



1 FLUXNET-CH₄ Synthesis Activity: Objectives, Observations, and Future 2 Directions

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111 **Abstract**

112 This paper describes the formation of, and initial results for, a new FLUXNET coordination
113 network for ecosystem-scale methane (CH₄) measurements at 60 sites globally, organized by the
114 Global Carbon Project in partnership with other initiatives and regional flux tower networks. The
115 objectives of the effort are presented along with an overview of the coverage of eddy covariance
116 (EC) CH₄ flux measurements globally, initial results comparing CH₄ fluxes across the sites, and
117 future research directions and needs. Annual estimates of net CH₄ fluxes across sites ranged from
118 $-0.2 \pm 0.02 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ for an upland forest site to $114.9 \pm 13.4 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ for an estuarine
119 freshwater marsh, with fluxes exceeding $40 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ at multiple sites. Average annual soil and
120 air temperatures were found to be the strongest predictor of annual CH₄ flux across wetland sites
121 globally. Water table position was positively correlated with annual CH₄ emissions, although only
122 for wetland sites that were not consistently inundated throughout the year. The ratio of annual
123 CH₄ fluxes to ecosystem respiration increased significantly with mean site temperature.
124 Uncertainties in annual CH₄ estimates due to gap filling and random errors were on average ± 1.6
125 $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ at 95% confidence, with the relative error decreasing exponentially with increasing
126 flux magnitude across sites. Through the analysis and synthesis of a growing EC CH₄ flux
127 database, the controls on ecosystem CH₄ fluxes can be better understood, used to inform and
128 validate Earth system models, and reconcile differences between land-surface model- and
129 atmospheric-based estimates of CH₄ emissions.

130

131 **Capsule Summary**

132 Here we describe a new coordination activity and initial results for a global synthesis of eddy

133 covariance CH₄ flux measurements.

134 **1. Introduction**

135 Atmospheric methane (CH₄) is the second-most important anthropogenic greenhouse gas
136 following carbon dioxide (CO₂) (Myhre et al. 2013). The concentration of CH₄ in the atmosphere
137 today is about 2.5-times higher than in 1750 (Saunois et al. 2016a). The increase in atmospheric
138 CH₄ has arisen from human activities in agriculture, energy production, and waste disposal, and
139 from changes in natural CH₄ sources and sinks (Saunois et al. 2016a, 2017, 2016b; Turner et al.
140 2019). Based on top-down atmospheric inversions, global CH₄ emissions for the decade of 2003-
141 2012 were an estimated ~420 Tg C y⁻¹ (range 405–426 Tg C y⁻¹) (Saunois et al. 2016a).
142 However, some analyses suggest that uncertainties in global CH₄ sources and sinks are higher
143 than those for CO₂, and uncertainties from natural sources exceed those from anthropogenic
144 emissions (Saunois et al. 2016a). In particular, the largest source of uncertainty in the global CH₄
145 budget is related to emissions from wetlands and inland waters (Saunois et al. 2016a; Melton et
146 al. 2013; Bastviken et al. 2011). Wetland CH₄ emissions may contribute as much as 25-40% of
147 the global total and are a leading source of interannual variability in total atmospheric CH₄
148 concentrations (Bousquet et al. 2006; Chen and Prinn 2006; Saunois et al. 2016a).

149 Direct, ground-based measurements of in situ CH₄ fluxes with high measurement frequency
150 are important for understanding the responses of CH₄ fluxes to environmental factors including
151 climate, for providing validation datasets for the land-surface models used to infer global CH₄
152 budgets, and for constraining CH₄ budgets. Eddy covariance (EC) flux towers measure real-time
153 exchange of gases such as CO₂, CH₄, water vapour, and energy between the land-surface and the
154 atmosphere. The EC technique has emerged as a widespread means of measuring trace gas
155 exchange because it provides direct and near-continuous ecosystem-scale flux measurements
156 without disturbing the soil or vegetation (Baldocchi 2003; Aubinet et al. 2012). There are more

157 than 900 reported active and historical flux tower sites globally and approximately 7000 site-
158 years of data collected (Chu et al. 2017). While most of these sites measure CO₂, water vapour,
159 and energy exchange, the development of new and robust CH₄ sensors has resulted in a rapidly
160 growing number of CH₄ EC measurements (Baldocchi 2014; Morin 2018), primarily in natural
161 and agricultural wetlands (Petrescu et al. 2015).

162 Since the late-1990s, with a growing number of long-term, near-continuous EC
163 measurements, the EC community has been well coordinated for integrating and synthesizing
164 CO₂, water vapour and energy fluxes. This cross-site coordination resulted in the development of
165 regional flux networks for Europe (EuroFlux, CarboEurope and ICOS), Australia (OzFlux),
166 North and South America (AmeriFlux, Large Biosphere Amazon, Fluxnet-Canada/Canadian
167 Carbon Program, and MexFlux), Asia (AsiaFlux, ChinaFlux, KoFlux, and USCCC), and
168 globally, FLUXNET (Papale et al. 2012; Baldocchi 2014). The resulting FLUXNET database
169 (<http://fluxnet.fluxdata.org/>) has been used extensively to evaluate satellite measurements,
170 inform Earth system models, generate data-driven CO₂ flux products, and provide answers to a
171 broad range of questions about atmospheric fluxes related to ecosystems, land use and climate
172 (Pastorello et al. 2017). FLUXNET has grown steadily over the past 25 years, enhancing our
173 understanding of carbon, water and energy cycles in terrestrial ecosystems (Chu et al. 2017).

174 Similar community efforts and syntheses for CH₄ remain limited in part because EC
175 measurements for CH₄ fluxes were rarer until recently. Whereas the earliest EC measurements of
176 CO₂ fluxes date back to the late 1970s and early 1980s (Desjardins 1974; Anderson et al. 1984),
177 the first EC CH₄ flux measurements only began in the 1990s (Verma et al. 1992; Shurpali and
178 Verma 1998; Fan et al. 1992; Kim et al. 1999), with reliable, easy-to-deploy field sensors only
179 becoming available in the past decade or so. EC CH₄ flux measurements became more feasible

180 with advances in sensor development, such as tunable diode laser absorption spectrometers, that
181 allowed researchers to measure previously undetectable trace gas fluxes with higher signal to
182 noise ratios (Rinne et al. 2007; McDermitt et al. 2011). After these new sensors were
183 commercialized, and low power, low maintenance open-path sensors were developed that could
184 be operated by solar panels in remote locations, the number of CH₄ flux tower measurements
185 increased substantially (Baldocchi 2014; Morin 2018). The rapidly growing number of EC CH₄
186 flux measurements presents new opportunities for FLUXNET-type analyses and syntheses of
187 ecosystem-scale CH₄ flux observations.

188 This manuscript describes initial results from a new coordination activity for flux tower CH₄
189 measurements organized by the Global Carbon Project (GCP) in collaboration with regional flux
190 networks and FLUXNET. The goal of the activity is to develop a global database for EC CH₄
191 observations to answer regional and global questions related to CH₄ cycling. Here, we describe
192 the objectives of the FLUXNET-CH₄ activity, provide an overview of the current geographic and
193 temporal coverage of CH₄ flux measurements globally, present initial analyses exploring time
194 scales of variability, uncertainty, trends and drivers of CH₄ fluxes across 60 sites, and discuss
195 future research opportunities for examining controls on CH₄ emissions and reducing
196 uncertainties in the role of wetlands in the global CH₄ cycle.

197

198 **2. FLUXNET-CH₄ synthesis objectives and tasks**

199 This activity is part of a larger GCP effort to establish and better constrain the Global
200 Methane Budget (<http://www.globalcarbonproject.org/methanebudget/index.htm>), and is
201 designed to develop a CH₄ database component in FLUXNET for a global synthesis of CH₄ flux
202 tower data. To this end, we are surveying, assembling, and synthesizing data from the EC

203 community, in coordination with regional networks, including AmeriFlux's 2019 'Year of
204 Methane' (<http://ameriflux.lbl.gov/year-of-methane/year-of-methane/>), FLUXNET initiatives,
205 and other complementary activities. In particular, this work is being carried out in parallel with
206 the European Union's Readiness of ICOS for Necessities of Integrated Global Observations
207 (RINGO) project which is working to standardize protocols for flux calculations, quality control
208 and gap-filling for CH₄ fluxes (Nemitz et al. 2018). Methane-specific protocols are needed
209 because of the added complexities and high variability of CH₄ flux measurements and dynamics
210 (Nemitz et al. 2018).

211 Our approach is to include all currently available and future CH₄ flux tower observations
212 in a global CH₄ database, including freshwater, coastal, natural and managed ecosystems, as well
213 as upland ecosystems that may be measuring CH₄ uptake by soils. The initiative is open to all
214 members of the EC community. Database compilation began in 2017 and is ongoing. Data from
215 sites in the Americas can be submitted to AmeriFlux ([http://ameriflux.lbl.gov/data/how-to-
216 uploaddownload-data/](http://ameriflux.lbl.gov/data/how-to-uploaddownload-data/)); otherwise, data can be submitted to the European Fluxes Database
217 Cluster (<http://www.europe-fluxdata.eu/home/sites-list>).

218 In addition to many applications, an ultimate goal of the FLUXNET-CH₄ activity is to
219 generate a publicly available, open-access, data-driven global CH₄ emissions product using
220 similar machine-learning-based approaches used for CO₂ fluxes (Jung et al. 2009; Tramontana et
221 al. 2016). The product will be based on mechanistic factors associated with CH₄ emissions and
222 new spatio-temporal information on wetland area and dynamics for constraining CH₄-producing
223 areas. This gridded product will provide an independent bottom-up estimate of global wetland
224 CH₄ emissions to compare with estimates of global CH₄ emissions from land-surface models and
225 atmospheric inversions. Recent work has shown the potential to upscale EC CH₄ flux

226 observations across northern wetlands, with predictive performance comparable to previous
227 studies upscaling net CO₂ exchange (Peltola et al. 2019), however, our focus is on a globally
228 gridded product.

229 The near continuous, high-frequency nature of EC measurements also offers significant
230 promise for improving our understanding of ecosystem-scale CH₄ flux dynamics. As such, this
231 synthesis also aims to investigate the dominant controls on net ecosystem-scale CH₄ fluxes from
232 hourly to interannual time scales across wetlands globally, and to characterize scale-emergent,
233 nonlinear, and lagged processes of CH₄ exchange.

234 Methane is produced during decomposition under anaerobic or reducing conditions and is
235 transported to the atmosphere via plant-mediated transport, ebullition and diffusion (Bridgham et
236 al. 2013). During transport, CH₄ can pass through unsaturated soil layers and be consumed or
237 oxidized by aerobic bacteria (Wahlen 1993). Process-based biogeochemical models developed
238 and applied at site, regional and global scales simulate these individual processes with varying
239 degrees of complexity (Bridgham et al. 2013; Melton et al. 2013; Poulter et al. 2017; Castro-
240 Morales et al.; Grant and Roulet 2002). The large range in predicted wetland CH₄ emissions rates
241 suggests that there is both substantial parameter and structural uncertainty in large-scale CH₄
242 flux models, even after accounting for uncertainties in wetland areas (Poulter et al. 2017; Sauniois
243 et al. 2016a; Melton et al. 2013; Riley et al. 2011). A global EC CH₄ database and associated
244 environmental variables can help constrain the parameterization of process-based
245 biogeochemistry models (Sauniois et al. 2016a; Bridgham et al. 2013; Oikawa et al. 2017).
246 Furthermore, a key challenge is evaluating globally-applicable process-based CH₄ models at a
247 spatial scale comparable to model grid cells (Melton et al. 2013; Riley et al. 2011). A globally
248 gridded wetland CH₄ emissions product upscaled from EC fluxes can help resolve this issue by

249 providing a scale appropriate model evaluation dataset. As such, the global CH₄ database and
250 gridded product will also be used to parameterize and benchmark the performance of land-
251 surface models of global CH₄ emissions, providing a unique opportunity for informing and
252 validating biogeochemical models.

253

254 **3. Methods**

255 Based on a survey of the EC community (announced via the fluxnet-
256 community@george.lbl.gov and AmeriFlux-Community@lbl.gov listservs), information
257 available in regional networks and FLUXNET, and the scientific literature, we estimate that at
258 least 200 sites worldwide are currently applying the EC method for CH₄ flux measurements
259 (Figure 1). Here we focus on findings from across 60 of the ~110 sites currently committed to
260 participating in our FLUXNET-CH₄ activity (Tables A1 and S1). Data from this initial set of
261 sites were selected because they were publicly available or were contributed directly by site PIs.
262 We will continue to engage the EC community more broadly and expand the database in the
263 future.

264

265 *3.1. Data standardization, gap-filling, and partitioning*

266 We used similar data processing procedures as FLUXNET to standardize and gap-fill
267 measurements, and in the case of net CO₂ exchange, partition fluxes across sites
268 (<http://fluxnet.fluxdata.org/data/aboutdata/data-processing-101-pipeline-and-procedures/>).
269 Standard quality assurance and quality control of the data was first performed by site PIs. In
270 nearly all cases, data collected by the local tower teams were first submitted to the data archives
271 hosted by the regional flux networks, where data are pre-screened and formatted based on the

272 regional network data protocols. Data from the regional networks then entered our flux
273 processing procedure.

274 Within our processing procedure, data were first checked for obvious problems including
275 unit errors, spikes, and out-of-range values based on visualization of the data and statistical
276 metrics. Next, the data were filtered, gap-filled and partitioned. Friction velocity (u_*) filtering,
277 based on relating night-time CO₂ fluxes to u_* , was implemented using the REddyProc package
278 (Wutzler et al. 2018) for R statistical software (R Development Core Team, 2018, version 3.5.0),
279 although in a few cases u_* filtering was performed by the site PIs. Gaps in meteorological
280 variables including air temperature (TA), incoming shortwave (SW_{IN}) and longwave (LW_{IN})
281 radiation, vapour pressure deficit (VPD), pressure (PA), precipitation (P), and windspeed (WS)
282 were filled with ERA-Interim (ERA-I) reanalysis data (Vuichard and Papale 2015). Gaps in CO₂
283 and latent and sensible heat fluxes were filled using the marginal distribution sampling method
284 (Reichstein et al. 2005) using the REddyProc package (Wutzler et al. 2018). Net CO₂ fluxes were
285 partitioned into gross primary production (GPP) and ecosystem respiration (ER) using both the
286 nighttime (Reichstein et al. 2005) and daytime (Lasslop et al. 2010) approaches also
287 implemented in REddyProc (Wutzler et al. 2018).

288 There are as yet no standards for gap-filling CH₄ flux measurements and this is an active
289 and ongoing area of research (Nemitz et al. 2018). Gaps in CH₄ fluxes were filled using artificial
290 neural networks (ANNs), as they have shown good performance for gap-filling CH₄ flux data
291 (Dengel et al. 2013; Knox et al. 2015; Morin et al. 2014a; Nemitz et al. 2018; Goodrich et al.
292 2015). Details of the ANN routine are provided in Knox et al. (2016) and are summarized here
293 briefly. The ANN routine was optimized for both generalizability and representativeness. To
294 facilitate representativeness, explanatory data were divided into a maximum of 15 data clusters

295 using the k-means algorithm. To avoid biasing toward conditions with better flux data coverage
296 (e.g. summer and daytime), data used to train, test, and validate the ANN were proportionately
297 sampled from these clusters. Several neural network architectures of increasing complexity were
298 tested, ranging from one hidden layer with the number of nodes equal to the number of
299 explanatory data variables (N) to two hidden layers with 1.5N and 0.75N nodes, respectively.
300 The architecture of each neural network was initialized 10 times with random starting weights,
301 and the initialization resulting in the lowest mean sampling error was selected. The simplest
302 architecture, whereby additional increases in complexity resulted in <5% reduction in mean
303 squared error, was chosen and the prediction saved. This procedure was repeated with 20
304 resamplings of the data, and missing half hours were filled using the median prediction. A
305 standard set of variables available across all sites were used to gap-fill CH₄ fluxes (Dengel et al.
306 2013), including TA, SW_{IN}, WS, PA, and sine and cosine functions to represent seasonality.
307 These meteorological variables were selected since they are relevant to CH₄ exchange and were
308 gap-filled using the ERA-I reanalysis data. Other variables related to CH₄ exchange such as
309 water table depth (WTD) or soil temperature (TS) were not included as explanatory variables as
310 they were not available across all sites or had large gaps that could not be filled using the ERA-I
311 reanalysis data. These missing data for variables highlight some of the key challenges in
312 standardizing CH₄ gap-filling methods across sites and emphasize the need for standardized
313 protocols of auxiliary measurements across sites (c.f. 'Future research directions and needs')
314 (Nemitz et al. 2018; Dengel et al. 2013). ANN gap-filling was performed using MATLAB
315 (MathWorks Inc., 2018, version 9.4.0).

316 Annual CH₄ budgets represent gap-filled, half-hourly fluxes integrated over an entire year
317 or growing season. If fluxes were only measured during the growing season, we assumed that

318 fluxes outside of this period were negligible, although we acknowledge that cold season fluxes
319 can account for as much as ~13-50% of the annual CH₄ emissions in some locations (Zona et al.
320 2016; Treat et al. 2018b; Helbig et al. 2017a; Kittler et al. 2017).

321

322 *3.2. Uncertainty estimation*

323 ANNs were also used to estimate annual gap-filled and random uncertainty in CH₄ flux
324 measurements (Richardson et al. 2008; Moffat et al. 2007; Anderson et al. 2016; Knox et al.
325 2018). Here, we focus on assessing the random error, but a full assessment of total flux
326 measurement error also requires quantifying systematic error or bias (Baldocchi 2003).
327 Systematic errors, due to incomplete spectral response, lack of nocturnal mixing, sub-mesoscale
328 circulations, and other factors are discussed elsewhere (Baldocchi 2003; Peltola et al. 2015) and
329 are the focus of other ongoing initiatives.

330 Random errors in EC fluxes follow a double exponential (Laplace) distribution with a
331 standard deviation varying with flux magnitude (Richardson et al. 2012, 2006). Model residuals
332 of gap-filling algorithms such as ANNs provide a reliable, and conservative ‘upper limit’,
333 estimate of the random flux uncertainty (Moffat et al. 2007; Richardson et al. 2008). For half-
334 hourly CH₄ flux measurements, random error was estimated using the residuals of the median
335 ANN predictions. At each site, the probability density function (PDF) of the random flux
336 measurement error more closely followed a double-exponential (Laplace) rather than normal
337 (Gaussian) distribution, with the root-mean-square error (RMSE) for the Laplace distribution
338 fitted to the PDF of random errors consistently lower than the normal distributed error. From
339 half-hourly flux measurements, random error can also be estimated using the daily differencing
340 approach (Richardson et al. 2012). Random error estimates ($\sigma(\delta)$), as expressed as the standard

341 deviation of the double-exponential distribution with scaling parameter β , where $\sigma(\delta) = \sqrt{2}\beta$
342 (Richardson et al. 2006), were found to be nearly identical using the two approaches
343 ($\sigma(\delta)_{model\ residual} = 1.0 \times \sigma(\delta)_{daily\ differencing} + 1.21$), $r^2 = 0.97$, $p < 0.001$), supporting the
344 use of the model residual approach for estimating random error. As discussed below, $\sigma(\delta)$ scaled
345 linearly with the magnitude of CH₄ fluxes at nearly all sites. To quantify random uncertainty of
346 cumulative fluxes, we used a Monte Carlo simulation that randomly draws 1,000 random errors
347 for every original measurement using $\sigma(\delta)$ binned by flux magnitude, and then computed the
348 variance of the cumulative sums (Anderson et al. 2016). For gap-filled values, the combined gap-
349 filling and random uncertainty was calculated from the variance of the cumulative sums of the 20
350 ANN predictions (Anderson et al. 2016; Oikawa et al. 2017; Knox et al. 2015). The annual
351 cumulative uncertainty at 95% confidence was estimated by adding the cumulative gap-filling
352 and random measurement uncertainties in quadrature (Richardson and Hollinger 2007; Anderson
353 et al. 2016). Note that when reporting mean or median annual CH₄ fluxes across sites, error bars
354 represent the standard error.

355

356 *3.3. Wavelet-based timescale decomposition*

357 Methane fluxes are highly dynamic and vary across a range of time scales (Sturtevant et
358 al. 2016; Koebisch et al. 2015). For example, in wetlands with permanent inundation, the
359 seasonal variation of CH₄ exchange is predominantly controlled by temperature and plant
360 phenology (Chu et al. 2014; Sturtevant et al. 2016). Ecosystem CH₄ exchange also varies
361 considerably at both longer (e.g. interannual; (Knox et al. 2016; Rinne et al. 2018)) and shorter
362 (e.g. weeks, days or hours; (Koebisch et al. 2015; Hatala et al. 2012; Schaller et al. 2018)) time
363 scales. Wavelet decomposition is a particularly useful tool for investigating scale in geophysical

364 and ecological analysis (Cazelles et al. 2008; Torrence and Compo 1998), because it can
365 characterize both the time scale and location of patterns and perturbations in the data.
366 Partitioning variability across temporal scales can help to isolate and characterize important
367 processes (Schaller et al. 2018).

368 The maximal overlap discrete wavelet transform (MODWT) was used to decompose the
369 time scales of variability in gap-filled CH₄ flux measurements, as described in Sturtevant et al.
370 (2016). The MODWT allows the time series to be decomposed into the detail added from
371 progressively coarser to finer scales and either summed or treated individually to investigate
372 patterns across scales. We reconstructed the detail in the fluxes for dyadic scales 1 (2¹
373 measurements = 1h) to 14 (2¹⁴ measurements = 341 days). Since patterns generated by ecological
374 processes tend to occur over a scale range rather than at one individual scale, the detail over
375 adjacent scales were summed to analyze four general time scales of variation (Sturtevant et al.
376 2016). These time scales included the ‘hourly’ scale (1-2 h) representing perturbations such the
377 passage of clouds overhead and turbulent scales up to the spectral gap, the ‘diel’ scale (4 h to 1.3
378 days) encompassing the diel cycles in sunlight and temperature, the ‘multiday’ scale (2.7 to 21.3
379 days) reflecting synoptic weather variability or fluctuations in water levels, and the ‘seasonal’
380 scale (42.7 to 341 days) representing the annual solar cycle and phenology. Data were wavelet
381 decomposed into the hourly, diel, and multiday scales using the WMTSA Wavelet Toolkit in
382 MATLAB.

383

384 *3.4. Statistical analysis*

385 We tested for significant relationships between log-transformed annual CH₄ emissions
386 and a number of covariates using linear mixed-effects models as described in Treat et al.

387 (2018b). The predictor variables of CH₄ flux we evaluated included: biome or ecosystem type
388 (categorical variables), and continuous biophysical variables including mean seasonal WTD,
389 mean annual soil and air temperature (T_{MST} and T_{MAT}, respectively), net ecosystem exchange
390 (NEE), GPP, and ER. When considering continuous variables, we focused on freshwater
391 wetlands for comparison with previous CH₄ synthesis activities. Soil temperature was measured
392 between 2 cm and 25 cm below the surface in different studies. The results below are presented
393 for GPP and ER covariates that are partitioned using the nighttime flux partitioning algorithm
394 (Wutzler et al. 2018; Reichstein et al. 2005), although similar findings were obtained using
395 daytime partitioned estimates. Additionally, individual sites or site years were excluded when
396 gaps in measurements exceeded two consecutive months, which explains the differences in the
397 number of sites and site years in Section 4.3 below.

398 Mixed-effects modeling was used because of the potential bias of having measurements
399 over several years, with site included as a random effect in the analysis (Treat et al. 2018b). The
400 significance of individual predictor variables was evaluated using a χ^2 test against a null model
401 using only site as a random variable (Bates et al. 2015), with both models fit without reduced
402 maximum likelihood. For multiple linear regression models, we used the model selection process
403 outlined in Zuur et al. (2009). To incorporate annual cumulative uncertainty when assessing the
404 significance of trends and differences in annual CH₄ fluxes across biomes and ecosystem types,
405 we used a Monte Carlo simulation that randomly draws 1,000 annual cumulative uncertainties
406 for each estimate of annual CH₄ flux. For each random draw the significance of the categorical
407 variable was tested using a χ^2 test against the null model with only site as a random variable. We
408 report the marginal r^2 (r_m^2) which describes the proportion of variance explained by the fixed

409 factors alone (Nakagawa and Schielzeth 2013). The mixed-effects modeling was implemented
410 using the lmer command from the lme4 package (Bates et al. 2014) for R statistical software.

411

412 **4. Results and discussion**

413 *4.1. Geographic and temporal coverage of eddy covariance CH₄ flux measurements*

414 We identified 200 sites worldwide that are applying the EC method for CH₄ (Figure 1;
415 Table S1); wetlands (including natural, managed and restored wetlands) comprise the majority of
416 sites (59%), with rice agriculture (10%) as the second most represented vegetation type. The
417 predominance of wetland and rice paddy sites in the database is unsurprising because many
418 studies are designed to target ecosystems expected to have relatively large CH₄ emissions.

419 However, there are also sites in ecosystems that are typically smaller sources or even sinks of
420 CH₄ such as upland forests (13%) and grasslands (8%). Additionally, six sites (~3%) are urban,
421 with another five sites measuring CH₄ fluxes from open water bodies. Although identified sites
422 span all continents except Antarctica, the majority are concentrated in North America and
423 Europe, with a growing number of sites in Asia (Figure 1; Table S1).

424 Measurements of CH₄ fluxes cover a broad range of climates and a large fraction of wetland
425 habitats (Figure 2), with the tropics and tropical wetlands notably underrepresented. As discussed
426 below (see Future research directions and needs), one important goal of FLUXNET and the
427 regional networks is to increase site representativeness and extend measurements in under-
428 sampled regions. Increasing the number of tropical sites is particularly important for CH₄
429 because more than half of global CH₄ emissions are thought to come from this region (Saunois et
430 al. 2016a; Dean et al. 2018). Furthermore, compared to northern wetlands, their biogeochemistry
431 remains relatively poorly understood (Mitsch et al. 2009; Pangala et al. 2017). We expect the

432 number of CH₄ flux sites and their geographic and temporal coverage to continue to increase, as
433 has occurred through time for CO₂, water vapour, and energy flux measurements in FLUXNET
434 (Pastorello et al. 2017; Chu et al. 2017).

435 Long-term CH₄ flux time series are key to understanding the causes of year-to-year
436 variability and trends in fluxes (Chu et al. 2017; Euskirchen et al. 2017; Pugh et al. 2018). The
437 longest continuous record of CH₄ flux measurements, from a fen in Finland (Rinne et al. 2018),
438 is now ~14 years and ongoing (Table S1). Three other sites have measurements exceeding 10
439 years; however, the median length is 5 years, with most sites established from 2013 onward
440 (Table S1). Longer time series are also important for both exploring the short- and long-term
441 effects of extreme events on fluxes and tracking the response of disturbed or restored ecosystems
442 over time (Pastorello et al. 2017). Furthermore, they can help address new and emerging science
443 questions, such as quantifying CH₄ feedbacks to climate with rising temperatures and associated
444 changes in ecosystem composition, structure and function (Helbig et al. 2017a,b; Dean et al.
445 2018), and the role of wetland emissions in atmospheric CH₄ variability (McNorton et al. 2016;
446 Poulter et al. 2017).

447

448 *4.2. CH₄ fluxes and trends across biomes and ecosystem types*

449 Half-hourly and annual net CH₄ fluxes for the 60 sites currently included in the database
450 exhibited strong variability across sites (Figure 3 and Figure 4). Across the dataset, the mean
451 half-hourly CH₄ flux was greater than the median flux, indicating a positively skewed
452 distribution with infrequent, large emissions (Figure 3a), similar to findings from chamber-based
453 syntheses (Olefeldt et al. 2013; Turetsky et al. 2014). Mean and median CH₄ fluxes were smaller
454 at higher latitudes and larger at lower latitudes (Figure 3b), comparable again to trends in CH₄

455 fluxes observed in predominantly chamber-based syntheses (Bartlett and Harriss 1993; Turetsky
456 et al. 2014; Treat et al. 2018b).

457 The continuous nature of EC flux measurements is well suited for quantifying annual
458 ecosystem-scale CH₄ budgets, along with accumulated uncertainty (c.f. Section 4.5). Annual
459 estimates of net CH₄ flux for each of the 60 sites in the flux tower database ranged from $-0.2 \pm$
460 $0.02 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ for an upland forest site to $114.9 \pm 13.4 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ for an estuarine freshwater
461 marsh (Rey-Sanchez et al. 2018), with fluxes exceeding $40 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ at multiple sites (Figure
462 4b). These emissions are of a considerably broader range and have much higher annual values
463 than in an earlier synthesis by Baldocchi (2014) which included published values from 13 sites
464 (Figure 4a); median annual CH₄ fluxes (\pm SE) in that study were $6.4 \pm 1.9 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, compared
465 with $10.0 \pm 1.6 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ for our expanded database. Annual CH₄ sums in our database were
466 positively skewed, with skewness increasing with additional observations due largely to the
467 inclusion of high CH₄-emitting freshwater marsh sites (Figure 4).

468 As suggested from Figure 3b, annual wetland CH₄ emissions differed significantly among
469 biomes, even when considering accumulated uncertainty (average Monte Carlo $\chi^2 = 13.4$ (12.1-
470 14.7, 95% confidence interval), $df = 3$, $p < 0.05$) (Table 1). Median CH₄ emissions were
471 significantly lower for tundra wetlands ($2.9 \pm 1.3 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$) than temperate wetlands ($27.4 \pm$
472 $3.4 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$). Higher CH₄ emissions were observed from subtropical/tropical wetlands ($43.2 \pm$
473 $11.2 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$), based on only three site years of data, however, emphasizing the need for
474 additional flux tower measurements in the tropics.

475 Whereas annual boreal/taiga wetland CH₄ emissions were comparable to values reported in a
476 recent synthesis of predominantly chamber-based CH₄ flux measurements (Treat et al. 2018b),
477 our tower-based measurements are ~50% lower and over six times higher for tundra and

478 temperate wetlands, respectively (Table 1). The inconsistencies highlighted in Table 1 not only
479 reflect the differences in the number and location of sites between datasets, but also the
480 discrepancies resulting from different measurement techniques. Several studies have noted
481 considerable differences in CH₄ emissions measured using EC and chamber techniques, with
482 estimates from chambers often higher than those from the EC measurements (Schrier-Uijl et al.;
483 Hendriks et al. 2010; Meijide et al. 2011; Krauss et al. 2016). This distinction highlights the need
484 for additional studies investigating the systematic differences caused by the different spatial and
485 temporal sampling footprints of these methods (Krauss et al. 2016; Morin et al. 2017; Windham-
486 Myers et al. 2018; Xu et al. 2017). Characterizing discrepancies between measurement
487 techniques may also help constrain bottom-up estimates of CH₄ emissions and reduce the
488 disagreement of ~15 Tg C y⁻¹ between bottom-up (139 Tg CH₄ y⁻¹) and top-down (125 Tg CH₄
489 y⁻¹) estimates of CH₄ emissions from natural wetlands (Saunois et al. 2016a).

490 Annual CH₄ emissions also differed significantly across ecosystems (average Monte
491 Carlo $\chi^2 = 45.5$ (39.3-50.1), $df = 9$, $p < 0.001$; Figure 5), with median fluxes highest for
492 freshwater marshes (43.2 ± 4.2 g C m⁻² y⁻¹) and lowest for upland ecosystems (1.3 ± 0.7 g C m⁻²
493 y⁻¹). Treat et al. (2018b) also observed the highest annual emissions in marshes and reported a
494 similar median value for temperate marshes (49.6 g C m⁻² y⁻¹). Wet tundra and bogs had
495 significantly lower annual emissions than marshes (Figure 5), which in part reflects their
496 presence in colder boreal and tundra systems, as well as differences in vegetation type, nutrient
497 status and hydrological regime (Treat et al. 2018b). Low median CH₄ emission was observed
498 from salt marshes in our dataset (0.8 ± 2.9 g C m⁻² y⁻¹), because high sulfate concentrations
499 inhibit methanogenesis (Poffenbarger et al. 2011; Holm et al. 2016). Even drained wetlands
500 converted to agricultural land can be large sources of CH₄ associated with seasonal flooding

501 (Figure 5). Median annual CH₄ flux from rice was $12.6 \pm 1.6 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, which is slightly lower
502 than the IPCC default value of $15 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ (Sass 2003).

503

504 *4.3 Environmental controls on annual CH₄ emissions across freshwater wetland sites*

505 Using an integrated CH₄ flux database, we can begin to investigate the factors associated
506 with varying CH₄ emissions across sites. We explored the effects of WTD, T_{MST} or T_{MAT}, NEE,
507 GPP and ER on annual CH₄ flux. At global scales, T_{MAT} and T_{MST} were the most important
508 predictors of annual CH₄ flux across wetland sites ($p < 0.001$ for each), with the fixed factor of
509 T_{MAT} or T_{MST} explaining ~65% of the variation in log transformed annual CH₄ emission (Figure
510 6a,b). Previous synthesis studies also observed a significant, but weaker, relationship between
511 soil temperature and average CH₄ emissions across sites, explaining < 15% of the variation in
512 CH₄ flux in those studies (Olefeldt et al. 2013; Yvon-Durocher et al. 2014). However, our
513 findings are consistent with numerous site-level studies that report a strong correlation between
514 wetland CH₄ emissions and temperature, with nearly 95% of all EC studies reporting a
515 significant relationship between temperature and CH₄ flux (Morin 2018). Across sites, Peltola et
516 al. (2019) found that the most important predictor in a random forest model used to upscale EC
517 CH₄ emissions across northern latitudes was temperature, again highlighting the importance of
518 temperature in regulating CH₄ emissions within and across sites.

519 Water table depth has also commonly been identified as a key control on CH₄ emissions
520 (Turetsky et al. 2014; Bubier et al. 2005), because higher water levels often inhibit oxygen
521 availability and lower the soil reduction potential, making methanogenesis more
522 thermodynamically favorable. Although predominantly chamber-based wetland CH₄ syntheses
523 have found a positive relationship between WTD and average or annual CH₄ emissions across

524 sites (Olefeldt et al. 2013; Turetsky et al. 2014; Treat et al. 2018b), we observed no significant
525 relationship between mean WTD and annual CH₄ flux across all sites ($\chi^2 = 0.2$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.66$,
526 $N_{sites} = 20$, $N_{site\ yrs} = 46$), even when considering WTD² or WTD³ (Olefeldt et al. 2013). However,
527 if we consider only sites where WTD was below the soil surface for part or all of the year
528 (Figure 6c solid circles), we did observe a significant relationship with WTD ($p < 0.05$).
529 Conversely, CH₄ emissions for permanently inundated sites showed no significant relationship
530 with WTD (Figure 6c open circles) ($\chi^2 = 0.5$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.50$, $N_{sites} = 13$, $N_{site\ yrs} = 19$). This result
531 supports the finding that wetlands that are permanently inundated or exhibit little variation in
532 WTD tend to show weak to no correlation between WTD and CH₄ emissions (Chu et al. 2014;
533 Jackowicz-Korczyński et al. 2010; Rinne et al. 2007; Christensen et al. 2003); in contrast,
534 wetlands with lower and more variable water levels often have a significant relationship between
535 WTD and CH₄ emissions (Bubier et al. 2005; Treat et al. 2007). However, only half of the sites
536 currently included in the database report water table position, and given the importance of WTD
537 in regulating CH₄ exchange, it is critical to ensure that WTD is measured across all sites.

538 Gross primary production and ER were both significant positive predictors of annual CH₄
539 flux ($\chi^2 = 21.3$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.001$, $r_m^2 = 0.29$ and $\chi^2 = 17.1$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.001$, $r_m^2 = 0.25$,
540 respectively, $N_{sites} = 26$, $N_{site\ yrs} = 64$), although there was no significant relationship between
541 NEE and annual CH₄ flux ($\chi^2 = 0.9$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.33$, $N_{sites} = 2$, $N_{site\ yrs} = 64$). However, when
542 considering GPP or ER in a multiple linear regression model with T_{MST}, including interaction
543 terms (Chu et al. 2014), neither GPP nor ER were significant, suggesting that the observed
544 relationship with GPP or ER was due to co-variation with soil temperature and, possibly, other
545 environmental drivers.

546 The strong temperature dependence of ecosystem-scale CH₄ emissions we observed across
547 wetland sites is in line with the high temperature sensitivity of CH₄ emissions found across
548 microbial to ecosystem scales (Yvon-Durocher et al. 2014). CH₄ emissions also have a higher
549 temperature dependence than ER, such that the ratio of CH₄ to CO₂ emissions was found to
550 increase markedly with seasonal increases in temperature (Yvon-Durocher et al. 2014).
551 Similarly, we observed a significant increase in the ratio of annual CH₄ to ER along geographic
552 temperature gradients, ranging from 0.4 to 7.9%, with a median value of 2.8% across the dataset
553 (Figure 6d). This relationship suggests that warming may result in a greater relative contribution
554 of CH₄ to total carbon emissions from wetland ecosystems. With a growing FLUXNET CH₄
555 database, it will be possible to further explore the dominant controls on CH₄ fluxes within and
556 across ecosystem types, as well as further investigate the temperature dependence of ecosystem-
557 scale CH₄ exchange (Schipper et al. 2014; Arcus et al. 2016; Yvon-Durocher et al. 2014).

558

559 *4.4 Time scales of variability*

560 Methane fluxes exhibited strong variability over a range of time scales, with the variation
561 across time scales differing between wetland types (Figure 7). As observed previously
562 (Sturtevant et al. 2016), the seasonal time scale dominated CH₄ flux variability across wetland
563 types, but was most pronounced in rice paddies, which have a distinct growing season, and least
564 pronounced in bogs (Figure 7). Across ecosystem types, variation was lowest at the multiday
565 scale, although multiday CH₄ flux variation was slightly greater in rice paddies and wet tundra,
566 potentially indicating greater water table fluctuations (Sturtevant et al. 2016), particularly at rice
567 paddy sites which are subject to seasonal drainage (Knox et al. 2016; Runkle et al. 2019).
568 Whereas some studies report a strong diel pattern in CH₄ emissions from wetlands and rice

569 paddies (Knox et al. 2016; Chu et al. 2014; Morin et al. 2014b; Kim et al. 1999), others have
570 found little or no diel variation (Rinne et al. 2018; Jackowicz-Korczyński et al. 2010; Yagi and
571 Minami 1990; Nadeau et al. 2013). Across wetland types, diel variation was greatest in
572 freshwater marshes (Figure 7), which is consistent with the observations that the vegetation at
573 sites with a strong diel cycle of CH₄ emissions is typically dominated by species with convective
574 gas flow such as *Phragmites australis* or *Typha* spp. (Brix et al. 1992; Chanton et al. 1993).
575 Bogs, fens, and wet tundra showed the greatest variation at the hourly scale (Figure 7). This is
576 likely in part due to typically lower fluxes at these sites as hourly perturbations of turbulent time
577 series are largely dominated by noise (Hollinger and Richardson 2005), as well as the fact that
578 near-surface turbulence and short-term pressure fluctuations can strongly influence CH₄
579 exchange in these peat dominated ecosystems (Nadeau et al. 2013; Sachs et al. 2008).

580

581 *4.5 Gap-filling performance and uncertainty quantification*

582 The performance of the neural networks varied strongly across sites (Figure 8). Model r^2 ,
583 calculated from the median ANN prediction and observed fluxes at each site, ranged from ~0 to
584 0.92 across sites, with a median value of 0.41. Across sites, ANN performance was strongly
585 linked to the percentage of total variance at diel and seasonal scales ($r^2 = 0.69$, $p < 0.001$),
586 indicating that across the wide range of observed flux magnitudes, sites with a more distinct
587 seasonal and diel pattern tended to be more predictable (Figure 8). There was also a significant
588 negative relationship between model r^2 and the percentage of total variance at the hourly scale
589 across sites ($r^2 = 0.72$, $p < 0.001$), because, as noted previously, hourly perturbations are largely
590 dominated by noise (Hollinger and Richardson 2005).

591 Knowledge of the random errors in half-hourly flux measurements is not only important for
592 evaluating the uncertainty in cumulative fluxes (e.g. daily, monthly, or annual) and comparing
593 fluxes across tower sites, but it also needed to incorporate information about random flux errors
594 in model-data synthesis activities (Richardson et al. 2006). As noted above, random flux error
595 more closely followed a Laplace rather than Gaussian distribution. Within sites, $\sigma(\delta)$ was not
596 constant, but rather nearly always scaled with the magnitude of CH₄ fluxes (Figure 9a), as
597 predicted from theory (Richardson et al. 2006). As observed for other fluxes (Richardson et al.
598 2006), both the slope and intercept of this relationship varied among sites, and depending on the
599 sign of the flux (Figure 9a). Across sites, random flux error therefore scaled linearly with the
600 magnitude of mean CH₄ flux ($r^2 = 0.86$, $p < 0.001$), even when excluding the two highest CH₄-
601 emitting sites ($r^2 = 0.46$, $p < 0.001$) (Figure 9b). Whereas closed-path CH₄ analyzers have been
602 found to have lower random errors and instrument noise compared with open-path sensors
603 (Peltola et al. 2014), there was no clear evidence of a systematic effect of the influence of closed-
604 vs. open-path sensors on random errors across sites (Figure 9).

605 The total annual cumulative uncertainty in CH₄ fluxes, including both random and gap-
606 filling errors, ranged from ± 0.01 to ± 13.4 g C m⁻² y⁻¹, with a median value of ± 1.0 g C m⁻² y⁻¹
607 at 95% confidence (Figure 10a). Relative error decreased exponentially with flux magnitude,
608 ranging from 1.5 % to 60% in most cases (Figure 10b), although a few sites where annual CH₄
609 sums were near zero had relative errors exceeding 200% (data not shown). The highest relative
610 errors therefore tended to be associated with low CH₄-emitting sites, such as upland sites and
611 bogs, and the lowest relative errors were generally associated with high CH₄-emitting sites such
612 as freshwater marshes (Figure 10b).

613

614 **5 Future research directions and needs**

615 Better quantification of CH₄ sources and sinks will improve estimates of regional and global
616 CH₄ budgets and reduce uncertainties in the CH₄ cycle. In this general context, high-frequency
617 observations of ecosystem-scale CH₄ emissions should help constrain bottom-up CH₄ budgets,
618 improve our understanding of the environmental factors controlling CH₄ fluxes, and inform and
619 validate land-surface models used to estimate global CH₄ fluxes. Unlike well-established efforts
620 synthesizing CO₂, water vapour, and energy observations, no such global data synthesis or
621 initiative previously existed for CH₄. The database presented here addresses this gap with the EC
622 community by organizing the collection and aggregation of a global EC CH₄ database through
623 FLUXNET.

624 **EC flux data quality assessment:** Much of what has been learned within FLUXNET for
625 CO₂, water vapour, and energy measurements is informing, and should continue to inform, new
626 efforts for CH₄. Reliable EC measurements of CO₂ and water vapour fluxes have been conducted
627 at hundreds of sites across broad regional networks (Papale et al. 2012), and substantial efforts
628 have focused on developing best practices and harmonizing approaches across sites to ensure
629 consistent, high-quality flux measurements (Aubinet et al. 1999; Reichstein et al. 2005; Moffat et
630 al. 2007). CH₄ fluxes are often characterized by small fluxes with episodic spikes, and additional
631 research is needed to ensure reliable measurements (Peltola et al. 2014, 2013), and refine and
632 standardize methods and routines for data processing and quality checking (Nemitz et al. 2018;
633 Schaller et al. 2018). Recent efforts provided guidance on instrument selection, setup and
634 maintenance, and data processing for EC CH₄ flux measurements (Nemitz et al. 2018). However,
635 with respect to instrument setup and data processing, more research is needed in best practices
636 for storage flux quantification, despiking, and u_* filtering (Nemitz et al. 2018).

637 **Gap-filling:** Whereas neural networks have shown strong performance for gap-filling
638 CH₄ fluxes (Dengel et al. 2013; Knox et al. 2016), our results reveal some of the challenges of
639 gap-filling CH₄ fluxes at sites with low fluxes and/or a lack of seasonal and diel variation (Figure
640 8). More research is therefore needed for best practices for gap-filling to estimate annual CH₄
641 budgets (Nemitz et al. 2018). For example, there has yet to be a comprehensive analysis
642 comparing a wide range of gap-filling approaches for CH₄ fluxes similar to the study by Moffat
643 et al. (2007) for CO₂ exchange. While ANNs are one gap-filling method (Dengel et al. 2013;
644 Shoemaker et al. 2014; Morin et al. 2014a), numerous other gap-filling approaches exist,
645 including non-linear regression techniques, mean diurnal variation, look-up tables, marginal
646 distribution sampling, and the multiple imputation method (Moffat et al. 2007; Vitale et al.
647 2018). Future efforts should focus on systematically investigating these approaches across a
648 range of sites to provide best practices for gap-filling CH₄ exchange.

649 **Ancillary measurements:** Along with research that addresses the challenges of measuring
650 and processing EC CH₄ fluxes, key ancillary variables to help gap-fill, predict and scale CH₄
651 fluxes should also be measured more comprehensively across sites. For instance, although WTD
652 is known to strongly influence CH₄ emissions (Turetsky et al. 2014; Treat et al. 2018b), as noted
653 above, only half of the sites currently included in the database report water table position.
654 Generally, EC CH₄ measurements are implemented at sites also collecting CO₂ fluxes and
655 common meteorological measurements used in the flux community; however, guidelines are
656 only beginning to emerge for which additional supporting variables should be collected at sites
657 measuring CH₄ fluxes (Nemitz et al. 2018).

658 Measurements of variables beyond those relevant for CO₂ are needed to better understand
659 and predict the complex and interacting processes of CH₄ production, consumption and transport,

660 the latter of which includes diffusion, ebullition, and plant-mediated transport. Guidance on the
661 description of some basic variables affecting these processes is available through new protocols
662 in the flux community detailing soil meteorological measurements, ancillary vegetation
663 measurements, and site description, management and disturbance (Saunders et al. 2018; Op De
664 Beeck et al. 2018; Gielen et al. 2018). These protocols provide guidance on variables such as soil
665 temperature and soil moisture profiles, water table depth and snow depth, soil pH and soil type,
666 bulk density, and livestock density. However, although WTD is an easily measured proxy for
667 anaerobic conditions, direct and continuous measurement of redox potential and oxygen content
668 in particular would be valuable additional measurements (Nemitz et al. 2018). Similarly,
669 measuring variables such as conductivity, below-ground CH₄ concentrations, dissolved organic
670 carbon concentrations, and the presence of alternative electron acceptors such as nitrate, iron,
671 sulfate, and humic substances in the water and soil column would provide useful information for
672 the interpretation of CH₄ emissions. Stable isotope analyses of CH₄ are also valuable as they
673 provide important information on mechanisms of CH₄ production, transport, and oxidation
674 (Chanton et al. 1997; Marushchak et al. 2016). Detailed information on soil microbial
675 communities driving CH₄ production and consumption could also be helpful (Kwon et al. 2017).
676 Vegetation biomass, species composition and phenology are also important variables to consider,
677 because plants are a primary source of carbon substrates for methanogenic metabolism, and they
678 mediate CH₄ transport through aerenchymous tissue (Kwon et al. 2017; Joabsson et al. 1999;
679 Carmichael et al. 2014). New guidance is now available for such measurements at flux tower
680 locations (Gielen et al. 2018; Hufkens et al. 2018). Continuing to develop a consensus on best
681 practices for ancillary measurements is important for interpreting, gap-filling, and upscaling CH₄
682 flux measurements.

683 **Characterizing spatial variability:** CH₄ fluxes exhibit fine-scale spatial variability that can
684 span orders of magnitude within a landscape (Peltola et al. 2015; Marushchak et al. 2016; Desai
685 et al. 2015; Treat et al. 2018a; Iwata et al. 2018), attributable to heterogeneous soil properties and
686 moisture conditions, vegetation composition, and land-use (Davidson et al. 2016; Parmentier et
687 al. 2011; Chamberlain et al. 2018). Furthermore, there is evidence that traditionally unmeasured
688 surfaces (i.e., tree stems) are important sources of CH₄ to the atmosphere and could explain
689 spatial heterogeneity within ecosystems (Barba et al. 2019). Accurately representing spatial
690 heterogeneity and the relative fraction of uplands and wetlands is imperative for interpreting and
691 predicting CH₄ emissions within many ecosystems, and for upscaling flux measurements
692 regionally and globally as wetlands are hot spots for carbon cycling (Treat et al. 2018a; Tuovinen
693 et al. 2019; Röbger et al. 2019). Flux footprint analysis characterizing the fractional coverage of
694 the dominant surface types, particularly the fraction of open water and aerenchymatous plants, is
695 important for interpreting EC CH₄ flux measurements and quantifying annual CH₄ budgets at
696 spatially heterogeneous sites (Franz et al. 2016; Helbig et al. 2017a; Jammet et al. 2017) (Figure
697 11). This integration can be achieved by combining CH₄ measurements, flux footprint analysis,
698 and near-surface (e.g., phenocams) and/or high-resolution drone or satellite remote sensing data,
699 and should be common practice for all sites measuring CH₄ fluxes.

700 Spatial variability in ecosystem-scale CH₄ flux can further be examined by combining
701 chamber and EC measurements, including manual and auto-chambers, multi-tower approaches,
702 and airborne flux measurements (Peltola et al. 2015; Zona et al. 2016; Helbig et al. 2017a; Wolfe
703 et al. 2018; Kohnert et al. 2018; Lai et al. 2014; McNicol et al. 2017). Integrating additional
704 observations such as information on microbial communities, isotopic measurements, and
705 laboratory incubation observations along with chamber and EC CH₄ flux measurements can

706 further help explain CH₄ dynamics across scales (Angle et al. 2017; Chamberlain et al. 2018;
707 Yang et al. 2017). However, as discussed above, additional research is needed to reconcile
708 differences in fluxes measured across scales (Gioli et al. 2004; Holm et al. 2016; Meijide et al.
709 2011). Explicitly considering source area composition and spatial heterogeneity will provide
710 enhanced processed-based understanding of CH₄ fluxes and improve upscaled regional and
711 global estimates of CH₄ emissions, which can help reconcile the discrepancy between bottom-up
712 and top-down budgets (Saunois et al. 2016a; Morin et al. 2017; Davidson et al. 2016).

713 **More sites in key regions:** We expect the number of flux towers measuring CH₄ fluxes will
714 continue to grow (Chu et al. 2017; Pastorello et al. 2017; Morin 2018), but our compilation of
715 EC CH₄ flux sites highlights key underrepresented regions where future flux towers are needed
716 or where more efforts are needed for existing but non-reporting towers to contribute to
717 FLUXNET (Figure 1). As noted previously, notable gaps include both tropical and subtropical
718 regions, as well as eastern Canada, and the boreal forests of Russia. Figure 1 also provides
719 guidance on where new towers could be strategically located to help reconcile differences
720 between top-down and bottom-up estimates of wetland CH₄ emissions. In particular, substantial
721 disagreements between top-down and bottom-up estimates are found over the Congo basin, the
722 Inner Niger Delta, the Orinoco River Delta, the Marañon-Ucayali palm swamps, the Pantanal,
723 the Ganges-Brahmaputra Delta, Sumatra, the western Siberian lowlands, and the Hudson Bay
724 Lowlands (Figure 1). However, the placement of new towers is a strong function of the scientific
725 question being asked and research funding priorities, and therefore the optimal tower network
726 could be different for different applications (Mahecha et al. 2017; Papale et al. 2015; Villarreal et
727 al. 2018).

728 **Better understanding and representing processes:** One of the biggest challenges for
729 understanding ecosystem functioning is resolving overlapping, asynchronous (i.e., lagged) and
730 nonlinear processes (Sturtevant et al. 2016). This challenge is particularly relevant for
731 interpreting continuous, ecosystem-scale measurements of CH₄ exchange where scale-specific,
732 nonlinear, and lagged processes may dominate (Franz *et al.*, 2016; Sturtevant *et al.*, 2016; Knox
733 *et al.*, 2018). For instance, CH₄ emission responses to water table fluctuation can be nonlinear
734 and lagged on the order of days to months (Goodrich *et al.*, 2015; Sturtevant *et al.*, 2016). CH₄
735 flux has also been observed to lag GPP by hours to days (Rinne et al. 2018; Hatala et al. 2012).
736 Adequately representing these dynamics in process models is important, and further research is
737 needed to better characterize the complex and nonlinear processes influencing ecosystem-scale
738 CH₄ exchange across time scales.

739 The complex nature of CH₄ flux dynamics requires moving beyond traditional linear
740 correlation and regression, and using methods such as wavelets, information theory, and Granger
741 causality that are more tailored to address scale, nonlinearity, and lags directly (Stoy et al. 2005;
742 Vargas et al. 2011; Schäfer et al. 2014; Knox et al. 2016; Detto et al. 2012). Through a USGS
743 Powell Center working group activity, we will continue to investigate controls on CH₄ emissions
744 within and across wetland types. To further explore interactions between ecosystem-scale CH₄
745 exchange and drivers across time scales, wavelet analysis will be combined with information
746 theory to explore biosphere-atmosphere interactions regardless of form or asynchrony
747 (Sturtevant et al. 2016; Knox et al. 2018; Chamberlain et al. 2018). By coupling wavelet
748 decomposition with information theory, future research will investigate key controls on CH₄
749 fluxes across time scales, as well as the importance of nonlinearities and lags in predicting CH₄
750 flux dynamics. Future research will also use the global CH₄ database to parameterize and

751 benchmark the performance of land-surface models of global CH₄ emissions, providing a unique
752 opportunity for informing and validating biogeochemical models.

753 Coordinating, organizing and improving the integration of CH₄ fluxes in regional networks
754 and ultimately FLUXNET will bring us one step closer to achieving the goal of providing flux
755 information “everywhere and all of the time” (Baldocchi 2008). In the long-term, we hope to
756 integrate the global eddy covariance CH₄ database with other methods for measuring CH₄ fluxes,
757 such as chamber, aircraft, and satellite measurements. By integrating CH₄ flux measurements,
758 remote sensing, and modeling, we aim to better characterize CH₄ emissions from terrestrial
759 ecosystems and ultimately reduce uncertainties in the global CH₄ cycle.

760

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780 **Appendix A: Sites currently included in the database**

781 **Table A1** here

782

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1234 **Tables**

1235 **Table 1.** Number of site years and characteristics of CH₄ fluxes (g C m⁻² y⁻¹) currently included
 1236 in the database. Fluxes are compared with measurements reported in a recent synthesis of
 1237 predominantly chamber-based CH₄ flux measurements. Biome type was extracted from Olson et
 1238 al. (2001) using site coordinates and includes tundra, boreal/taiga, temperate, and
 1239 tropical/subtropical. Wetland CH₄ emissions differed significantly across biomes, with letters
 1240 indicating significant differences ($\alpha = 0.05$) among biomes.

Biome	#Site years	Median annual CH ₄ flux	25 th Percentile	75 th Percentile	References
Tundra	10	2.9	1.8	4.2	This study - all sites
	10	2.9 ^a	1.8	4.2	This study - wetlands
	31	5.6	1.0	11.4	Treat et al. (2018) [†] - all sites
	26	6.3	3.0	16.4	Treat et al. (2018) - wetlands
Boreal & Taiga	35	8.3	4.1	10.9	This study - all sites
	30	9.5 ^{ab}	6.0	11.3	This study - wetlands
	68	13.1	3.5	23.7	Treat et al. (2018) - all sites
	67	13.2	3.6	23.7	Treat et al. (2018) - wetlands
Temperate	72	16.4	7.9	35.9	This study - all sites
	47	27.4 ^b	10.0	47.3	This study - wetlands
	27	4.3	0.3	41.7	Treat et al. (2018) - all sites
	25	5.3	0.8	42.2	Treat et al. (2018) - wetlands
Tropical & Subtropical	3	43.2	20.0	46.8	This study - all sites
	3	43.2 ^{ab}	20.0	46.8	This study - wetlands
	--	--	--	--	Treat et al. (2018) - all sites
	--	--	--	--	Treat et al. (2018) - wetlands

1241 [†] Note that similar to our tower only dataset, values from Treat et al. (2018) represent measured annual fluxes
 1242 derived from a smaller dataset where measurements were made in the growing season and non-growing season.

1243 **Appendix A: Sites currently included in the database**

1244 **Table A1.** Characteristics of sites currently included in the database. Ecosystem type is based on the classification of Olefeldt *et al.*
 1245 (2013) and Treat *et al.* (2018). Biome was based on the classification of Olson *et al.* (2001) and extracted using site coordinates.
 1246 Vegetation type was based on the International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP) definition. Salinity regime includes
 1247 freshwater (FW) or saltwater (SW) wetlands. Disturbance is based on the classification of Turetsky *et al.* (2014). Data from all sites
 1248 are publicly available, primarily through Ameriflux and the European Database Cluster, and in a few cases, through other
 1249 databases/repositories. Site DOIs are specified where applicable.

Site ID	Site Name	Country	Lat	Long	Biome	IGBP	Ecosystem Type	Salinity	Wetland Disturbance	Site PI	data DOI/Location
US-ICs	Wet sedge tundra	USA	68.606	-149.311	Tundra	WET	Wet tundra	FW	Undisturbed	Eugenie Euskirchen	doi: 10.17190/AMF/1246130
SE-St1	Stordalen grassland (Mire)	Sweden	68.350	19.050	Tundra	WET	Fen	FW	Undisturbed	Thomas Friborg	European Fluxes Database Cluster
SE-Sto	Stordalen Palsa Bog	Sweden	68.356	19.050	Tundra	WET	Bog	FW	Undisturbed	Thomas Friborg	European Fluxes Database Cluster
RU-Vrk	Seida/Vorkuta	Russia	67.055	62.940	Tundra	WET	Wet tundra	FW	Undisturbed	Thomas Friborg	European Fluxes Database Cluster
RU-Ch2	Chersky reference	Russia	68.617	161.351	Tundra	WET	Wet tundra	FW	Undisturbed	Matthias Goeckede	European Fluxes Database Cluster
RU-Che	Chersky	Russia	68.613	161.341	Tundra	WET	Wet tundra	FW	Drying	Matthias Goeckede	European Fluxes Database Cluster
RU-SAM	Samoylov	Russia	72.374	126.496	Tundra	WET	Wet tundra	FW	Undisturbed	Torsten Sachs	European Fluxes Database Cluster

US-NGB	NGEE Barrow	USA	71.280	-156.609	Tundra	WET	Wet tundra	FW	Undisturbed	Margaret Torn	doi: 10.17190/AMF/1436326
US-Beo	Barrow	USA	71.281	-156.612	Tundra	WET	Wet tundra	FW	Undisturbed	Donatella Zona	Ameriflux
US-Bes	Barrow	USA	71.281	-156.596	Tundra	WET	Wet tundra	FW	Undisturbed	Donatella Zona	Ameriflux
US-Atq	Atqasuk	USA	70.470	-157.409	Tundra	WET	Wet tundra	FW	Undisturbed	Donatella Zona	doi:10.17190/AMF/1246029
US-Ivo	Ivotuk	USA	68.486	-155.750	Tundra	WET	Wet tundra	FW	Undisturbed	Donatella Zona	doi:10.17190/AMF/1246067
--	Black spruce forest	USA	64.700	-148.320	Boreal Forests/Taiga	ENF	Upland	--	--	Eugenie Euskirchen	http://www.lter.uaf.edu/data/data-detail/id/708
--	Rich Fen	USA	64.704	-148.313	Boreal Forests/Taiga	WET	Fen	FW	Undisturbed	Eugenie Euskirchen	http://www.lter.uaf.edu/data/data-detail/id/708
--	Thermokarst collapse scar bog	USA	64.700	-148.320	Boreal Forests/Taiga	WET	Bog	FW	Undisturbed	Eugenie Euskirchen	http://www.lter.uaf.edu/data/data-detail/id/708
FI-Lom	Lompolojanokka	Finland	67.997	24.209	Boreal Forests/Taiga	WET	Fen	FW	Undisturbed	Annalea Lohila	European Fluxes Database Cluster
SE-Deg	Degero	Sweden	64.182	19.557	Boreal Forests/Taiga	WET	Fen	FW	Undisturbed	Matthias Peichl, Mats Nilsson	European Fluxes Database Cluster
CA-SCC	Scotty Creek - Peat plateau/collapse scar	Canada	61.308	-121.299	Boreal Forests/Taiga	ENF	Peat plateau	FW	--	Oliver Sonnentag	doi:10.17190/AMF/1480303
CA-SCB	Scotty Creek Bog	Canada	61.309	-121.299	Boreal Forests/Taiga	WET	Bog	FW	Undisturbed	Oliver Sonnentag	Ameriflux
US-NGC	NGEE Arctic Council	USA	64.861	-163.701	Boreal Forests/Taiga	WET	Wet tundra	FW	Undisturbed	Margaret Torn	Ameriflux

US-Uaf	University of Alaska, Fairbanks	USA	64.866	-147.856	Boreal Forests/Taiga	WET	Bog	FW	Undisturbed	Masahito Ueyama	doi:10.17190/AMF/1480322
FI-Sii	Siikaneva I (FI-Sii)	Finland	61.833	24.193	Boreal Forests/Taiga	WET	Fen	FW	Undisturbed	Timo Vesala & Ivan Mammarella	European Fluxes Database Cluster
FI-Si2	Siikaneva II	Finland	61.837	24.170	Boreal Forests/Taiga	WET	Bog	FW	Undisturbed	Timo Vesala & Ivan Mammarella	European Fluxes Database Cluster
US-Myb	Mayberry Wetland	USA	38.050	-121.765	Temperate	WET	Marsh	FW	Wetting	Dennis Baldocchi	doi:10.17190/AMF/1246139
US-Sne	Sherman Island Restored Wetland	USA	38.037	-121.755	Temperate	WET	Marsh	FW	Wetting	Dennis Baldocchi	doi:10.17190/AMF/1418684
US-Tw1	Twitchell West Pond Wetland	USA	38.107	-121.647	Temperate	WET	Marsh	FW	Wetting	Dennis Baldocchi	doi:10.17190/AMF/1246147
US-Tw4	Twitchell East End Wetland	USA	38.103	-121.641	Temperate	WET	Marsh	FW	Wetting	Dennis Baldocchi	doi:10.17190/AMF/1246148
US-Twt	Twitchell Rice	USA	38.109	-121.653	Temperate	CRO - Rice	Rice	FW	--	Dennis Baldocchi	doi:10.17190/AMF/1246151
US-Bi2	Bouldin Island corn	USA	38.109	-121.535	Temperate	CRO - Other	Drained/Agricultural wetland	FW	Drying	Dennis Baldocchi	doi:10.17190/AMF/1419513
US-Bi1	Bouldin Island Alfalfa	USA	38.102	-121.504	Temperate	CRO - Other	Drained/Agricultural wetland	FW	Drying	Dennis Baldocchi	doi:10.17190/AMF/1480317

US-Snd	Sherman Island	USA	38.037	-121.754	Temperate	CRO - Other	Drained/Agricultural wetland	FW	Drying	Dennis Baldocchi	doi: 10.17190/AMF/1246094
US-OWC	Old Woman Creek	USA	41.380	-82.512	Temperate	WET	Marsh	FW	Undisturbed	Gil Bohrer	doi: 10.17190/AMF/1246094
US-ORv	Olentangy River Wetland Research Park	USA	40.020	-83.018	Temperate	WET	Marsh	FW	Undisturbed	Gil Bohrer	doi:10.17190/AMF/1246135
NZ-Kop	Kopuatai	New Zealand	-37.388	175.554	Temperate	WET	Bog	FW	Undisturbed	Dave Campbell	https://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/handle/10289/11393
IT-Cas	Castellaro	Italy	45.070	8.718	Temperate	CRO - Rice	Rice	FW	--	Alessandro Cescatti	European Fluxes Database Cluster
US-WPT	Winous Point North Marsh	USA	41.465	-82.996	Temperate	WET	Marsh	FW	Wetting	Jiquan Chen & Housen Chu	doi: 10.17190/AMF/1246155
US-CRT	Curtice Walter-Berger cropland	USA	41.628	-83.347	Temperate	CRO - Other	Upland	--	--	Jiquan Chen & Housen Chu	doi: 10.17190/AMF/1246156
US-Los	Lost Creek	USA	46.083	-89.979	Temperate	WET	Fen	FW	Undisturbed	Ankur Desai	doi: 10.17190/AMF/1246071
JP-Mse	Mase paddy flux site (MSE)	Japan	36.054	140.027	Temperate	CRO - Rice	Rice	FW	--	Akira Miyata	European Fluxes Database Cluster
JP-Swl	Suwa Lake Site	japan	36.047	138.108	Temperate	WAT	Waterbody	FW	Undisturbed	Hiroki Iwata	European Fluxes Database Cluster
IT-BCi	Borgo Cioffi	Italy	40.524	14.957	Temperate	CRO - Other	Upland	--	--	Vincenzo Magliulo	European Fluxes Database Cluster
--	Hongyuan	China	32.800	102.550	Temperate	GRA	Upland	--	--	Shuli Niu	European Fluxes Database Cluster

US-NC4	NC Alligator River	USA	35.788	-75.904	Temperate	WET	Swamp	FW	Undisturbed	Asko Noormets	doi:10.17190/AMF/1480314
DE-SfN	Schechenfilz Nord	Germany	47.806	11.328	Temperate	WET	Bog	FW	Undisturbed	Hans Peter Schmid	European Fluxes Database Cluster
US-Ho1	Howland Forest (main tower)	USA	45.204	-68.740	Temperate	ENF	Upland	--	--	Andrew Richardson	doi:10.17190/AMF/1246061
US-HRA	Humnoke Farm Rice Field AWD, United States	USA	34.585	-91.752	Temperate	CRO - Rice	Rice	FW	--	Benjamin Runkle	Ameriflux
US-HRC	Humnoke Farm Rice Field conventional, United States	USA	34.589	-91.752	Temperate	CRO - Rice	Rice	FW	--	Benjamin Runkle	Ameriflux
KR-CRK	Cheorwon Rice paddy	South Korea	38.201	127.251	Temperate	CRO - Rice	Rice	FW	--	Youngryel Ryu & Minseok Kang	European Fluxes Database Cluster
DE-Zrk	Zarnekow	Germany	53.876	12.889	Temperate	WET	Fen	FW	Wetting	Torsten Sachs	European Fluxes Database Cluster
DE-Dgw	Dagowsee	Germany	53.151	13.054	Temperate	WAT	Waterbody	FW	Undisturbed	Torsten Sachs	European Fluxes Database Cluster
US-MRM	Marsh Resource Meadowlands Mitigation Bank	USA	40.816	-74.044	Temperate	WET	Salt Marsh	SW	Wetting	Karina Schäfer	Ameriflux
--	Bog Lake peatland	USA	47.530	-93.470	Temperate	WET	Fen	FW	Undisturbed	Shahi Verma	Ameriflux

--	MacArthur Agro-Ecology Research Center	USA	27.163	-81.187	Temperate	CRO - Other	Drained/Agricultural wetland	FW	Drying	Jed Sparks & Samuel Chamberlain	Ameriflux
JP-BBY	Bibai bog	Japan	43.323	141.811	Temperate	WET	Bog	FW	Undisturbed	Masahito Ueyama	European Fluxes Database Cluster
US-StJ	St Jones Reserve	USA	39.088	-75.437	Temperate	WET	Salt Marsh	SW	Undisturbed	Rodrigo Vargas	doi:10.17190/AMF/1480316
US-Srr	Suisun marsh - Rush Ranch	USA	38.201	-122.026	Temperate	WET	Salt Marsh	SW	Undisturbed	Lisamarie Windham-Myers	doi:10.17190/AMF/1418685
AT-Neu	Neustift	Austria	47.117	11.318	Temperate	GRA	Upland	--	--	Georg Wohlfahrt	European Fluxes Database Cluster
US-LA2	Salvador WMA Freshwater Marsh	USA	29.859	-90.287	Tropical & Subtropical	WET	Marsh	FW	Undisturbed	Ken Krauss	Ameriflux
US-LA1	Pointe-aux-Chenes Brackish Marsh	USA	29.501	-90.445	Tropical & Subtropical	WET	Salt Marsh	SW	Undisturbed	Ken Krauss	Ameriflux
MY-MLM	Maludam	Malaysia	1.454	111.149	Tropical & Subtropical	WET	Swamp	FW	Undisturbed	Angela Tang	https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1161966

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Figure Caption List

Figure 1. Location of the 200 tower sites that report eddy covariance CH₄ flux measurements worldwide. Triangles indicate sites from which data are included in this manuscript, with circles indicating additional flux towers measuring CH₄ emissions. The colors of the markers represent the vegetation type based on the International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP) definition. See Table S1 for a list of sites, their characteristics, and years of operation. Sites are overlaid over a map of the differences between the average CH₄ emissions over 2000-2010 between top-down and bottom-up wetland CH₄ estimates. Top-down estimates are represented by the natural fluxes inventoried in NOAA's CarbonTracker (<https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/carbontracker-ch4/>). Bottom-up emissions were produced from an ensemble of 11 Earth System Models simulations (Poulter et al. 2017).

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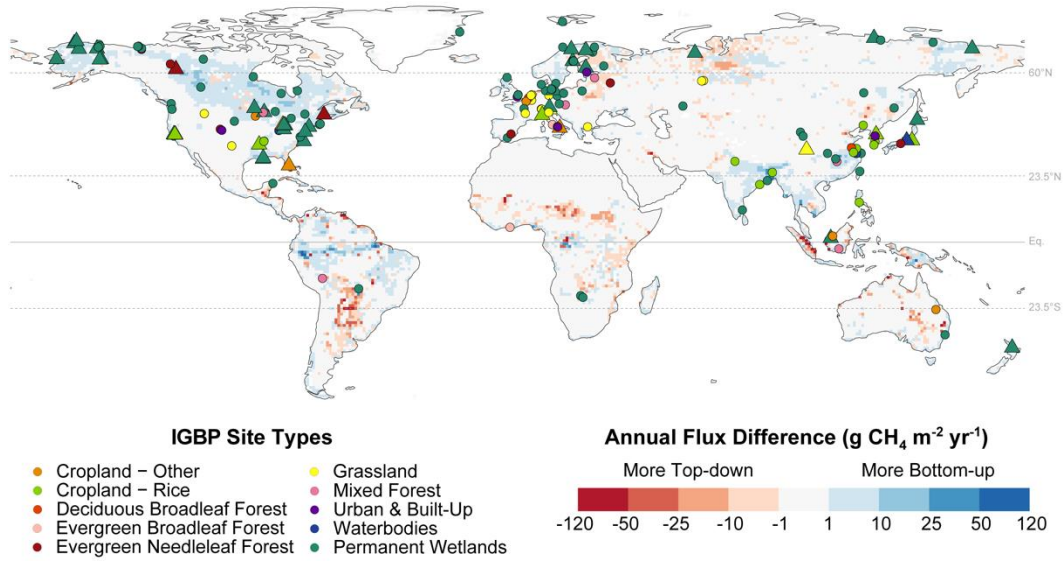
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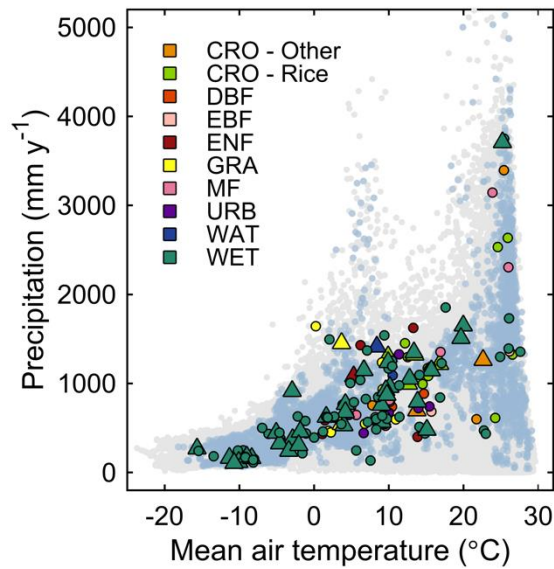
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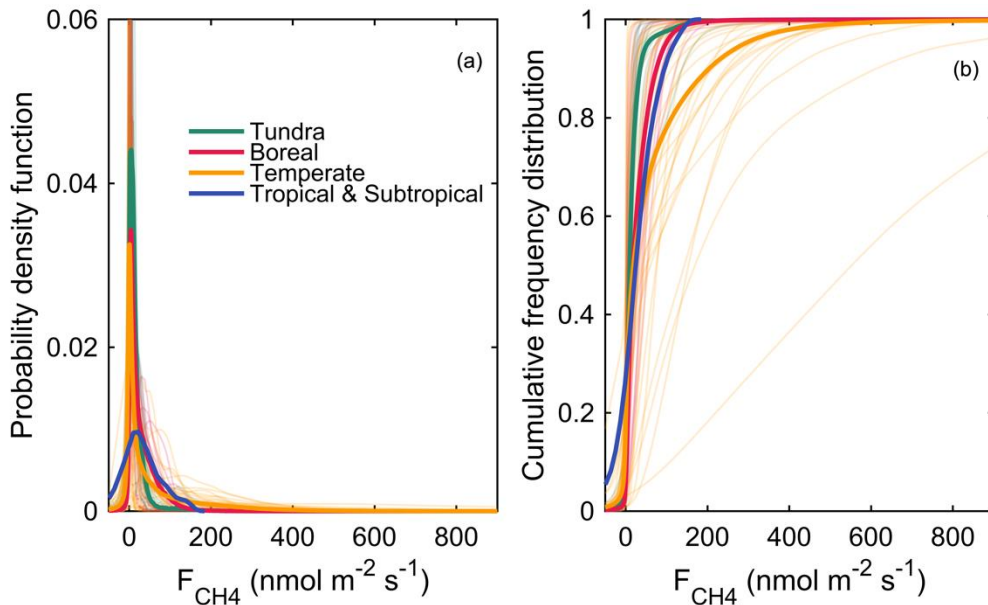
1340 **Figures**



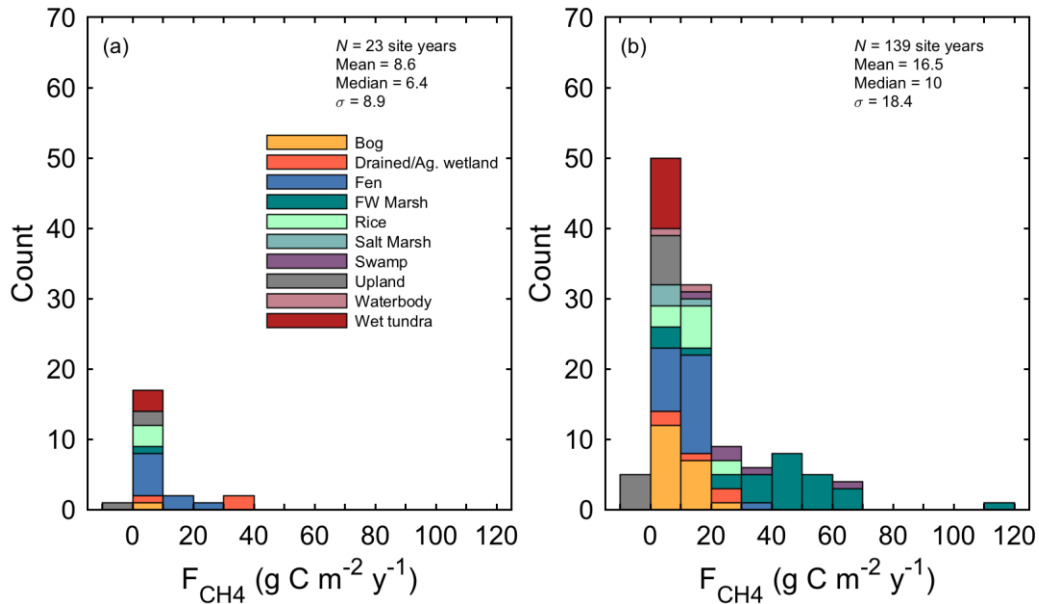
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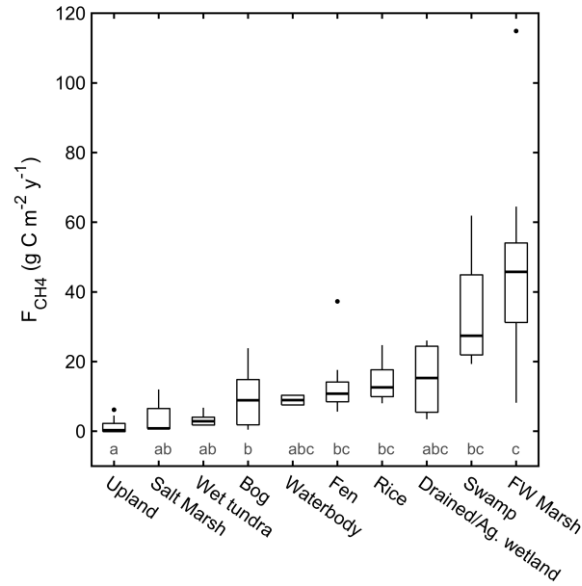


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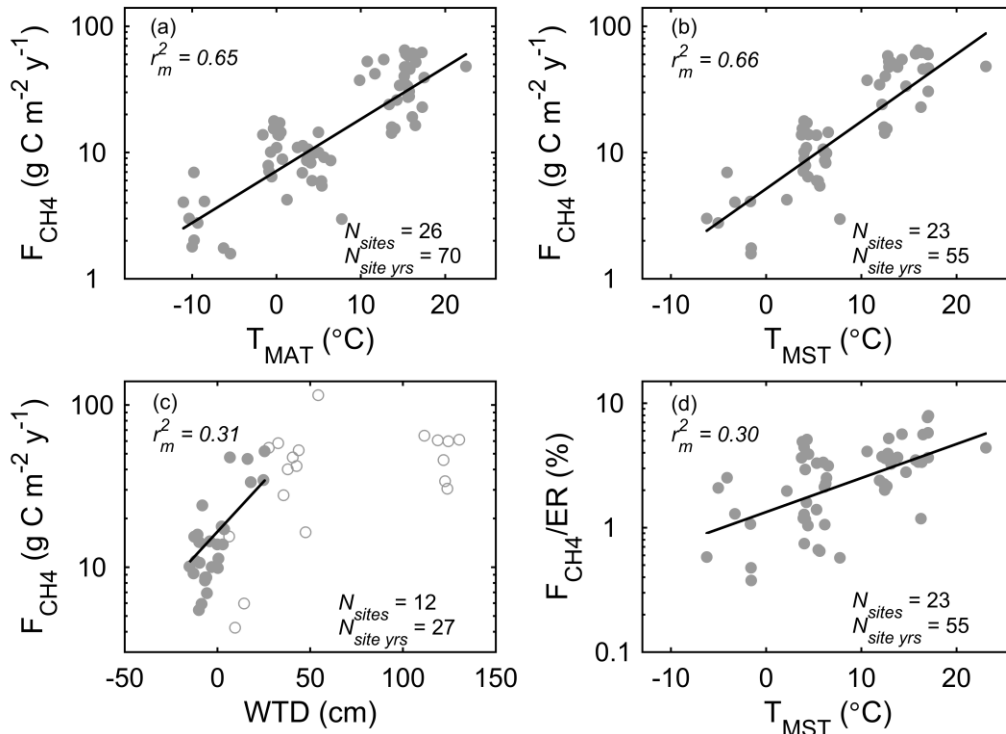


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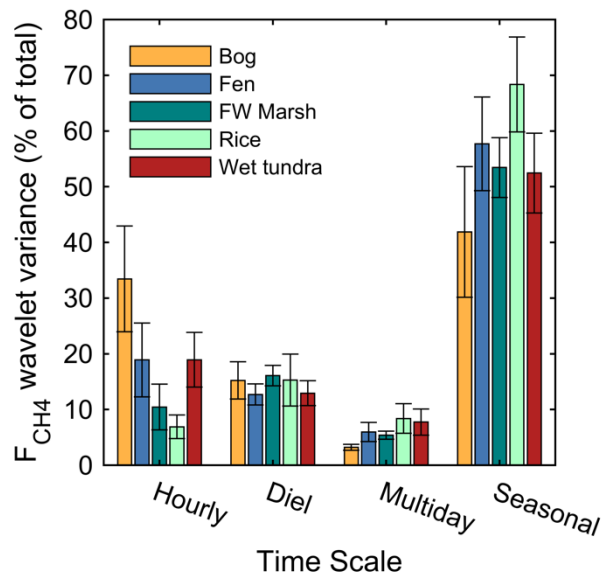


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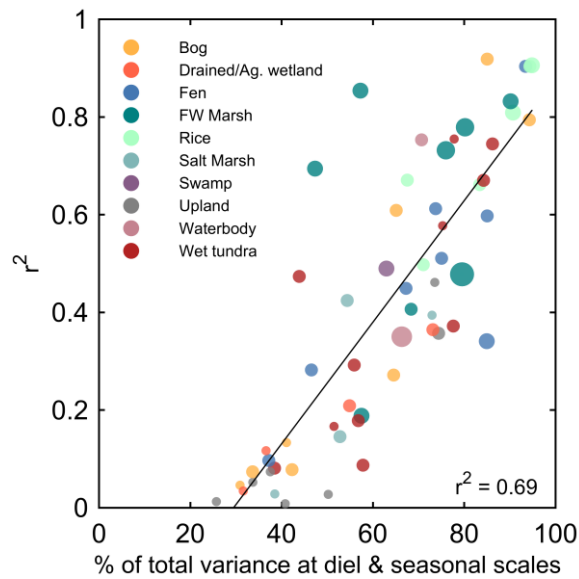


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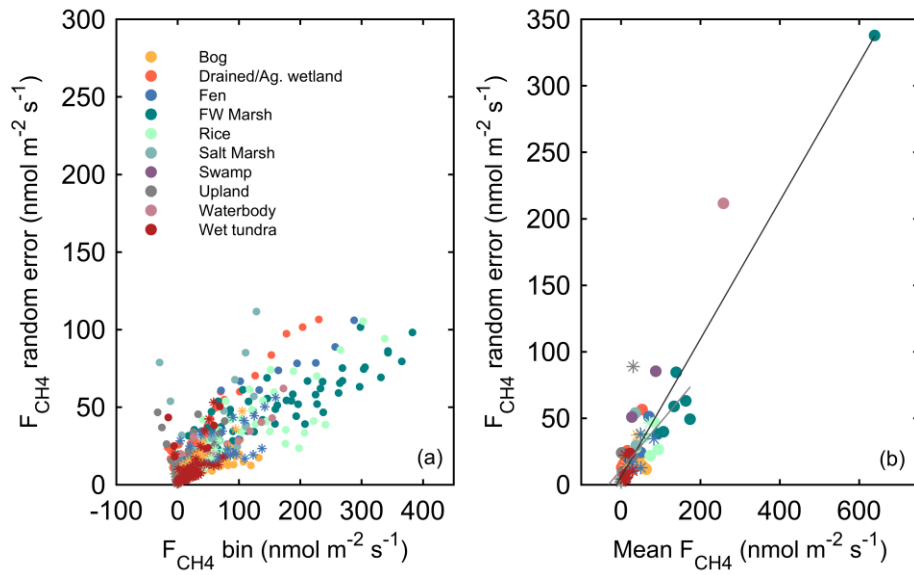
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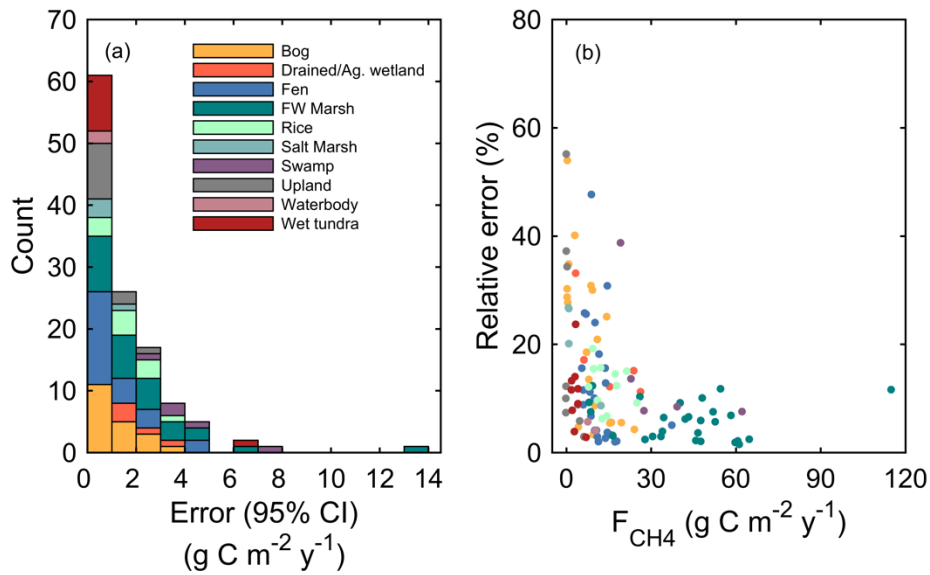
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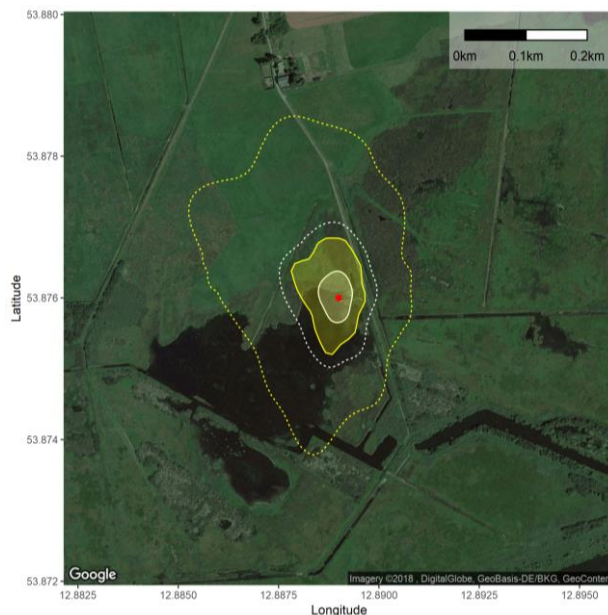


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