608.

- 522 (44) Diem, T.; Koch, S.; Schwarzenbach, S.; Wehrli, B.; Schubert, C. Greenhouse gas emis-523 sions (CO2, CH4, and N2O) from several perialpine and alpine hydropower reservoirs 524 by diffusion and loss in turbines. *Aquat. Sci.* **2012**, *74*, 619–635.
- ⁵²⁵ (45) Ostrovsky, I. Fish and methane bubbles in aquatic ecosystems: hydroacoustic separa-⁵²⁶ tion and quantification. *Verhandlungen: Proceedings. Travaux* **2009**, *30*, 870.
- 527 (46) Tyroller, L.; Brennwald, M. S.; Ndayisaba, C.; Tomonaga, Y.; Kipfer, R. Linking noble 528 gas and CH4 concentrations in the sediment porewater of Lake Lungern, Switzerland. 529 Limnol. Oceanogr.: Methods 2013, 9, 42–49.
- (47) Duc, N. T.; Crill, P.; Bastviken, D. Implications of temperature and sediment characteristics on methane formation and oxidation in lake sediments. *Biogeochemistry* 2010, 100, 185–196.
- (48) 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.
- (49) Holzner, C.; Tomonaga, Y.; Stöckli, A.; Denecke, N.; Kipfer, R. Using noble gases to
 analyze the efficiency of artificial aeration in Lake Hallwil, Switzerland. Water Resour.
 Res. 2012, 48.
- 540 (50) Sander, R. Compilation of Henry's law constants for inorganic and organic species of 541 potential importance in environmental chemistry. 1999.
- ⁵⁴² (51) Pennington, W.; Cambray, R.; Eakins, J.; Harkness, D. Radionuclide dating of the recent sediments of Blelham Tarn. *Freshwater Biology* **1976**, *6*, 317–331.
- 544 (52) Tomonaga, Y.; Brennwald, M. S.; Meydan, A. F.; Kipfer, R. Noble gases in the sed-

- iments of Lake Van–solute transport and palaeoenvironmental reconstruction. *Quat.*Sci. Rev. **2014**, 104, 117–126.
- (53) Tomonaga, Y.; Brennwald, M. S.; Kipfer, R. Attenuation of diffusive noble-gas transport
 in laminated sediments of the Stockholm Archipelago. *Limmnol. Oceanogr.* 2015, 60,
 497–511.