



Growing season methane emission from a boreal peatland in the continuous permafrost zone of Northeast China: effects of active layer depth and vegetation

Y. Miao^{1,2}, C. Song¹, L. Sun¹, X. Wang¹, H. Meng^{1,2}, and R. Mao¹

¹Northeast Institute of Geography and Agroecology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Changchun, Jilin, China

²Graduate University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China

Correspondence to: C. C. Song (songcc@neigae.ac.cn)

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Abstract. Boreal peatlands are significant natural sources of methane and especially vulnerable to abrupt climate change. However, the controlling factors of CH₄ emission in boreal peatlands are still unclear. In this study, we investigated CH₄ fluxes and abiotic factors (temperature, water table depth, active layer depth, and dissolved CH₄ concentrations in pore water) during the growing seasons in 2010 and 2011 in both shrub-sphagnum- and sedge-dominated plant communities in the continuous permafrost zone of Northeast China. The objective of our study was to examine the effects of vegetation types and abiotic factors on CH₄ fluxes from a boreal peatland. In an *Eriophorum*-dominated community, mean CH₄ emissions were 1.02 and 0.80 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ in 2010 and 2011, respectively. CH₄ fluxes (0.38 mg m⁻² h⁻¹) released from the shrub-mosses-dominated community were lower than that from *Eriophorum*-dominated community. Moreover, in the *Eriophorum*-dominated community, CH₄ fluxes showed a significant temporal pattern with a peak value in late August in both 2010 and 2011. However, no distinct seasonal variation was observed in the CH₄ flux in the shrub-mosses-dominated community. Interestingly, in both *Eriophorum*- and shrub-sphagnum-dominated communities, CH₄ fluxes did not show close correlation with air or soil temperature and water table depth, whereas CH₄ emissions correlated well to active layer depth and CH₄ concentration in soil pore water, especially in the *Eriophorum*-dominated community. Our results suggest that CH₄ released from the thawed CH₄-rich permafrost layer may be a key factor controlling CH₄ emissions in boreal peatlands, and highlight that CH₄ fluxes vary with vegetation type in boreal peatlands. With increas-

ing temperature in future climate patterns, increasing active layer depth and shifting plant functional groups in this region may have a significant effect on CH₄ emission.

1 Introduction

Methane (CH₄), as one of the most important greenhouse gases, is 25 times more effective in absorbing heat in the atmosphere than carbon dioxide (CO₂) on a 100-yr time horizon (IPCC, 2007). The atmospheric CH₄ abundance increased from 715 ppb in pre-industrial age to 1774 ppb in 2005. Increases in atmospheric CH₄ concentrations (148 %) are greater than the other two greenhouse gases (CO₂ 35 % and N₂O 18 %) over the same time period. In order to reduce uncertainties in future projections of Earth's climate change, the current global CH₄ budget should be better known. Denman et al. (2007) estimated that more than 580 Tg yr⁻¹ of CH₄ are emitted to the atmosphere, with 33 % originating from natural ecosystem sources. However, the contribution of different CH₄ sources and sinks is still highly uncertain due to the sparseness of in situ observations.

Among all the natural ecosystem CH₄ sources, natural wetlands are regarded as the single largest methane source, accounting for 20 % of the global CH₄ budget (Fung et al., 1987). While covering nearly 3 % of Earth's land surface, northern peatlands store a carbon pool of 455 Pg (Gorham, 1991), approximately accounting for one-third of the global soil carbon (Rydin and Jeglum, 2006), and could potentially release carbon in the form of CH₄ to the atmosphere. The

magnitude of CH₄ emission from peatland ecosystems is a comprehensive result of several processes including CH₄ production and oxidation in the peat profile and abiogenic mechanisms such as gas bubbles, diffusion, and gas transport through vascular plant aerenchyma (Whalen, 2005).

Previous studies demonstrated that wetland methane emissions depend on a large amount of abiotic and biotic factors, among the most important of which are temperature, water table depth, vegetation type, substrate quality and supply (Bellisario et al., 1999; Whalen, 2005). Temperature controls methanogenesis and CH₄ oxidation by affecting methanogenic and methanotrophic bacteria. The wide range of Q_{10} (reaction rate increase for a 10 °C temperature increase) for methanogenesis and methane oxidation suggested a highly significant effect of temperature on CH₄ production and oxidation rates (Whalen, 2005). Substrate availability and supply originating from wetland plant litter and/or root exudates determine CH₄ production and oxidation. Otherwise, species composition of plants can affect CH₄ emissions and substrate availability for methanogens. Previous evidence showed that the vascular plants such as *Eriophorum* species (Ström et al., 2011) and *Carex* species (Ding et al., 2005) have a very strong effect on CH₄ emission in the northern wetlands, by supply of available substrate and/or gas transportation of aerenchyma. In addition, peatland soil aerobic (anaerobic) conditions resulting from a drop (increase) of the water table can influence CH₄ oxidation (production) and then affect CH₄ fluxes (Whalen, 2005).

Boreal regions are of close concern since they are expected to undergo large changes in temperature and precipitation (Turetsky et al., 2007). Large amounts of labile soil organic matter that is currently preserved by permafrost will be vulnerable to climate change and could result in changing CH₄ emissions through changing peatland hydrology and thermal conditions. For example, permafrost degradation caused by warming will lower the water table following increased drainage in the discontinuous permafrost zone (Riordan et al., 2006) and increase thermokarst lake areas in the continuous permafrost zone (Smith et al., 2005). In addition, boreal peatland soil moisture varied in different permafrost zones owing to increasing difference between potential summer evapotranspiration and precipitation that has been reported (Klein et al., 2005). Under ongoing climate changes, the uncertainties of CH₄ fluxes from boreal peatlands have increased, which might confuse the knowledge of the effects of climate change on the boreal peatland carbon cycle.

Many studies on peatland CH₄ emissions have been conducted in Siberia (Nilsson et al., 2001; Bohn et al., 2007) and subarctic or arctic regions (Zona et al., 2009; Jackowicz-Korczyński et al., 2010). However, to our knowledge, there is no study reporting CH₄ emissions from boreal peatland in the continuous permafrost zone in China. Understanding CH₄ emission from peatland in the continuous permafrost zone can make us better understand CH₄ emission patterns and increase the accuracy of estimating a peatland CH₄ bud-

get. The goal of this study was to provide a first dataset of CH₄ fluxes from a permafrost peatland in Northeast China, and to investigate the factors controlling the seasonal CH₄ fluxes from a permafrost peatland.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Study site and experiment installation

The measurement was conducted in a minerotrophic peatland located in the north of Great Hing'an Mountains, Northeast China (52.94° N, 122.86° E). The study site is situated in the continuous permafrost zone. The climate of this area is cool continental, with a 30-yr (1980–2009) mean annual temperature of −3.9 °C and mean annual precipitation of 452 mm, 203 mm of which falls in rainy season (July and August). The coldest monthly mean temperature is −28.7 °C in January, and the warmest is 18.4 °C in July. The surface of the peatland site is a mosaic of microforms, which are divided into hummock, tussock and hollow. Plants usually grow from early May to late September and the dominant evergreen shrubs are *Chamaedaphne calyculata* and *Ledum palustre*. Deciduous shrubs contain *Vaccinium vitis-idaea* and *Betula fruticosa*. Hummocks were covered by *Sphagnum* mosses (*S. capillifolium*, *S. magellanicum*), *Polytrichum commune* and previously mentioned shrubs. Tussocks support sedges (*Eriophorum vaginatum*) as the dominant vascular plant species, as well as sparse shrubs (*Vaccinium vitis-idaea*, *Ledum palustre*). A scatter of bryophytes (*Polytrichum juniperinum*) were present in hollows. The soil type in our study site is classified as peat soil.

A set of twelve plots for gas sampling were selected, and eight of them were chosen so as to be representative of the dominant vegetation in the three microforms and to capture the variability for each of these situations. The intervals among these plots ranged from 5 to 20 m. Four plots were established on the tussock and hollow places where the dominant plant species was *Eriophorum vaginatum* (*Eriophorum*-dominated plots: EPs), and four plots on hummocks where dwarf shrubs and mosses were the dominant species (shrub-mosses-dominated plots: SPs). In order to determine the influence of peatland vascular vegetation (*Eriophorum vaginatum*) on methane emission, four other plots were established on the bare peat where the above-ground parts of dominant vascular plants (*Eriophorum vaginatum*) were carefully cut and removed before each measurement (bare-peat plots: BPs). In order to make a comparison among these types, flux observations were conducted on the same date.

2.2 Biomass determination and chemical analysis of soils

Above-ground biomass (ABG) was measured by clipping three 1 × 1 m quadrats for a shrub-mosses-dominated community and three 0.5 × 0.5 m quadrats for a *Eriophorum*-

dominated community in mid-August and sorting materials by species. We also collected mosses by clipping at the base of the capitulum following Moore et al. (2002). Plant tissues were oven-dried to a constant mass at 65 °C and then were weighted.

To determine pH, total carbon and nitrogen contents of soil from two varied-vegetation-dominated communities, three soil cores were collected from a depth of 0–20 cm on each community. Soil pH was determined by a glass electrode in a 1 : 5 soil: 10 mM CaCl₂ solutions of fresh samples according to ISO 10390 standard. The soil samples used for carbon and nitrogen analysis were dried at room temperature and then milled and sieved using a 2 mm screen. Soil organic carbon and total nitrogen concentrations were analyzed by the Multi N/C 2100 Analyzer (containing an HT 1300 Solid Module, Analytik Jena AG, Germany) and the Kjeldahl digestion method using a Behr analyzer (Germany), respectively.

2.3 Gas flux determination

Gas fluxes were measured by the closed chamber and gas chromatography techniques (Wang and Wang, 2003; Song et al., 2009). The closed chamber was made by stainless steel and consisted of two parts: a square base collar (length: 50 cm, width: 50 cm and height: 20 cm) and a top chamber (length: 50 cm, width: 50 cm and height: 50 or 70 cm) opened at the bottom. The collar was inserted directly into the peat layer to a depth of 15 cm, and kept in the soil during the entire observation period. The top chamber was put on the collar during gas sampling, and immediately removed after gas samples were collected. Two fans were fixed on the inside symmetrical corners of each chamber to keep the air mixed in the chamber closure during sampling. The chambers were wrapped with Styrofoam to prevent an increase in headspace air temperature due to heating when sampling. We built boardwalks to minimize disturbance on the plant and soil microenvironments around collars after the collars were installed.

Gas sampling started in June 2010 and continued until September 2011 at weekly interval during the two growing seasons. Gas samples were only collected in the morning (09:00–11:00 a.m.) because the flux during this period is almost equal to the daily mean flux (Tang et al., 2006). During the flux measurements, headspace samples (50 ml each) were drawn from the chamber every 10 min (including zero time) over half an hour period after enclosure using 60 ml syringes and stored in Tedlar^R air sample bags (100 ml, Delin Ltd, Liaoning, China), which had been pre-evacuated to close to 0 Pa. A total of four samples were taken during a flux measurement.

The collected gas samples were delivered to Sanjiang Experimental Station of Wetland Ecology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, and analyzed within a week. Gas concentrations were measured by a modified gas chromatograph (Agilent

4890D, Agilent Co., Santa Clara, CA, USA). The gas chromatograph was equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID) for CH₄ analysis. The air bags with known standard concentration of CH₄ were delivered with the collected samples to the laboratory to evaluate the leakage of trace gases during transport and analysis. No significant changes in the concentration of the standards were found during one week of transfer. The fluxes were calculated as the change in chamber concentration over time. The fluxes were rejected unless they yielded a linear regression with coefficient $R^2 > 0.8$ for CH₄. More details of the flux calculation can be found in Song et al. (2009).

2.4 Dissolved methane concentration

Soil pore water was sampled at several depths to determine dissolved CH₄ concentration if there was enough pore water for extracting. A set of stainless-steel tubes varied in length were installed before measuring at 10 cm intervals from peatland surface to 40 cm below the surface. Immediately after gas flux measurements, pore water samples (20 ml) were drawn from tubes using a syringe and then injected into evacuated vials (60 ml). Prior to determining CH₄ concentration in pore water, vials were shaken for a few minutes to extract dissolved CH₄. Subsequently, 40 ml of the headspace was sampled by a syringe and stored in a Tedlar^R air sample bag. CH₄ concentration was analyzed as described above. The methods for calculating dissolved pore water CH₄ ($\mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$) have been described by Ding et al. (2003).

2.5 Abiotic variables

Air temperature, soil temperature, depth of active layer and groundwater level were measured at the same time as gas sampling. Air temperature inside the chambers was measured with a thermometer inserted into the chambers, and soil temperature was measured 0, 5, 10, 15 and 20 cm below the peat surface next to the chambers using a portable digital thermometer (JM 624, Jinming Instrument CO., Ltd, Tianjin, China). Active layer depth was simultaneously measured by a steel rod. Groundwater level was monitored by digging a small well adjacent to the collar over the frost-free season. Daily precipitation data were manually recorded near the sampling site.

2.6 Data analysis

Correlation analysis (Spearman's rank correlation test) was used for identifying the relationships between CH₄ fluxes and environmental factors (i.e. temperature, water table depth, active layer depth and soil pore water CH₄ concentration). In all analyses where $p < 0.05$, the factor tested and the relationships were considered statistically significant. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to test the differences in soil chemical characters for both communities. All the statistical analyses were conducted

Table 1. Above-ground biomass and the main chemical characteristics of the soils (0–20 cm depth) from the shrub–moss-dominated community and *Eriophorum*-dominated community. Values represent the mean and the standard deviation ($n = 3$).

Community	Above-ground biomass* (g DW m ⁻²)				SOC (g kg ⁻¹)	TN (g kg ⁻¹)	pH
	Shrubs	Sedges	Mosses	Total			
Shrub–mosses-dominated	424.1 ± 35.1	15.7 ± 8.2	342.7 ± 55.4	782.5 ± 97.7	424.7 ± 40.5	17.2 ± 2.1	5.0 ± 0.4
<i>Eriophorum</i> -dominated	104.1 ± 0.8	79.2 ± 25.3	119.5 ± 28.7	302.8 ± 30.1	403.7 ± 20.6	19.1 ± 1.5	4.7 ± 0.1

* Above-ground biomass was measured in mid-August when plants reached their maximum biomass.

by Software packages SPSS 13.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) and figures were prepared by Origin 8.0 (Origin Lab Corporation, USA) for Windows XP.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Environment variables, biomass, soil chemical characteristics, CH₄ concentration in pore water and CH₄ fluxes

During the sampling period, monthly mean air temperature (MMAT) varied from 5.3 °C (September 2011) to 20.3 °C (July 2011; Fig. 1a). There was no marked discrepancy between the MMAT and the 30-yr mean value in the two measurement years. However, we observed extreme daily temperatures in the last few days of June, and the maximum daily temperature reached 39.4 °C on 27 June 2010. Accumulative precipitations from May to September were 325.9 and 493.7 mm in 2010 and 2011, which were 11 % lower and 34.8 % greater than the 30-yr mean value during the same period, respectively (Fig. 1b). A heavy rain occurred on 23 August 2011 and the accumulative rainfall was 129.1 mm (data not shown). The seasonality of ground temperature and soil temperature were consistent with the seasonal patterns of air temperature during the sampling period in 2011. The in-chamber soil temperatures observed in different vegetation plots showed that soil temperatures at the SP site were a little higher than that at the EP site (Fig. 2). The presence of *Sphagnum* at the SP site preserved soil heat diffusion. The water table depth throughout the measurement period ranged from –10.7 to –24 cm (minus value means below the surface) at the SP site and from –10.5 to –36 cm at the EP site (Fig. 3). The water table depth was consistently higher at the SP site than at the EP site during the two growing seasons (Fig. 3), and the average difference in water table between the two sites was 4 cm. A similar seasonal variation of water table depth at the SP and EP sites was observed, and the lowest value occurred in late June or early July due to higher temperature and less precipitation.

At the beginning of the measurement, peatland surface soil was frozen. The active layer depth continuously increased with air and soil temperatures at the initial stage. In the late sampling period, the active layer depth still increased with

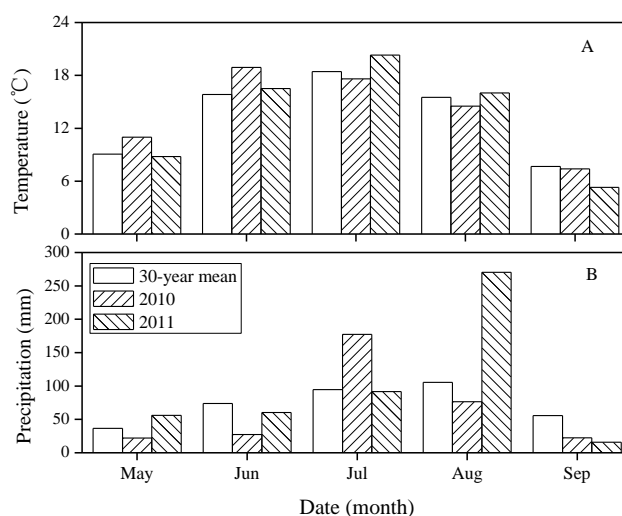


Fig. 1. Climatic characteristics of the study site during the growing season in 2010 and 2011 on the background of the long-term normal period (1980–2009) recorded by China Meteorological Administration. (A) Monthly average temperature; (B) monthly accumulative precipitation.

decreasing air and soil temperatures. This might be on account of heat in deep soil transferring slower than that in upper soil layers and the atmosphere. The maximum active layer depth reached 72.4 cm and 80.7 cm by the end of the observation period in 2010 and 2011, respectively.

The above-ground biomass of shrubs, sedges and mosses from both communities in the peatland is given in Table 1. The total ABG from the SP site was two times higher than that from the EP site, whereas the ABG of sedges was much lower at the SP site. There was no significant difference in soil chemical characteristics between the SP and EP sites ($p = 0.260$ for SOC and 0.236 for TN; Table 1). Soil organic carbon content was a little higher at the SP site (424.7 ± 40.5 g kg⁻¹) than at the EP site (403.7 ± 20.6 g kg⁻¹). The inverse pattern was observed in the total nitrogen content. pH was slightly lower at the EP site compared to the SP site.

The details and seasonal fluctuations in pore water concentration of CH₄ measured in the peatland soil profile can be seen in Fig. 4. Pore water CH₄ concentration at 20 cm below

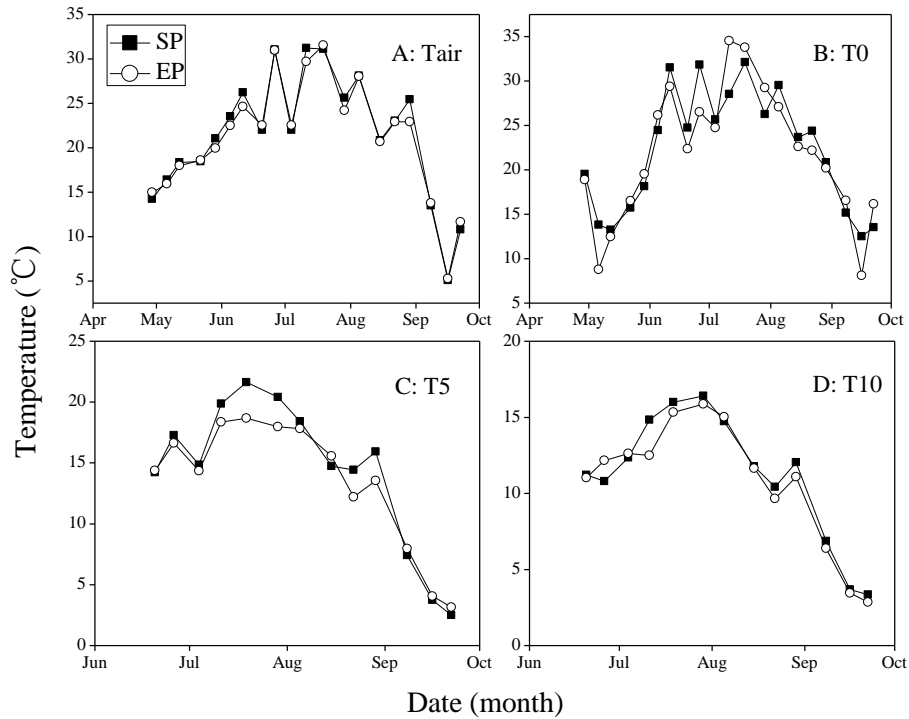


Fig. 2. Temperatures recorded by digital thermometer at SP (shrub-mosses plot) and EP (*Eriophorum* plot) sites during sampling in 2011. (A) Air temperature inside the chamber; (B) peat surface temperature; (C) soil temperature at 5 cm depth; (D) soil temperature at 10 cm depth.

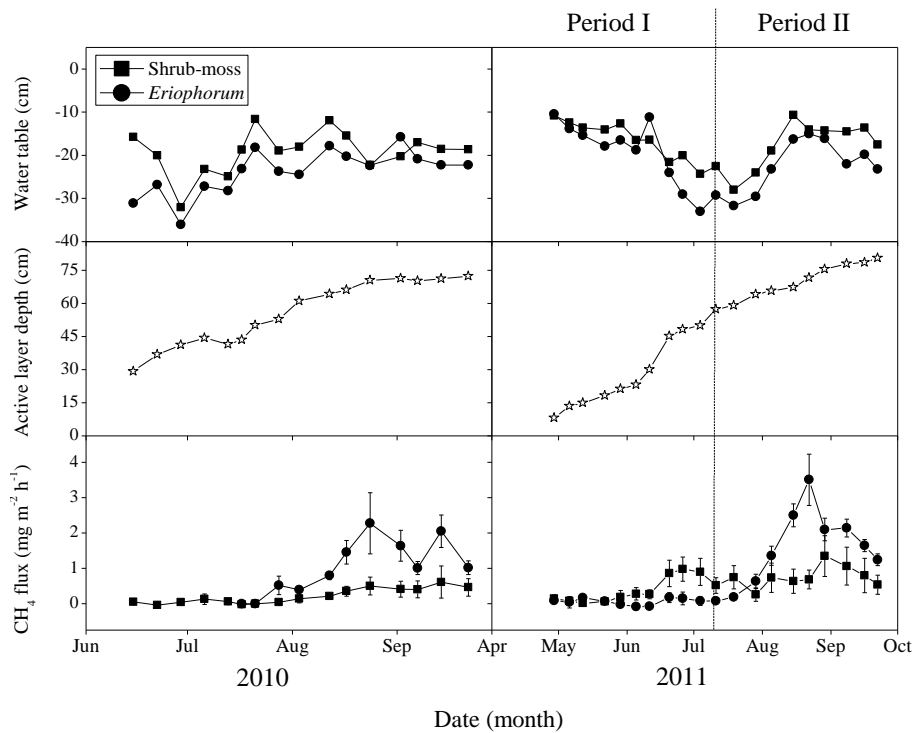


Fig. 3. The seasonal variation of net CH₄ fluxes and environmental variables (water table and active layer depth) observed at the study site during the growing seasons of 2010 and 2011.

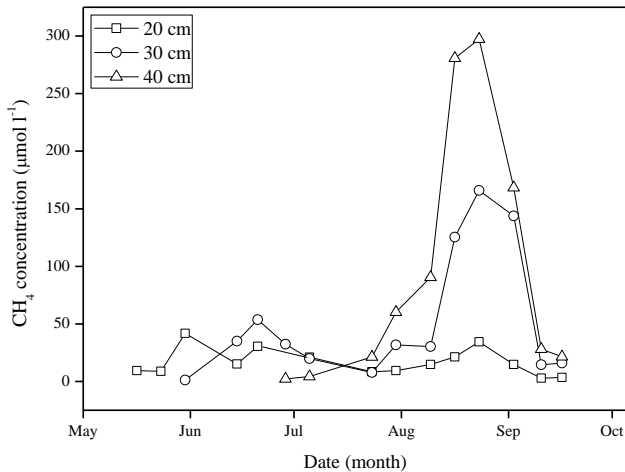


Fig. 4. Seasonal variation of dissolved pore water CH₄ concentrations at different soil depths was determined for the study site during sampling in 2011.

the peatland surface showed no seasonal variation and the mean CH₄ concentration in pore water was 14.37 µmol l⁻¹. However, a significant seasonal variation of CH₄ concentration in 30 and 40 cm below peat surface was observed. CH₄ concentrations at 30 and 40 cm depths increased following the development of the growing season. Correlation analysis showed that average CH₄ concentration between 20 cm and 40 cm was related to soil temperature at 40 cm depth ($r = 0.573$, $p = 0.05$). Figure 4 also shows that pore water CH₄ concentrations increased with depth. At the depth from 20 cm to 40 cm, the concentration of CH₄ increased sharply by 2 to 10 times magnitude.

Generally, the peatland emitted CH₄ to the atmosphere during the two growing seasons, although CH₄ absorption might occur occasionally. At the SP site, CH₄ fluxes were in the range of -0.02 to 0.51 mg m⁻² h⁻¹, with a mean value of 0.21 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ in the measuring period from June to September in 2010. In 2011, CH₄ fluxes ranged from 0.02 to 1.35 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ during the entire growing season at the SP site, and the mean seasonal flux was 0.56 mg m⁻² h⁻¹. CH₄ fluxes measured from the EP site were significantly higher than that from the SP site, which ranged from -0.01 to 2.28 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ with a mean flux of 1.02 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ in 2010 and -0.08 to 3.51 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ with a mean flux of 0.80 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ in 2011. In the present study, CH₄ fluxes obtained through static chambers during the growing seasons (~ -0.08 – 3.51 mg m⁻² h⁻¹) are greatly higher than that from Alaskan upland tundra (Bartlett et al., 1992), and they are similar in range to those from boreal raised bog (Pelletier et al., 2007) and subarctic/arctic fen (Christensen, 1993). The CH₄ emissions are much lower than those from the BOREAS peatlands (Bubier et al., 1995) and Xiaoxing'an Mountain peatlands (Sun et al., 2011).

Figure 3 shows that the seasonal variations of CH₄ flux exist for both sites. A similar seasonal trend of CH₄ fluxes in disparate observation years was found at the SP and EP sites. However, the variation in CH₄ emissions at the SP site is lower than that at the EP site. Except for the vascular plants regulating methane emissions, methane oxidation in situ conditions may play a more important role in hummocks than in tussocks. CH₄ emissions gradually increased with the development of growing season and peaked in late August in both years. Unlike other previous studies that reported no seasonal variation of CH₄ fluxes from peatlands, we found a distinct temporal variation in methane emissions where CH₄ fluxes peaked in late summer when the active layer reached the gas-contained layer, and which was consistent with peak pore water CH₄ concentration. Our results were consistent with Moore and Knowles (1990), who found CH₄ fluxes peaked in the later growing season from a subarctic fen in Quebec.

3.2 Controls on CH₄ flux

Previous studies have shown that temperature (Bellisario et al., 1999; Pelletier et al., 2007; Sun et al., 2011) and water table depth (Moore et al., 2011) were primary factors that controlled peatland CH₄ emissions. The relationships between CH₄ fluxes and environmental factors such as temperature, water table depth and active layer depth in an independent observation year were examined. The site-specific CH₄ fluxes did not show any relationship with soil or air temperature and water table depth, indicating a complicated conjunct effect of variables on CH₄ flux. It was consistent with Christensen et al. (1995), who found no correlations between environmental factors and CH₄ emission in Siberian mesic tundra. Ström et al. (2011) also found no correlations between seasonal mean CH₄ fluxes and water table depth and soil temperature in an arctic wetland. In the present study, the controls on seasonal variation of CH₄ flux were distinct at different stages of plant growth. In the early growing season (Period I), when moisture was adequate to support methanogenesis, temperature played a critical role in peatland CH₄ emission (Table 2). However, there was a lag time between rising temperatures and CH₄ flux in the early season because microbial communities and vegetation required time to become established. The following mechanisms might interpret temperature-dependence CH₄ fluxes during the early growing season. Firstly, temperature was an important control on methanogenesis. The widely reported Q_{10} values for methanogenesis ranging from 1 to 35 in boreal peatland soils (Whalen, 2005) suggested that temperature sensitivity of the underlying microbial processes involved in the production of CH₄ was high under appropriate substrate and moisture conditions. The lack of CH₄ production capacity under low temperature magnified the effect of temperature on CH₄ emission. Secondly, temperature controlled plant growth, which could provide not only substrate for methanogenesis but also

Table 2. Correlation coefficients between mean CH₄ fluxes and abiotic factors during the sampling period of 2011.

	Temperature ^a (°C)			Water table depth (cm)			Active layer depth (cm)	Pore water CH ₄ concentration (μmol l ⁻¹)
	Period I	Period II	Entire	Period I	Period II	Entire	Entire	Entire
Mean CH ₄ flux (mg m ⁻² h ⁻¹)	0.721*	-40.491	0.033	-0.539	0.842**	-0.192	0.865**	0.759**
Pore water CH ₄ concentration (μmol l ⁻¹)			0.139			0.607*	0.512*	1

* Correlation is significant at 0.05 levels; ** correlation is significant at 0.01 levels. Period I and II were arbitrarily defined at before and after 8 July 2011.

^a Average temperature between 5 and 10 cm below peatland surface.

an efficient pathway for methane to liberate from peat to the atmosphere (Joabsson et al., 1999). In addition, as temperature increased, thaw depth of permafrost gradually increased, which can create appropriate soil circumstances such as saturation status and re-release of substrate previously preserved in the frozen layer for methanogens and methanogenesis (Yavitt et al., 2006). Therefore, the magnitude of CH₄ dependent on soil temperature was the important limiting factor for the CH₄ emission rate in the early growing season. The weak statistical relationship between methane emission and temperature at the peatland site during the growing season probably reflected the high spatial variability in emission rates at the plots, fluctuations in water table position, and seasonal changes in vegetation cover.

In general, water table position acted as a creation of aerobic and anaerobic conditions in the peat soil profile, which determined peatland CH₄ emissions. Studies have revealed that CH₄ fluxes increased from soils under elevated water tables, or high soil moisture contents (Moore and Knowles, 1989). In this study, soil moisture was large due to low evapotranspiration in the early growing season, but CH₄ fluxes were very low. A possible reason was that CH₄ production in anaerobic conditions was constrained by low soil temperature and limited substrate supply, and part of CH₄ might be consumed in the aerobic layer during the process of transmission to the atmosphere. As the growing season developed (Period II), the positive correlation between CH₄ emission and water table depth was shown (Table 2). This suggests that the effects of water table depth on methane emission will be enhanced under appropriate temperature conditions. It was consistent with other studies that found similar relationships, conducted in boreal peatlands (Roulet et al., 1993). A higher water table depth caused by summer precipitation and permafrost thaw might result in a larger anoxic CH₄ production zone and stimulate emissions.

This study was performed in the mountain peatland located in the southern margin of the Eurasian permafrost zone where the active layer depth has been increasing in recent decades (Jin et al., 2000). Some previous studies have shown that CH₄ flux correlated well with active layer depth in peatlands underlain by permafrost (van Huissteden et al., 2005).

In our study, we found a positive correlation between thaw depth and the gas fluxes of CH₄ (Table 2), which was consistent with the above mentioned studies. However, Wille et al. (2008) reported that CH₄ flux did not correlate with the thaw depth in arctic tundra. The reasons they drew were that the majority of CH₄ originated from the upper soil layers, and the contribution of deep soil layers to methane emissions was small due to the temperature gradient in the thawed active layers and temperature dependence of microbial activity. However, recent studies reported that layers nearest the top of the permafrost (50–100 cm) in Alaska and Siberia contained higher CH₄ concentrations, which suggest that the majority of CH₄ will release from the eroding permafrost (Michaelson et al., 2011). Song et al. (2012) observed high CH₄ concentration in the refrozen active layer and upper permafrost layer in our study region, which could partly explain high CH₄ flux in the late growing season when the active layer reached tens of centimeters. The high CH₄ content in the permafrost might be originated from modern methanogenesis by cold-adapted methanogenic archaea in permafrost soil (Wagner et al., 2007) and release of trapped CH₄ formed in the unfrozen active layer during previous winter. It is also possible that CH₄ production took place in the freshly thawed permafrost due to the recovery of the bacteria from the upper permafrost (Coolen et al., 2011). In our study, we observed decreasing CH₄ flux with increasing thaw depth during the late growing season. This can be explained by decreasing air and surface soil temperatures constraining CH₄ production and little root survival in deeper soil layers, which limits CH₄ transport and emission.

The magnitude of CH₄ concentration in soil pore water increasing with depth indicated that CH₄ production was high in the deep saturated soil layer. The seasonal variation in CH₄ emission was significantly correlated with mean soil pore water CH₄ (Table 2). It implied that the magnitude of soil pore water CH₄ controlled CH₄ emission rates in the peatland. Our results are in agreement with Nouchi and Mariko (1993), who reported that CH₄ emission rate was proportional to pore water CH₄ concentration. Soil pore water containing high CH₄ concentrations was in correspondence with the EP site CH₄ flux rates recorded in late growing season.

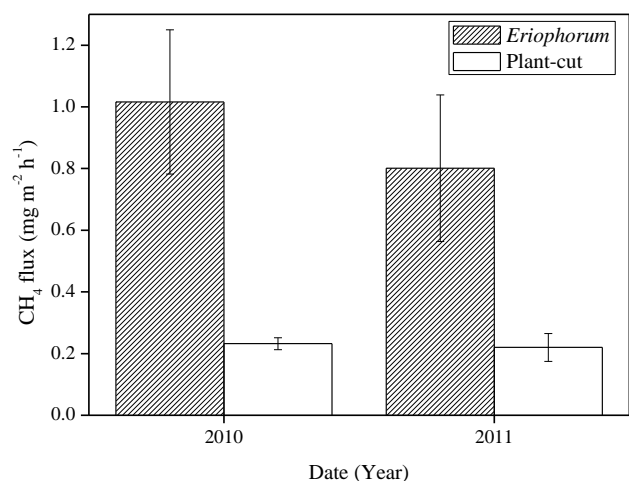


Fig. 5. Seasonal mean CH₄ flux from the EP and BP sites for both years.

This suggests that plants at the EP site are more effective at transporting CH₄.

We found that CH₄ emission from the EP site was significantly higher than that from the SP site (Fig. 3). This can be partly explained by the presence of sedges (*Eriophorum vaginatum*) between the two sites. At the EP site, the dominant plant was *Eriophorum vaginatum*, classified as a vascular plant, while the SP site was dominantly covered by *Sphagnum* species, dwarf shrubs, and sparse *Eriophorum vaginatum*. We observed that the above-ground biomass of *Eriophorum vaginatum* from the SP site was much lower than that from the EP site (Table 1). The vascular plants of peatland could play an important role in gas exchange between the land and the atmosphere (Joabsson et al., 1999). In addition, CH₄ transport through *Eriophorum* was the major pathway for CH₄ fluxes (Frenzel and Rudolph, 1998). We also found that methane fluxes would decrease 77% and 73% from the EP site in 2010 and 2011 after cutting the above-ground part of *Eriophorum vaginatum* (Fig. 5). However, vascular plants might act as conduit for transferring oxygen to the rhizosphere, which both inhibits archaeal CH₄ production and enhances methanotrophy. Yet, Frenzel and Rudolph (1998) found that oxidation of CH₄ was negligible during its passage through *E. angustifolium*. In addition, root exudates and fine root litter of *Eriophorum* could stimulate CH₄ production. Ström et al. (2011) reported that *Eriophorum* secreted more organic acids than other highly bio-available organic matters that could be easily utilized by methanogens in arctic wetland. Mosses contributed less significantly to active gas transport since they did not develop real root systems in peat (Sheppard et al., 2007). Otherwise, CH₄ oxidation was reported from mosses originating from high-latitude wetlands, which decreased CH₄ emissions from anoxic conditions (Larmola et al., 2010). So, different com-

positions of vegetation in peatland can explain the spatial variation of CH₄ fluxes.

4 Conclusions

Seasonal methane fluxes were measured from a boreal peatland ecosystem in a continuous permafrost zone for two consecutive years. Seasonal average CH₄ fluxes ranged from 0.21 to 1.02 mg m⁻² h⁻¹, with an apparent seasonal variation. Our results showed that environmental factors such as temperature and water table level were not responsible for regulating temporal variations of methane emission. CH₄ emission rates during the growing season were strongly controlled by plant, active layer depth and CH₄ concentrations in soil pore water. It implies that permafrost peatland under warming conditions can create a positive feedback to climate change due to increased CH₄ emission through altering plant composition and increasing active layer depth.

As CH₄ emission from ecosystems depended on the balance of CH₄ production and oxidation, the determination of the seasonal potential CH₄ productions and oxidations in soil layers might provide some evidence for explanation of the seasonal and spatial variations of CH₄ fluxes from boreal peatland ecosystems. In addition, future studies should focus on exploring the origination of plenty of CH₄ in lower permafrost layers and soil pore water at tens of centimeters depth in peatland, which might promote our understanding of methane emission from peatlands in permafrost zones.

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