



Dynamics and controls of inland water CH₄ emissions across the Conterminous United States: 1860-2019

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ABSTRACT

Inland waters (rivers, lakes, and reservoirs) have been recognized as hotspots of methane (CH₄) emissions. However, the magnitude and spatiotemporal pattern of CH₄ emissions and their underlying mechanisms remain largely unknown due to a lack of process-based quantification of CH₄ production, consumption, and evasion within the aquatic ecosystem. Here we developed a process-based aquatic CH₄ module within the framework of the Dynamic Land Ecosystem Model (DLEM) to explicitly simulate inland water carbon fluxes and the associated CH₄ processes. We further applied this model to assess the inland-water CH₄ emissions across the conterminous United States (CONUS) as affected by the climate variability, land use, fertilizer nitrogen (N) application, atmospheric N deposition, and rising atmospheric CO₂ concentration during 1860-2019. The inland water CH₄ emissions across the CONUS had doubled from the 1860s (1.65±0.18 Tg CH₄-C·yr⁻¹) to the 2010s (3.73±0.36 Tg CH₄-C·yr⁻¹). In the 2000s, inland water accounts for 8% of the regional CH₄ budget that offsets 11~14% of the terrestrial C uptake across the CONUS. Our study showed that the small headwater streams (1st–3rd order) account for 49% of the diffusive CH₄, and reservoirs constitute 50% of the ebullitive CH₄ emissions during the 2010s. Climate change and variability played a dominant role in the increased CH₄ emissions from rivers and lakes. This study implies that effective mitigation strategies to reduce CH₄ emissions should pay much attention to global climate change and headwater stream management.

1. Introduction

Inland waters, including rivers, lakes, and reservoirs, cover 2% of the Earth's surface (Aflen and Pavelsky, 2018), but play a disproportionate role in climate change. For example, inland water CO₂ emission was estimated as high as 2.1 Pg C, roughly 20% of the global net ecosystem productivity (Friedlingstein et al., 2019; Raymond et al., 2013). Methane (CH₄), another energetic end-product of ecosystem respiration, also pervasively presents in both fluvial and flentic systems, and its magnitude constitutes an neglectable portion (~10%) of the regional greenhouse gas (GHGs) budget (Xu et al., 2016). A recent study suggested that the global-warming potential (GWP) of freshwater CH₄ emission is comparable to ~25% of the terrestrial C sink (Bastviken et al., 2011). Hence, it is essential to develop reliable approaches to

accurately estimate inland water CH₄ emissions to close the large gap in CH₄ budget derived from bottom-up and top-down approaches (Saunofis et al., 2019).

Due to the lack of direct measurements and its complexity of biogeochemical CH₄ processes in aquatic system, the estimation of CH₄ emissions from inland waters is still poorly constrained (Trimmer et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2016). A few studies have used bootstrapping methods to roughly extrapolate CH₄ emissions from inland waters at the global scale (Bastviken et al., 2011, 2004; Beaulieu et al., 2020; Deemer et al., 2016; Deemer and Hofgerson, 2021; Hofgerson and Raymond, 2016); however, those estimates were reached based on unevenly distributed observational data, which brought much biases into the final budgets. Other regional studies introduced more geophysical and geochemical variables, including reservoir age, temperature, organic C, chlorophyll,

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and lake bathymetry, to generate empirical equations for estimating the CH_4 emission (Abbas et al., 2020; Afimefide et al., 2019; Beau affieu et al., 2019; Rasanen et al., 2018). Due to the over-simplification of the terrestrial and aquatic processes in those empirical models, their reliability may be hampered when applying at long-term or large spatial scale (McMurfin, 1968).

The major pathways and processes of aquatic CH_4 dynamics can be classified as production (methanogenesis), oxidation, degassing, and lateral transport. Acetoclastic methanogenesis, known as CH_4 production from acetate, account for 50–90% of the CH_4 production, while other pathways are considered as minor contributors (Xu et al., 2016). Oxidation is another important process for CH_4 loss that occurs under aerobic and anaerobic conditions. It should be noted that a large portion of CH_4 is emitted via aerenchyma within wetlands while ebullition dominates the CH_4 transport in inland waters and CH_4 must pass the oxidative death-trap of oxygenated water populated by methanotrophs (Deemer et al., 2016; Deutzmann et al., 2014; Prairie and del Gaudio, 2013). Besides, the physical processes, including the delivery of CH_4 from upstream to downstream regions, and the outgases can occur via diffusion and ebullition (Stanley et al., 2016).

There are a number of controlling factors on CH_4 dynamics in inland water. The concentrations of dissolved organic C (DOC) and organic content in bottom sediment are considered the most prevalent indicators of methanogenesis (Crawford et al., 2014, 2013). Water temperature is also a strong predictor; for example, the seasonality in CH_4 flux has been found to be associated with air temperature (Campeau and del Gaudio, 2014; Sivilnovich et al., 2008). The terminal electron acceptors (TEAs) and nutrients can suppress methanogenesis and/or stimulate methanotrophy (Bodelier and Steenbergh, 2014). Meanwhile, the controls associated with methanogenesis, such as geomorphology, shallow groundwater flow, hyporheic exchange, and damming, can affect the lateral transport of organic C substances and CH_4 dynamics (Maavara et al., 2020). Collectively, the rapid changes in the environmental conditions of the aquatic ecosystem and its upstream landscape, have the potential to stimulate transient and long-term environmental gradients that can drive biogeochemical activities associated with CH_4 dynamics.

A few modeling studies have been carried to estimate aquatic CH_4 dynamics driven by environmental change (Segers & Kengen, 1998; Stepanenko et al., 2011; Stepanenko et al., 2016). These models can well capture the temporal patterns of CH_4 concentration and emission from lakes at the site level. However, the model performances were of inferior quality due to a poor representation of organic C input from the upstream landscape (Tan et al., 2015). Since most of the C substances of lakes and reservoirs originate from rivers, quantifying riverine C transport and understanding the controlling factors of C loading from the upstream are essential for large-scale modeling. However, none of the existing process-based CH_4 models have fully incorporated river channel routing and lateral C transporting.

Rivers not only act as aforementioned conduits, which bring reactive organic C into lakes, reservoirs, and the coastal ecosystems but also function as potent CH_4 generators and processors. A meta-data analysis quantified the diffusive and ebullitive CH_4 fluxes and suggested that riverine CH_4 emission is comparable to 15% ~ 40% of the CH_4 emissions from wetland or lakes (Stanley et al., 2016). Moreover, it has been suggested that CH_4 decreased exponentially with the increase in stream order, similar to CO_2 and N_2O (Li et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2020). To address the gaps in modeling small stream greenhouse gas emissions, we coupled our land model (Dynamic Land Ecosystem Model, DLEM) to a scale adaptive water transport scheme (Yao et al., 2021a). This model can explicitly represent the large emissions of greenhouse gas in small streams through a sub-grid process in a large-scale channel routing framework (Yao et al., 2021b, 2020).

Following our previous model improvement, in this study, we nested lakes and reservoirs into the channel routing scheme and developed an inland water CH_4 module. The specific objectives of this study include (1) providing a first process-based estimation of the CH_4 emissions from

rivers, lakes, and reservoirs; (2) identifying hotspots of inland water CH_4 emissions; (3) attributing the changes in inland water CH_4 emission during 1860–2019 to climate variability, CO_2 concentration, land-use change, N deposition, and N applications; (4) discussing the uncertainties of the modeled CH_4 emissions.

2. Methods

2.1. Dynamic land ecosystem model (DLEM)

The land component of the DLEM (version 2.0) provides terrestrial C loadings, runoff, and initial CH_4 inputs for the aquatic model (Fig. S1a). DLEM is a process-based terrestrial ecosystem model that represents plant physiology, soil biogeochemistry, and the associated terrestrial C–N–water cycles driven by climate forcing, land-use change, N deposition, and nitrogen applications (Tian et al., 2015a, 2020). The plant physiological component in the DLEM simulates photosynthesis, respiration, and C, nitrogen allocations among root, stem, and leaf. The C and nutrient fluxes in soil are controlled by soil moisture and temperature with well-calibrated parameters.

Consequently, the aquatic component of the DLEM model receives inputs from the land module (including runoff, C loadings, and N loadings to rivers) and explicitly simulate channel routing and aquatic biogeochemical processes (Tian et al., 2015b, 2020). Specifically, the DLEM model was fully coupled with a sub-grid channel routing scheme that can well capture small stream processes at a large spatial scale (Yao et al., 2020, 2021a, 2021b). Following this improvement, we incorporated lakes and reservoirs into the channel routing scheme and coupled a reservoir operation module with DLEM. More details refers to the channel routing scheme and the associated hydrological inputs can be found in Text S2 and S3.

2.2. Inland water CH_4 module

An inland water CH_4 module (Fig. 1) was developed within the aquatic biogeochemical component DLEM (Text S3) (Yao et al., 2021). Here we deployed a mass balance equation to represent lateral transport, oxidation, and diffusive and ebullitive emissions of CH_4 in inland waters:

$$\frac{\Delta M_{\text{diff } \text{CH}_4}}{\Delta t} = F_a + Y_w + D - R - E \quad (1)$$

where $M_{\text{diff } \text{CH}_4}$ is the total mass of dissolved CH_4 in the main channel or subnetworks ($\text{gCH}_4\text{-C}$), Δt is time step (d), F_a is advective CH_4 fluxes ($\text{gCH}_4\text{-C}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$), Y_w is CH_4 production within the water column ($\text{gCH}_4\text{-C}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$), D is the dissolved CH_4 in rainfall added to rivers ($\text{gCH}_4\text{-C}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$) with an initial concentration equals to the air equilibrium CH_4 concentration, R represents the CH_4 oxidation ($\text{gCH}_4\text{-C}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$), and E is riverine CH_4 emissions ($\text{gCH}_4\text{-C}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$) on the air–water interface. The detailed information refers to each component in equation #1 can be found in Text S3. The rationalities of the critical parameters associated with the aquatic model are given in Table S1.

3. Model input data and simulation protocol

3.1. Model driving forces

We developed a 5 arc-min resolution dataset to represent the century-long environmental change, including land-use conversion, climate variability, atmospheric CO_2 concentration, N deposition, N fertilizer, and manure N application and generated a hydrological dataset for conducting the water transport model (Table S2).

To represent a sub-grid level of land-use change, we developed land-use cohort data which contains four natural vegetations, one cropland type, and several non-vegetation types (impervious surface, lake, river,

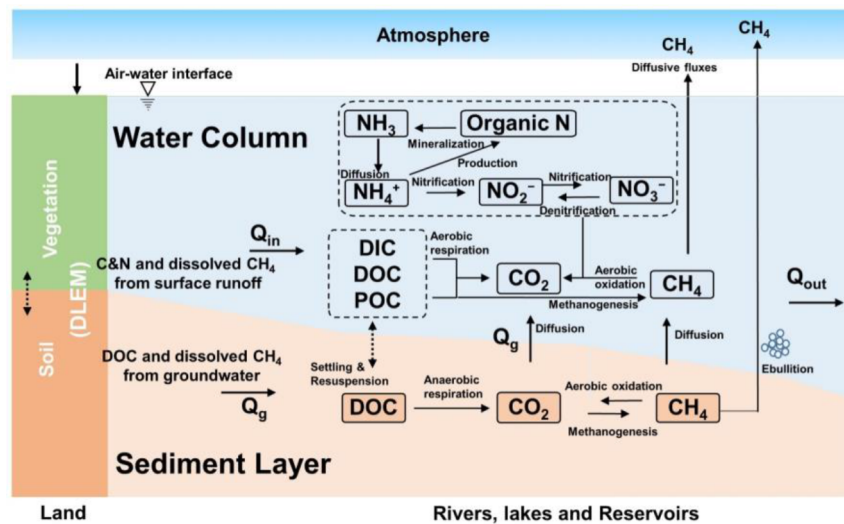


Fig. 1. The schematic framework of the aquatic CH₄ module within the Dynamic Land Ecosystem Model (DLEM).

and bare ground) within a 5 arc-min grid. We generated a potential vegetation map following the procedure in Liu et al. (2013), which combines natural vegetation information primarily from the National Land Cover Database (NLCD) (Homer et al., 2015), North American Land Cover (Cofield et al., 2012), Global C4 vegetation map (Stall et al., 2003) (Fig. S2 and S3). We used a 1-km resolution cropland data spanning from 1850 to 2016 to harmonize the changes in the natural vegetation (Yu and Lu, 2018) using potential vegetation information as a base map. This data capture the west-wards cropland expansion and the encroachment of grassland and forest during the last century due to the growing food demand. At the same period, large areas of the Eastern US, e.g., in the Appalachians and New England, have reverted to the forest (Fig. 2e).

The climate datasets, including daily precipitation minimum, mean and maximum temperature, shortwave radiation, and wind speed from 1979 to 2019, were obtained from GRIDMET (Abatzoglou, 2013). We downscaled 0.5-degree gridded data of climate variables, including the

dataset of the Climatic Research Unit and National Centers for Environmental Prediction (CRUNCEP) from 1901 to 1979 (Vivioy, 2018) and the Institute Pierre Simon Laplace (IPSL) dataset from 1860 to 1900 (Boucher et al., 2018). The spatially averaged annual precipitation has increased significantly ($p < 0.05$ in the Mann-Kendall test) since the 1900s with a rate of $0.62 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{yr}^{-2}$, while much of the US west of the Rockies has had a complex history and drought. The annual mean air temperature showed a significant ($p < 0.05$ in Mann-Kendall test) increasing trend with a rate of $0.073^\circ\text{C} \cdot (10\text{-yr})^{-1}$ (Fig. 2d). The annually atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄ concentrations were obtained from the Advanced Global Atmospheric Gases Experiment (AGAGE) dataset (Prinn et al., 2018) (Fig. S4).

We developed a collection of gridded N inputs over the CONUS starting from the pre-industrial period (Fig. 2b). N fertilizer application (Cao et al., 2018) constitutes most of the N inputs to the agricultural ecosystem (Fig. 2b). The secondary N input, N deposition in both oxidized N (NO_x) and reduced N (NH_x) phase, was obtained from

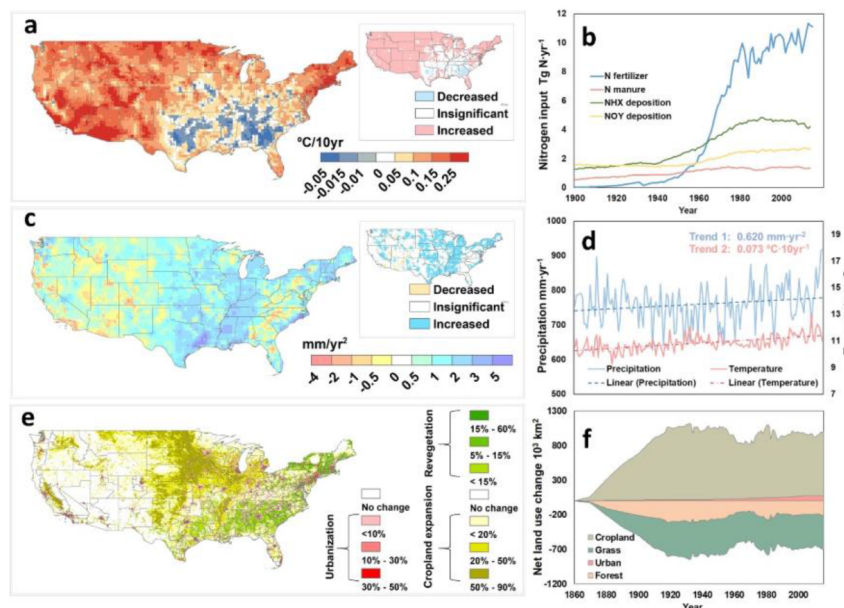


Fig. 2. Model driving forces for DLEM simulations. (a), (c) Spatial pattern of long-term changes in annual mean temperature and annual total precipitation from 1860 to 2019. (b) The temporal patterns of nitrogen inputs to the terrestrial ecosystem across the contiguous United States from 1900 to 2016. (d) The temporal patterns of annual total precipitation and mean air temperature from 1900 to 2019. (e), (f) Spatial and temporal pattern of land-use change during 1860-2016.

Chemistry-Climate Model Initiative (CCMI) (Eyring et al., 2013). The manure N application (Zhang et al., 2017b) presents a continuous increase during the past 120 years.

3.2. Simulation experiments

The DLEM simulation follows three steps (Fig. S5): (1) an equilibrium run for each grid cell by holding the land use, CO₂ concentration, and N input unchanged at the level of 1860. The balance run finished when the C, N, and water pools reached a steady state with the decadal changes in C, N, water budget do not exceed a predefined threshold (1 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹, 1 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹ and 1 mm yr⁻¹, respectively). (2) A transient run, with all the forcing changing over time, followed by a 30-year spinning-up run randomly selecting climate forces within 1860–1870 (Thornton and Rosenbloom, 2005; Tian et al., 2012). We need to close the dam module during this run to quantify the natural flow of each grid. (3). Another transient run with the dam module was conducted using natural flow quantified in step 2 as model input.

To investigate how environmental factors could influence inland water CH₄ emissions, we conducted factorial simulation experiments by holding each environmental factor (including climate change, land-use change, N deposition, N management, and atmospheric CO₂ concentration) at 1860 (S2–S6, Table 1). The S1 is the all-combined simulation with all the driving forces changing over time. By comparing S2 with S1 (all combined run), we obtained the contribution of climate variability to the inland water CH₄ emissions. The comparison between S3 and S1 informed the effect of elevated CO₂ on inland water CH₄ emission. By subtracting S3 from S1, we derived the development of NO_y and NH_x depositions on the terrestrial ecosystem and the consequent inland water CH₄ emission. The difference between S1 and S4 revealed the fertilizer N and manure N application effect. S5 subtracted by S1 informed to what extent the land-use conversion can influence inland water CH₄ emission.

3.3. Model evaluation

To evaluate the model performance in predicting C fluxes and CH₄ emissions, the DLEM-simulated C concentrations were compared to the long-term riverine C fluxes obtained from USGS. Our results showed that the simulated riverine C fluxes (DOC, TOC, and DIC) agreed well with the observations. The simulated riverine C fluxes can also be evaluated as satisfactory, with the average R² reaching 0.6 and the average NSE values ranging from 0.3–0.4 (Fig. S6, S7, and S8) (Moriasi et al., 2015).

We compared the model-estimated CH₄ fluxes against the observations of riverine CH₄ fluxes collected from Stanley et al. (2016) and lake CH₄ fluxes collected from Deemer et al. (2016) (Fig. 3b, c, d). The

Table 1

The simulation experimental design for attributing the contribution of natural and anthropogenic factors, including climate, atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂), nitrogen deposition (NDEP), nitrogen management (N fertilizer and manure), to the inland water CH₄ emissions.

Experiments	Environmental factors				
	Climate	CO ₂	NDEP	N management	Land-use
S1	1860–2019	1860–2016	1860–2005	1860–2013	1860–2016
S2	1860–2019	1860–2016	1860–2005	1860–2013	1860
S3	1860–2019	1860–2016	1860–2005	1860	1860–2016
S4	1860–2019	1860–2016	1860	1860–2013	1860–2016
S5	1860–2019	1860	1860–2005	1860–2013	1860–2016
S6	1860	1860–2016	1860–2005	1860–2013	1860–2016

comparisons (most of the R² > 0.6) suggested that DLEM could capture the spatial pattern of diffusive and ebullitive CH₄ emissions across the CONUS.

4. Results

4.1. Contemporary inland water CH₄ budget

Our study provides the first model-based estimation of the total inland water CH₄ budget across the CONUS (Fig. 4). In the 2010s, small streams emitted 0.61 ± 0.09 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹, corresponding to 49% of the inland water diffusive CH₄ emissions, followed by 0.37 ± 0.04 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ from high-order streams (31%), 0.14 ± 0.01 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ from reservoirs (12%), and 0.9 ± 0.01 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ from lakes (8%). Most of the diffusive CH₄ originated from terrestrial input (0.93 ± 0.15 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹), and about 0.25 ± 0.01 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ of dissolved CH₄ was a byproduct of respiration in the water column. Besides the loss terms as emission, the magnitude of CH₄ oxidation (0.15 ± 0.015 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹) and export (0.006 ± 0.001 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹) only have minor contributions to the overall inland water CH₄ budget. For CH₄ emission in ebullition pathways, reservoirs (1.31 ± 0.11 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹, corresponding to 50%) contribute half of the surface emission, followed by natural lakes (0.94 ± 0.17 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹, about 37%), and streams (in total 0.34 ± 0.03 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹, corresponding to 13%) (Fig. 4).

4.2. Long-term temporal patterns of inland water CH₄ emissions

Our results show that total inland water CH₄ emissions increased twofold from 1.65 ± 0.18 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ in the 1860s to 3.73 ± 0.36 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ in the 2010s (Table 2 and Fig. 5a). The riverine emission decreased from 0.96 ± 0.10 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ in the 1860s to 0.83 ± 0.06 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ in the 1950s and increased substantially to 1.29 ± 0.12 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ in the 2010s. The emissions from natural lakes showed similar temporal patterns, which substantially increased from 0.66 ± 0.08 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ in the 1860s to 1.03 ± 0.13 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ in the 2010s. The CH₄ emission from reservoirs showed a consistently increasing trend from 0.02 ± 0.01 in the 1860s to 1.40 ± 0.11 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ in the 2010s and finally surpassed the riverine CH₄ emissions in the same period.

The CH₄ emission in diffusion and ebullition pathways shows different temporal patterns. Rivers account for most of the diffusive CH₄ emissions, which decreased consistently from 0.74 ± 0.08 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ in the 1860s to 0.63 ± 0.06 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ in the 1950s, followed by a significant increase to 0.96 ± 0.12 Tg CH₄-C-yr⁻¹ in the 2010s (Fig. 5b). A similar temporal pattern could be found in diffusive CH₄ emissions from natural lakes. For the ebullition pathway, the lake emission is higher than that of the riverine emission, and they both show a significant increasing trend from the 1860s to the 2010s (Fig. 5c). It should be noted that the growing dam buildups remarkably increased the CH₄ emissions in both diffusive and ebullition pathways. Specifically, reservoir emission accounts for most of the ebullitive CH₄ emissions since the 1980s, while natural lakes dominate the ebullitive CH₄ emission before the 1960s.

4.3. Spatial patterns of inland water CH₄ emissions

The diffusion and ebullition pathways of inland water CH₄ emissions were largely varied across the CONUS. The southeastern and northeast regions are hotspots of diffusive inland water CH₄ emissions due to the high productivity and large DOC leaching in forest ecosystems (Fig. 6, Fig. S2). The diffusive CH₄ emission in these two regions declined substantially from the 1860s to the 1950s, followed by a remarkable increase from the 1950s to the 2010s (Fig. 6a, c, and e). Besides, the diffusive CH₄ emission decreased significantly in the midwest US from the 1860s to the 1950s due to forest conversion to cropland. However, the midwest US became a significant source of diffusive CH₄ emission,

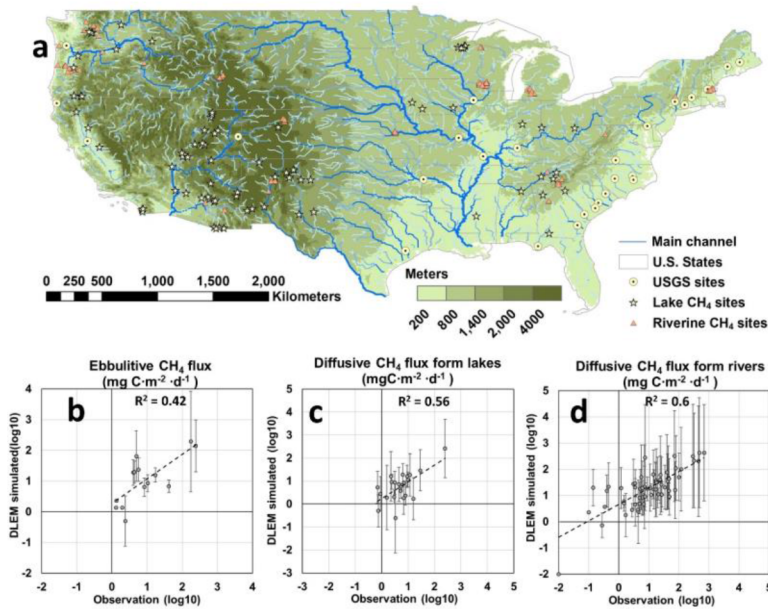


Fig. 3. Evaluation of DLEM-simulated inland water CH₄ fluxes against observations. (a) Location of observations for inland water CH₄ flux. Comparison of simulated CH₄ fluxes with observations of ebullitive CH₄ fluxes (b) from rivers and lakes, diffusive CH₄ fluxes from rivers (c) and lakes (d). We averaged the DLEM-simulated inland water CH₄ fluxes of the 2010s to compare with observations because most of the published data were collected during the contemporary period. Error bars show ±1 std of the CH₄ fluxes of the 2010s.

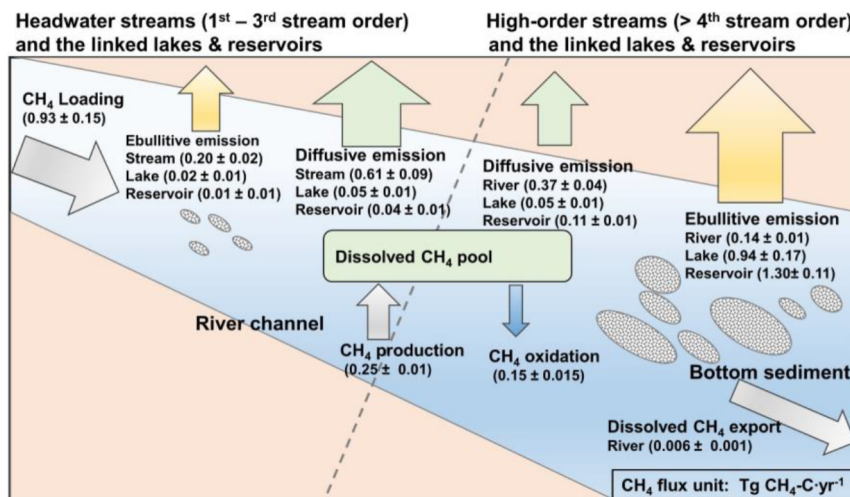


Fig. 4. Inland water CH₄ budget in the conterminous United States during 2010–2019 estimated by the Dynamic Land Ecosystem Model (DLEM).

Table 2

Inland water CH₄ emissions across the conterminous United States since the pre-industrial period (1860s) (Tg CH₄-C·yr⁻¹)

	Rivers	Lakes	Reservoirs	Sum
<i>Diffusive CH₄ emission</i>				
1860s	0.74 ± 0.08	0.10 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.00	0.84 ± 0.09
1950s	0.63 ± 0.06	0.08 ± 0.02	0.05 ± 0.01	0.76 ± 0.08
2000s	0.85 ± 0.09	0.08 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.01	1.06 ± 0.10
2010s	0.96 ± 0.11	0.09 ± 0.01	0.14 ± 0.01	1.20 ± 0.13
<i>Ebullitive CH₄ emission</i>				
1860s	0.15 ± 0.03	0.56 ± 0.07	0.01 ± 0.00	0.73 ± 0.11
1950s	0.20 ± 0.01	0.58 ± 0.11	0.21 ± 0.04	0.99 ± 0.17
2000s	0.28 ± 0.02	0.72 ± 0.07	0.96 ± 0.12	1.96 ± 0.20
2010s	0.33 ± 0.03	0.93 ± 0.12	1.26 ± 0.11	2.53 ± 0.26
<i>Total inland water CH₄ emission</i>				
1860s	0.96 ± 0.10	0.66 ± 0.08	0.02 ± 0.01	1.65 ± 0.18
1950s	0.83 ± 0.06	0.66 ± 0.12	0.27 ± 0.05	1.76 ± 0.23
2000s	1.13 ± 0.10	0.81 ± 0.07	1.09 ± 0.12	3.02 ± 0.29
2010s	1.29 ± 0.12	1.03 ± 0.13	1.40 ± 0.11	3.73 ± 0.36

possibly driven by warming temperature (Fig. 6a, c, and e). The western and southwest regions have minor contributions to the diffusive CH₄ emissions primarily due to the dry climate condition and the extensive distribution of grassland and shrubland, which lead to a low DOC loading. The midwestern, northeastern, and southeastern regions dominated the ebullitive CH₄ emissions. Crop land expansion drove increases in ebullitive inland water CH₄ emission in the Midwest from the 1860s to the 2010s (Fig. 2e, Fig. 6b, d, and f). Although the Southeast and Northwest experienced intensive revegetation efforts, the ebullitive CH₄ emission still increased consistently from the 1860s to the 2010s.

4.4. Factorial contribution of environmental factors to inland CH₄ emissions.

Climate variability dominated the variation in total inland water CH₄ emission. The diffusive and ebullitive emission increased by 1.1 Tg CH₄-C·yr⁻¹ and 0.42 Tg CH₄-C·yr⁻¹ due to climatic variability from the 1860s to the 2010s (Fig. 7). Fertilizer N application plays a substantial role in increasing inland water CH₄ emissions, mainly starting from the 1960s, which induced about 0.17 Tg CH₄-C·yr⁻¹ and 0.05 Tg CH₄-

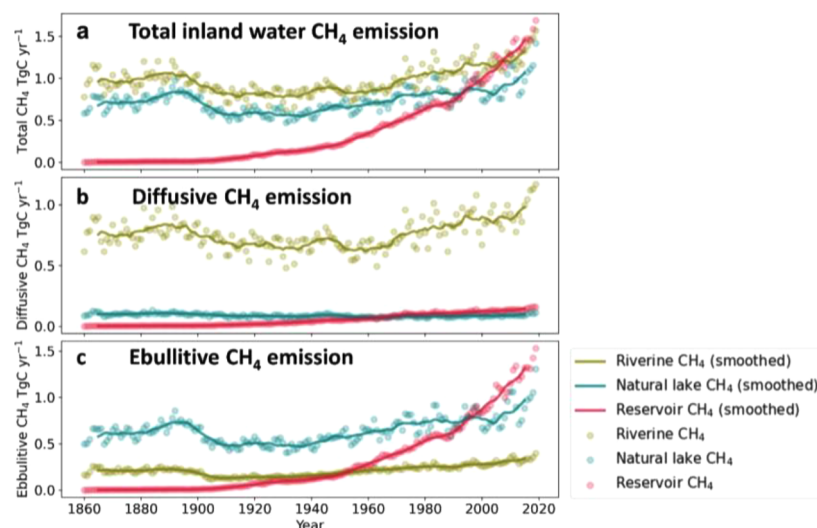


Fig. 5. The long-term trajectories of inland water CH_4 emissions across the Conterminous United States during 1860–2019. (a) Total CH_4 emissions, (b) diffusive CH_4 emission, and (c) ebullitive CH_4 emission.

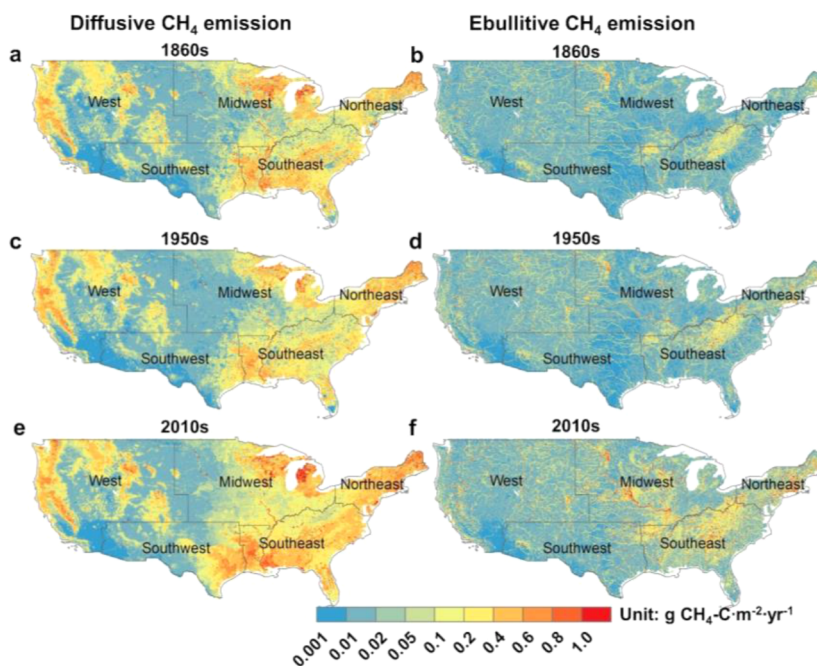


Fig. 6. The spatiotemporal patterns of CH_4 emissions from rivers, lakes, and reservoirs across the conterminous United States. Diffusive emission during the 1860s (a), 1950s (c) and 2010s (e). Ebullitive emission during the 1860s (b), the 1950s (d), and the 2010s (f).

$\text{C}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$ increase of CH_4 emissions in diffusive and ebullitive pathways, respectively. The overall contribution of land conversion on inland water CH_4 emission remained minor ($0.06 \text{ Tg CH}_4\text{-C}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$) since the 1860s because of the different effect of land-use conversion on CH_4 diffusion and ebullition. Furthermore, from the 1860s to the 2010s, N deposition stimulated CH_4 emission by $0.06 \text{ Tg CH}_4\text{-C}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$, while the elevated CO_2 suppressed CH_4 emission by $0.04 \text{ Tg CH}_4\text{-C}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$.

5. Discussions

5.1. Roles of inland water CH_4 emissions in the regional GHG budget

Our study suggests that inland water CH_4 emissions play an important role in the regional GHG budget. The total C uptake of the whole CONUS region was estimated as $960 \text{ Tg CO}_{2\text{eq}}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$ (Hayes et al., 2018).

The DLEM estimated inland water CH_4 emission corresponds to $109.5\sim 135.3 \text{ Tg CO}_{2\text{eq}}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$ ($3.02\sim 3.73 \text{ Tg CH}_4\text{-C}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$) during the 2000s–2010s (the 100-yr global warming potential, hereafter refers as GWP-100, of CH_4 is 27.2 times of CO_2 (IPCC, 2021)), offsetting 11–14% of the C uptake across the United States.

Inland water CH_4 emission was missing from the recently released CH_4 budget (Saunofis et al., 2019). However, it can help reconcile the imbalance between top-down and bottom-up CH_4 budgets. The CH_4 emission of all the natural sectors across the United States was estimated as $37.8 \text{ Tg CH}_4\text{-C}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$ in the 2000s, based on the ensemble results using bottom-up approaches (here, we only compared the budget in the 2000s because the published budget was only updated to 2017). The inland water CH_4 emission (DLEM estimated as $3.02 \text{ Tg CH}_4\text{-C}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$ in the 2000s) constitute 8% of the total CH_4 emission in the United States.

The inland water CH_4 emission had a much higher increase than CH_4

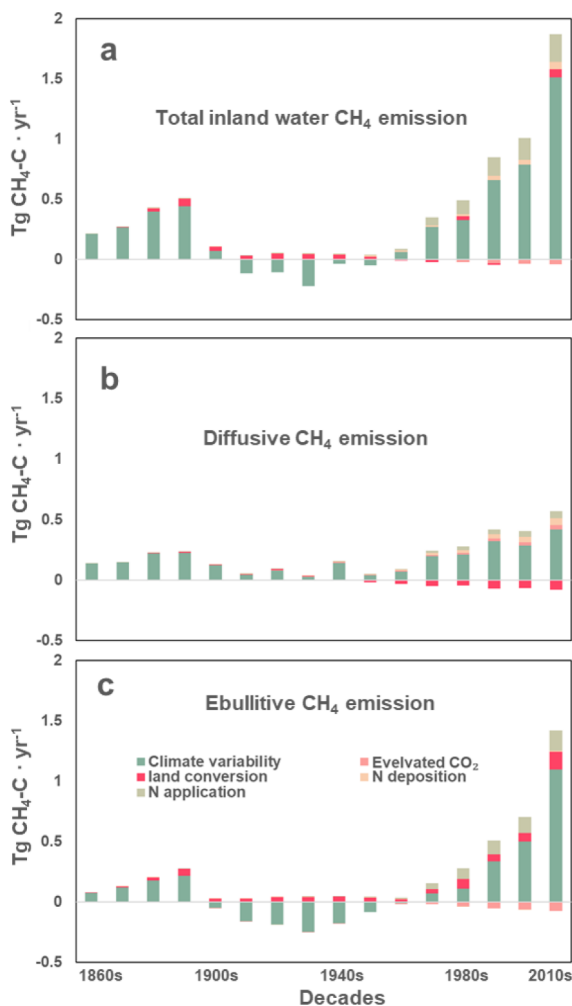


Fig. 7. Contribution of climate, CO₂, N deposition, N application, and land conversion to the total inland water CH₄ emissions (a), diffusive CH₄ emissions (b), and ebullitive emissions (c) across the conterminous United States.

emissions in other natural sectors in the United States. For example, our previous studies found a slight increase in CH₄ emissions from the terrestrial ecosystem during 1979–2008 (Tian et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2010). In this study, the DLEM simulated inland water CH₄ emission significantly increased from the 1950s to the 2010s. Additionally, we found a striking rise in inland water CH₄ emissions (24%) from the 2000s to the 2010s, which is faster than the average increasing rate (~10%) from all the sectors reported in the Global CH₄ budget (Saunofis et al., 2019).

5.2. Comparison between global and CONUS CH₄ fluxes

By comparing with previous studies, we can evaluate the reliability of our model in estimating CH₄ emissions from rivers, lakes, and reservoirs, respectively. As no study has reported a comprehensive evaluation of inland water CH₄ emission across the CONUS, we extrapolated the estimates of the CONUS from the studies using the bootstrapping method at the global level.

The river surface area of the CONUS (0.028 10⁶ km²) (Butman et al., 2016; Stackpoole et al., 2017) occupies ~4.5% of the global total (0.62 10⁶ km²) (Butman and Raymond, 2011; Raymond et al., 2013). We extrapolated that the diffusive riverine CH₄ emission could be as high as 0.9 Tg CH₄-C · yr⁻¹ for the CONUS based on Stanley et al.'s (2016) study (Global CH₄ fluxes estimation used stream area method: 26.8 Tg CH₄ · yr⁻¹), which is comparable to our estimation (0.85 ~ 0.96 Tg

CH₄-C · yr⁻¹ during the 2000s ~ 2010s). The lake surface area of the CONUS (0.12–0.13 10⁶ km²) (Cavallaro et al., 2018) constitutes 2.2 ~ 3.4% of the global total (lakes and ponds: 3.85–5.36 10⁶ km²) (Deemer et al., 2016). The estimated lake CH₄ emission across the CONUS was 1.4 ~ 2.2 Tg CH₄-C · yr⁻¹ in Deemer et al. (2016) (global estimation is about 65.7 Tg CH₄-C · yr⁻¹), which is slightly lower than our estimation (1.9 ~ 2.4 Tg CH₄-C · yr⁻¹) in natural lakes and reservoirs during the 2000s ~ 2010s). This slight difference may be due to the different data of wetlands and natural lakes (Zhang et al., 2017a). It should be noted that the DLEM estimated wetland CH₄ emission (4.5 Tg CH₄-C · yr⁻¹) was significantly lower than the results ensembled from multiple terrestrial ecosystem models (6.1 Tg CH₄-C · yr⁻¹) (Saunofis et al., 2019) as the small wetland area in the Global Lakes and Wetland Database (GLWD) data (Lehner and Döll, 2004) used by DLEM.

5.3. Key drivers of human-enhanced inland waters CH₄ emissions

Inevitably, human activities have induced a significant temporal gradient of organic C and nutrient loading from land and changes in aquatic biogeochemistry, directly or indirectly affecting the inland water CH₄ emissions. To reach a comprehensive view of human-induced inland water CH₄ emissions, we selected five drivers in our attribution analysis, including climate variability, land-use conversion, land nutrient management efforts, CO₂ concentration, and N deposition (Fig. 7).

Results from previous fieldwork and modeling efforts agree that organic C is the determinant indicator of methanogenesis under a changing climate (Deemer and Hofgerson, 2021). The DLEM-based analysis showed that climate variability dominated the temporal variations of both diffusive and ebullitive CH₄ emissions (Figs. 4 and 7), which can be explained by the changes in C loadings in the previous DLEM-based studies (Tian et al., 2015c; Yao et al., 2021). Specifically, the long-term warming air temperature would exponentially boost all chemical reactions and the relevant C cycling processes (Vitousek and Howarth, 1991), which helps explain the increasing inland water CH₄ emissions since the 1960s (Fig. 5). Additionally, the changes in terrestrial C can affect the magnitude of reactive C run off from the soil surface and thus the inland water CH₄ dynamics (Yao et al., 2021). Meanwhile, the temperature dependence of CH₄ dynamics suggests that climate change mitigation needs to be considered to lower the current level of inland water CH₄ emissions.

As suggested by the DLEM simulation, land conversions also significantly impact both diffusive and ebullitive CH₄ emissions (Fig. 7). This finding has been validated by research on streams where the trapped fine sediment from cropland soil stimulated a 100-fold increase in the CH₄ emission (Sanders et al., 2007). The CONUS experienced a massive land conversion from forest to cropland during the last century (Fig. 2e, f), which substantially increased DOC loading due to the high soil erosion rate of cropland (Van Oost et al., 2007) (Fig. 7c and d). Further, deforestation can significantly decrease the soil filter pool, suddenly decreasing the DOC loadings and thus suppressing diffusive CH₄ emissions.

The DLEM simulation demonstrates that N deposition and N application increased inland water CH₄ emissions (Fig. 7). For the terrestrial ecosystem, external N inputs would promote plant growth, increasing soil organic C and the associated C loading (Tian et al., 2015a). DLEM model can well capture the aforementioned phenomenon (Tian et al., 2015a; Tian et al., 2015b; Yao et al., 2021), and this finding can be supported by the observation-based analysis conducted at the basin level (Findlay, 2005; Hagedorn et al., 2002). For the aquatic ecosystem, nutrient loading can stimulate CH₄ oxidation in waters, which can substantially mitigate the positive effect of the N-induced C loading (Chapra, 2008).

DLEM simulations show that the elevated CO₂ concentration has reduced DOC loading and inland water CH₄ emissions, which is confirmed by the δ¹³C signature in a forest landscape (Hagedorn et al.,

2002). However, the contribution of elevated CO_2 is small compared to the climatic effect. We also noted that inland water CH_4 has had a striking increasing rate since the 1960s due to multiple human activities. While the CH_4 emission from the terrestrial ecosystem is much smaller, possibly due to the significant wetland loss during the 20th century (Zedler, 2004).

5.4. Importance of channel routing and grid-based modeling

By coupling terrestrial and aquatic processes, our model shows obvious advancement in accessing cascading effect of terrestrial processes, including land-use change, and N fertilizer applications, on different aquatic systems. The first process-based characterization of the diffusive CH_4 emission from headwater streams will help field scientists to measure relevant processes controlling this large emission. Headwater streams account for most diffusive CH_4 emissions, supported by a recent data-based analysis (Li et al., 2021). In theory, significant greenhouse gas can be produced in the hyporheic zone which is located at the interface between groundwater and surface water of the headwater zones (Hofgerson & Raymond, 2016; Marzadri et al., 2014, 2021; Rasfio et al., 2017). The hyporheic exchange between groundwater and surface water provides a favorable condition for CH_4 production due to the flow oxygen level (Marzadri et al., 2014; Ruflik et al., 2000). Additionally, since most of the diffusive CH_4 emission occurred from headwater streams, the previous modeling study using soil organic C map to substitute riverine C input may have overestimated the land process impact on the downstream channel and lake CH_4 emissions (Lu et al., 2016).

The grid-based modeling of channel routing helps capture the movement of water and POC from land to rivers, which explain the controls of upstream on the ebullition emission from the downstream river channel and the connected lakes (McGinnis et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2022). Moreover, the spatial resolution (5 arc-min) we used in our simulation is the highest compared with all the previous studies using bootstrapping approaches (Bastviken et al., 2011; Deemer et al., 2016; Deemer and Hofgerson, 2021; Rosentreter et al., 2021; Stanley et al., 2016), and the source data of our inputs are all generated from the finest grid data available for the CONUS (Table S2). However we should acknowledge that inland water CH_4 emission may still show variations (or locally controlled) within the grid cell we used.

5.5. Limitations and uncertainties

This study provided the first estimation of CH_4 dynamics in the inland waters within the CONUS by using a mechanistic modeling framework. A few limitations have been identified and will be addressed in our future work. First, the model involved empirical relationships to simplify the CH_4 -related processes within terrestrial and aquatic modules. Here we used an empirical equation to estimate the gas exchange rate (K_{600}) for all inland water bodies, which may result in large uncertainties. However, the estimation of gas exchange rate derived from different methods shows great variations (Table S3). Moreover, the gas exchange of small and mid-sized streams is mainly driven by turbulence, which requires more accurate geomorphological information about river channels to better constrain the estimation (Uflseth et al., 2019). Second, we used several empirical ratios to represent the CH_4 production and oxidation suggested by field experiments (Deutzmann et al., 2014; Goni and Thomas, 2000; McGinnis et al., 2015). Specifically, the mechanism of methanotrophy is still unclear, and its mechanistic representations are still lacking, which requires significant improvement in the future. Moreover, the parameters of the associated processes also have large uncertainties (Table S1), which requires more field measurements and in-situ experiments to better constrain the parameter values.

Third, we also need to acknowledge that we did not model the stratification of lakes and reservoirs in the current model version, which

may introduce uncertainties in our results. However, we still expect the current representation of C dynamics can effectively represent the drivers that control lacustrine CH_4 emissions (Yao et al., 2021b). Such as, the flower depth of lakes and reservoirs may occupy a higher POC deposition, which results in a significantly larger CH_4 emission (Deemer and Hofgerson, 2021; Li et al., 2020). The higher nutrient level could greatly enhance aquatic production and POC yield, promoting more CH_4 emissions (Fig. 7) (Beaulieu et al., 2019). Finally, model inputs can be another source of uncertainties. For instance, surface areas of rivers, lakes, and reservoirs, considered the most deterministic controlling factor for GHG emission, remain uncertain, especially for the headwater streams (Allen and Pavelsky, 2018). Although statistical-based methods have been developed to represent the dynamics of headwater streams, more measurements are still needed for different channel types and river ice cover.

6. Conclusion

Inland water CH_4 emission is a missing component of the global and regional greenhouse gas budget, and it has been recognized to offset a large portion of land C uptake. We improved the aquatic module within the DLEM framework and then applied it to investigate the century-long dynamics of the inland water CH_4 emissions across the CONUS. Overall, our results indicated that the inland water CH_4 emissions account for 8% of the regional CH_4 budget and can offset 11–14% of the C uptake across the United States. CH_4 emissions increased twofold from 1900 to 2020, primarily attributed to climate change and human activities. Additionally, the incorporation of channel routing into the simulation reported the relative role of small streams and large rivers, natural lakes, and reservoirs in inland water CH_4 emissions, suggesting the importance of small streams and reservoirs in the overall regional CH_4 emission from inland water systems. This mechanistic and full accounting of inland water CH_4 represents one of the first efforts in this direction, which provides valuable information for the climate mitigation practices across the CONUS.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data Availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.watres.2022.119043.

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