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**Convective mixing and high littoral production established systematic errors in the  
diel oxygen curves of a shallow, eutrophic lake**

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**Running Head:** Diel oxygen curves method reassessment

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littoral.

24 **Abstract**

25         The diel (24-hour) oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) curves approach has become a popular method for  
26 analyzing gross primary production (GPP) and ecosystem respiration (ER) rates in  
27 aquatic systems. Despite the simplicity of this approach, there remain aspects of the  
28 calculation and interpretation of diel O<sub>2</sub> curves which may skew results, with potentially  
29 large implications for estimates of metabolic rates. One common problem in lakes is the  
30 occurrence of unexpected changes in O<sub>2</sub> concentrations (for instance, increasing  
31 overnight O<sub>2</sub> concentrations). Such changes have typically been ascribed to the random  
32 mixing of pockets of O<sub>2</sub>. It has thus been suggested that negative GPP or positive ER  
33 values should be included in calculations, on the assumption that under- and  
34 overestimates should occur with equal frequency, and thus cancel each other out. Our  
35 data from a shallow, eutrophic lake provided a high share of negative GPP values. We  
36 argue that these may have been the result of elevated littoral productivity coupled with  
37 convective currents produced by consistent differences in the heating or cooling of littoral  
38 and offshore waters. Such phenomena might be common in small, sheltered lakes where  
39 the role of mixing by wind is diminished. We conclude that a failure to account for  
40 consistent metabolic gradients and periodic convective mixing may lead to a chronic  
41 underestimation of metabolic rates in lakes when using the diel O<sub>2</sub> curves method.

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47 **Introduction**

48           The diel (24-hour) oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) curve technique has rapidly become an accepted  
49 standard approach for measuring metabolic rates in aquatic ecosystems since being  
50 designed for fluvial systems six decades ago (Odum, 1956). By measuring the rates at  
51 which pelagic day- and nighttime O<sub>2</sub> concentrations change, this approach offers  
52 researchers an elegant, simple way to quantify ecosystem respiration (ER) and gross  
53 primary production (GPP) rates (Staehr et al., 2010; Hoellein et al., 2013). Specifically,  
54 Hanson et al. (2008), adapting from Odum (1956), proposed that the areal rate of change  
55 of dissolved oxygen (Q) at a given station could be calculated using the model:

56 
$$Q = GPP - R + D + A \quad (1)$$

57 Where GPP is the areal rate of gross primary production, R is the areal community  
58 respiration rate, D is the local flux of O<sub>2</sub> between the water surface and atmosphere, and  
59 A represents all other O<sub>2</sub> fluxes, such as those resulting from vertical or horizontal  
60 mixing. For rapidly-and thoroughly-mixed fluvial systems, diel O<sub>2</sub> curves based on single  
61 probe deployments are expected to represent both benthic and water column production.  
62 In lakes, the degree to which whole-lake metabolic rates can be accurately estimated  
63 using the diel O<sub>2</sub> curves method varies with the location and duration of an O<sub>2</sub> probe's  
64 installation, the rate at which a lake's water column is mixed, and the metabolic  
65 variability within a given mixed layer (Van de Bogert et al., 2012; Obrador et al., 2014).  
66 Calculated GPP values might therefore only represent phytoplankton production rates  
67 within the measured mixed layer, and the degree of benthic and littoral periphyton  
68 (attached algae) or macrophyte contribution would increase with water mixing and/or  
69 measuring proximity to those environments (Coloso et al., 2008). Considering the

70 potentially large variations in metabolic rates between the water column, benthos, and  
71 littoral zones of a given lake, the chosen measurement location may influence the  
72 resulting data (Lauster et al. 2006; Caraco and Cole 2002; Van de Bogert et al., 2007;  
73 Sadro et al., 2011; Staehr et al., 2012). Littoral macrophyte beds can boost net ecosystem  
74 production (NEP), producing high dissolved O<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the littoral surface  
75 waters compared to offshore surface waters (Unmuth et al., 2000; Lauster et al., 2006;  
76 They et al., 2013; Idrizaj et al. 2016; Fig. 1).

77         With rapid and/or random mixing of lake waters, elevated littoral primary  
78 productivity rates might influence long-term offshore O<sub>2</sub> curves. However, during low-  
79 wind periods or sheltered conditions, convective currents created by differences in  
80 nighttime cooling or daytime heating rates between the shallow littoral zone and deeper  
81 offshore zone may come to dominate lake circulation patterns (Horsch and Stefan, 1988;  
82 MacIntyre and Melack, 1995; Forrest et al., 2008; Fig. 1). Such convective forces may  
83 produce both horizontal and vertical penetrative currents, and are usually associated with  
84 the summer and winter months (Forrest et al., 2008; Salonen et al., 2014). Summertime  
85 littoral-to-offshore flow rates have been measured from 4 to 20 m h<sup>-1</sup> (James and Barko,  
86 1991), while littoral flushing periods have been estimated of one to four hours, varying  
87 with macrophyte cover (Oldham and Sturman, 2001). The regular occurrence of such  
88 convective currents, coupled with typically elevated daytime O<sub>2</sub> production in the littoral  
89 zone (relative to the off-shore water column), could feasibly result in a nightly recurrent  
90 bias whereby nighttime O<sub>2</sub> concentrations increase at off-shore sites in lakes, producing  
91 negative metabolic values (Fig. 2). Similarly, elevated littoral O<sub>2</sub> depletion at night could  
92 result in a supply of O<sub>2</sub>-depleted water to the lake center the following day, with the same

93 outcome for calculated metabolic rates (Fig. 2). Such impossible negative GPP values  
94 have been reported when applying this method to lakes, though it has been suggested that  
95 they are likely the result of the random mixing of pockets of high and low dissolved O<sub>2</sub> in  
96 the water column, or term “A” in Eq. 1 (Staeher et al., 2010). It has therefore been  
97 assumed that underestimated values, which we here consider to be (metabolically  
98 impossible) negative GPP values calculated from low daytime NEP or positive calculated  
99 ER rates (i.e. oxygen concentrations increasing overnight absent primary production),  
100 occur as frequently as overestimated values, with the suggested solution being that all  
101 values be included in the calculations of mean metabolic rates (Staeher et al., 2010).

102 In this study, we analyzed diel O<sub>2</sub> curves and concurrent independent  
103 phytoplankton GPP measurements from a small, shallow temperate lake to examine the  
104 frequency, seasonality, and severity of GPP rates that were calculated to be negative. We  
105 predicted that convective mixing coupled with higher littoral GPP may introduce a  
106 systematic bias into our estimated metabolic rates. Such bias could be especially  
107 significant when applying the diel O<sub>2</sub> curve method to embayments or small, sheltered  
108 lakes with high littoral-to-pelagic ratios, where convective mixing may play a large role.  
109 A re-evaluation of the applicability of the diel O<sub>2</sub> curves method for metabolic rates in  
110 small lakes could have broader implications for global estimates of metabolism in aquatic  
111 ecosystems. New research has documented that lakes play an important role in regional  
112 and global carbon cycling (Tranvik et al., 2009). Furthermore, most lakes have surface  
113 areas less than 1 km<sup>2</sup> and are often characterized by a high percentage of lake area  
114 occupied by the littoral zone, and possibly a high degree of sheltering from wind (for  
115 instance, by surrounding trees), and thus present a greater potential role for convective

116 mixing (Downing et al., 2006; Verpoorter et al., 2014). It is thus important to determine  
117 whether such a bias exists, and to quantify how severe it might be.

118

## 119 **Materials and procedures**

120 We present data from Schulzensee (53°14'N, 13°16'E), a small (3 ha, radius = ~  
121 100 m), shallow, eutrophic lake (mean total phosphorus concentration in 2010:  $34 \pm 3 \mu\text{g}$   
122  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) located in a rural lowland area of northeastern Germany. Schulzensee's primary  
123 production is provided by phytoplankton and periphyton, non-rooted submerged  
124 macrophytes (primarily *Ceratophyllum submersum*) in the littoral areas during  
125 summertime, and colony-forming benthic cyanobacteria (*Aphanothece stagnina*)  
126 (Brothers et al., 2013a,b). Though fed by groundwater, this lake features no surface  
127 inflows or outflows, and is naturally sheltered by alder trees (*Alnus glutinosa*) and located  
128 in a forested depression. It is thus expected to experience only minor wind-driven  
129 resuspension. Schulzensee's littoral zone occupies roughly 32% of the lake surface area,  
130 and its shallow mean depth (2.2 m) resulted in a relatively large proportion (~50%) of the  
131 whole-lake GPP being represented by benthic production (Brothers et al., 2013b).

132 Yellow Springs Instruments (YSI, Xylem Inc., Yellow Springs, OH, USA) sondes  
133 were installed at a lake-center monitoring station from May 8<sup>th</sup>, 2010 to May 7<sup>th</sup>, 2011, at  
134 a depth of approximately 1.2 m (varying with minor lake level fluxes). These sondes  
135 recorded temperature, O<sub>2</sub>, and pH every 10 minutes during the full year. YSI sondes were  
136 also used to measure vertical profiles from the surface to sediments (at gradients of 0.5  
137 m) every four weeks throughout the study period. GPP and ER were calculated from diel  
138 O<sub>2</sub> curves (Eq. 1) following the procedures of Staehr et al. (2010), also known as the

139 “bookkeeping approach”. Specifically, ER was calculated as the mean change in O<sub>2</sub> (per  
140 10 minutes) from one hour after dusk until dawn (thus typically giving it a negative sign).  
141 ER was subtracted from net production (NP) rates calculated by the same methods for the  
142 following day to provide GPP (typically giving it a positive sign). Diel O<sub>2</sub> curves were  
143 corrected for atmospheric O<sub>2</sub> fluxes following Gelda and Effler (2002), using lake-center  
144 wind speed data recorded every 10 minutes by a meteo multiprobe (ecoTech, Bonn,  
145 Germany). Surface fluxes were corrected for a period of stratification (July 16<sup>th</sup> to August  
146 24<sup>th</sup>) by adopting the mean measured surface O<sub>2</sub> concentrations from profiles to avoid  
147 overestimating O<sub>2</sub> losses to the atmosphere. Production values are expressed in carbon  
148 units applying a respiratory quotient of one. Although the fundamental assumptions of  
149 our hypothesis may be considered applicable to both GPP and ER values (Fig. 1), our  
150 analyses focus on calculated GPP values, since GPP was the metabolic parameter for  
151 which corollary data (as phytoplankton GPP) were available. Convective mixing is  
152 expected to affect daytime O<sub>2</sub> curves as well as nighttime ones (Fig. 1), though we here  
153 focus on the phenomenon of increasing nighttime O<sub>2</sub> curves, which cannot be explained  
154 by metabolic processes. Since daytime net production is influenced by both GPP and ER  
155 concomitantly, it can feasibly be positive or negative, making the non-metabolic effects  
156 of mixing on daytime curves more difficult to identify.

157         Independent calculations of pelagic (lake-center) phytoplankton GPP were made  
158 from monthly measurements of chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) concentrations (mixed depth lake-  
159 center samples, from 0.5 m, 1 m, and 2 m), fluorescence, and light attenuation (Brothers  
160 et al., 2013b). Photosynthetic parameters were obtained from rapid photosynthesis-  
161 irradiance (P-I) curves measured within three hours of sampling using the modular

162 version of a Phyto-PAM fluorometer (Phyto-PAM, Walz, Effeltrich, Germany) equipped  
163 with a 10 mm cuvette. The concentration of Chl *a* in water samples was measured by  
164 high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC, Waters, Millford, MA, USA),  
165 following Shatwell et al. (2012). Phytoplankton GPP was calculated for each 10 cm layer  
166 of the water column using hourly depth-specific PAR (derived from global radiation at  
167 the water surface and light attenuation of the water column), with each measurement  
168 being multiplied by the estimated water volume at a specific depth. The sum of these  
169 measurements was used to calculate daily whole-lake phytoplankton production  
170 (Brothers et al., 2013b). Due to an anticipated minimal light transmission through heavy  
171 snow and ice, phytoplankton GPP could not be reliably calculated, and was thus assumed  
172 to be zero during the full period of ice cover (December 1<sup>st</sup>, 2010 to March 15<sup>th</sup>, 2011).  
173 Statistical tests were made using JMP (Version 7, SAS Institute) and values are provided  
174 with standard error of the mean unless otherwise specified.

175

## 176 **Assessment**

177 Over the course of the full study year, O<sub>2</sub> curves from 293 24-hour periods were  
178 available for analysis. This was after accounting for sonde malfunction and two outliers,  
179 which occurred during periods of potential ice break-up, during which lake surface-to-  
180 atmosphere O<sub>2</sub> flux rates could not be established. The mean GPP rate calculated by the  
181 diel O<sub>2</sub> curve method with negative values included (following the standard book-  
182 keeping approach) was  $83 \pm 21 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ . When negative values were excluded, the  
183 full-year mean value rose significantly to  $315 \pm 22 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$  (Wilcoxon Test,  $p <$   
184 0.0001). Independently determined phytoplankton GPP rates calculated from

185 fluorescence measurements for the same dates as available O<sub>2</sub> curves were 216 ± 12 g C  
186 m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1).

187         The significant difference between GPP calculations with and without the  
188 inclusion of negative values results from the abundance of such abnormal values.  
189 Increasing nighttime O<sub>2</sub> concentrations were observed on 45% of the available dates  
190 (Table 1, Fig. 3). Seasonally, these were found to occur most frequently in winter  
191 (December to February; 81%), followed by summer (June to August; 40%), fall (March  
192 to May; 32%) and spring (September to November; 30%). The exclusion of negative GPP  
193 values significantly affected the mean calculated values for all seasons in this lake ( $p <$   
194 0.05, Wilcoxon Test). The severity of this effect was greatest in summer and winter  
195 months (Table 1), the summer influencing annual GPP mean values to a greater extent  
196 due to their lower values (minimum GPP = -2802 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) compared to those in the  
197 winter (minimum GPP = -742 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>).

198

## 199 **Discussion**

200         When inaccuracies in daily GPP estimates result from measurement imprecision  
201 or random patterns of O<sub>2</sub> dispersion in the water column of a lake, underestimates and  
202 overestimates in GPP rates should balance each other out, providing accurate mean  
203 productivity rates over time. Based on this assumption, standard procedures suggest the  
204 inclusion of negative GPP estimates and lengthy sampling periods (e.g., Staehr et al.,  
205 2010). In our study lake the inclusion of negative GPP values would provide roughly four  
206 times lower annual GPP rates than with negative values excluded. A comparison of these  
207 values with mean phytoplankton GPP over the same sampling dates (216 ± 12 g C m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>

208 <sup>1</sup>) indicates that the inclusion of negative GPP values in the O<sub>2</sub> curves approach  
209 (providing a mean of  $83 \pm 21 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ ) is not balanced out by overestimation, and thus  
210 the inclusion or exclusion of negative values leads to a systematic bias, and likely  
211 introduces inaccuracies. Furthermore, the inclusion of the negative GPP values not only  
212 underestimates phytoplankton GPP in this lake, but it also fails to capture any additional  
213 littoral periphyton production occurring within the mixed layer. This is corroborated by a  
214 regression from del Giorgio and Peters (1993), linking pelagic Chl *a* concentrations to  
215 phytoplankton GPP calculated via the same methodology. Given a mean annual Chl *a*  
216 concentration of  $13 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  (from Brothers et al., 2013a), pelagic phytoplankton GPP in  
217 our study lake should be approximately  $175 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$  (assuming a mean lake depth of  
218 2.2 m).

219 For convective mixing to be the source of our observed bias, littoral oxygen  
220 concentrations would need to be higher than pelagic oxygen concentrations (in order to  
221 increase nighttime lake-center oxygen concentrations), and convective currents would  
222 need to flow at a rate sufficient to transport water from the littoral zone to the lake center  
223 within a nighttime period. The YSI sonde in our study lake was situated approximately  
224 80 m from the nearest littoral zone, meaning that a flow rate of roughly  $7 \text{ m h}^{-1}$  would be  
225 required for midday O<sub>2</sub>-rich littoral waters to travel convectively to reach the probe by  
226 midnight. This flow rate is well within the range of convective flow rates (4 to  $20 \text{ m h}^{-1}$ )  
227 described by James and Barko (1991). As part of a separate, later analysis, YSI sondes  
228 (of the same model as that in our study, and both with 10-minute sampling frequencies)  
229 measured littoral and pelagic O<sub>2</sub> concentrations simultaneously in this lake during a two-  
230 week period in September 2011. They confirmed that mean O<sub>2</sub> concentrations were

231 significantly higher in the littoral zone ( $2.66 \pm 0.03 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$   $n = 2160$ ) than in the pelagic  
232 zone ( $1.49 \pm 0.03 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ;  $n = 2087$ ; Wilcoxon Test,  $p < 0.0001$ ). We do not have enough  
233 data to say whether this difference between habitats was a result of net metabolic  
234 differences, differing rates of aeration due to wave action in the shallower depths of the  
235 littoral, or the result of a somewhat shallower probe exposure depth ( $\sim 0.5 \text{ m}$ ) in the  
236 littoral zone compared to the pelagic probe ( $\sim 0.8 \text{ m}$  during this later study period).  
237 Forrest et al. (2008) note that summer and winter months, when shear stresses due to  
238 wind have their lowest effects on temperate lakes, are the periods when convective  
239 mixing plays the largest role. Notably, these were also the seasons during which our  
240 study lake, as well as another similarly-sized lake in the region for which  $\text{O}_2$  curves were  
241 available (data not shown), experienced the highest frequency and strongest effect of  
242 false negative GPP rates. Ice covered our study lake during the full winter period, while  
243 the summer months featured the largest daily difference in air temperatures, as well as the  
244 lowest wind speeds, making both seasons ideal for maximizing the effects of convective  
245 mixing events on  $\text{O}_2$  concentrations (Table 1). However, to definitively conclude that  
246 convective mixing was the source of false negative GPP rates would require detailed  
247 measurements of water flow rates, as well as littoral and pelagic  $\text{O}_2$  concentrations.

248         False negative GPP rates can also be a result of other physical factors. Daily  
249 microstratification dynamics, producing deeper mixing depths in the morning and  
250 shallower ones in the afternoon (Coloso et al., 2011), could potentially result in periodic  
251 errors if YSI sondes cross periodically between mixing zones. Although profiles revealed  
252 summertime vertical  $\text{O}_2$  concentration gradients in this lake, estimated mixing depths  
253 during our study period were typically greater than 1.5 m depth (data not shown). These

254 estimates were derived from data typically collected around midday or the early  
255 afternoon, suggesting that it is feasible that mixing depths in the late afternoon may be  
256 lower (Coloso et al., 2011), producing sudden shifts in measured O<sub>2</sub> concentrations.  
257 However, Tinytag temperature loggers (Gemini Data Loggers Inc, Chichester, UK)  
258 installed at every 50cm depth following our study period (July 29<sup>th</sup> to October 14<sup>th</sup>, 2011)  
259 detected no notable (>0.25 °C), recurrent daily shifts in temperature between one and two  
260 meters below the surface, where our sonde had been located.

261 We furthermore considered the possibility that oxygen-poor groundwater entering  
262 the lake may have influenced the measured diel O<sub>2</sub> curves. Groundwater volumetric  
263 fluxes had been estimated for this lake during the same period using data taken from two  
264 small wells in the immediate vicinity (four to six meters from the shore). Given the lack  
265 of surface inflows or outflows to this system, monthly groundwater fluxes were  
266 occasionally large, representing as much as ~6% of the full lake water volume (data not  
267 shown), potentially decreasing summertime O<sub>2</sub> concentrations by that same fraction  
268 (assuming groundwater to be anoxic). However, groundwater loading would not fluctuate  
269 along a daily, periodic cycle, and thus would not be expected to influence diel O<sub>2</sub> curves  
270 measured over a prolonged exposure period.

271 The total GPP of Schulzensee during this study year (including benthic, littoral,  
272 and pelagic primary producers) was estimated by Brothers et al. (2013b) to be 550 g C m<sup>-2</sup>  
273 y<sup>-1</sup> (one third of which was attributed to phytoplankton). It is thus feasible that positive-  
274 only O<sub>2</sub> curve GPP rates (315 ± 22 g C m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>) provided a roughly accurate estimate of  
275 mixed-layer GPP alone, assuming that benthic GPP may not have been fully mixed into  
276 the surface water layer. However, as one may still anticipate false positives and false low

277 GPP values (even if they are not negative), we cannot suggest that the automatic  
278 exclusion of negative GPP values will provide reliable data. Rather, the amplitude of the  
279 bias from convective mixing would vary according to factors such as seasonality, plant  
280 community structure, wind exposure, lake fetch and bathymetry, and O<sub>2</sub> probe placement.

281 We suggest that, in addition to random mixing events, periodic mixing events  
282 such as convective mixing could play a major role in the physical mixing of O<sub>2</sub> in small  
283 lakes, which could in turn negatively affect diel O<sub>2</sub> curve calculations. On a small-to-  
284 medium timescale (days to weeks), rapid and variable changes in O<sub>2</sub> concentrations could  
285 result from random processes such as wind-driven mixing (e.g., Cremona et al., 2014).  
286 Such occurrences may be treated using “smoothing” modeling approaches (designed to  
287 reduce variability), such as Bayesian models (Solomon et al., 2013; Cremona et al., 2014)  
288 or Kalman filters (Batt and Carpenter, 2012). A separate analysis of our dataset using  
289 multiple modeling approaches (Bayesian, bookkeeping, Kalman, maximum-likelihood  
290 estimation, and ordinary least squares) provided by the R package “LakeMetabolizer”  
291 (Winslow et al., 2016) reveals that the smoothing models are successful at constraining  
292 the range of GPP values produced, but the overall mean GPP values do not differ  
293 significantly between approaches (Wilcoxon Test,  $p = 0.94$ ) and negative GPP values  
294 remain common (Fig. 4).

295 Random mixing events (here considered any which do not occur on a regular 24-h  
296 cycle) typically occur in the spring and fall, when the water column is frequently mixed  
297 by low vertical temperature-driven density gradients and higher winds. However, diel  
298 periodic mixing patterns are most likely to establish during summer and winter, when the  
299 effects of wind on water column mixing are reduced, especially in lakes in landscape

300 depressions sheltered from the wind. Due to the periodicity of such events, models which  
301 simply reduce the mixing weight (i.e. relative calculated importance) of outliers or highly  
302 variable events are poorly suited to derive reliable metabolism rates during such periods.  
303 Adding complexity to diel O<sub>2</sub> calculations also fails to enhance the accuracy of metabolic  
304 calculations when processes such as internal waves, microstratification, or convective  
305 currents influence the variability of O<sub>2</sub> in the water column (Hanson et al., 2008). We  
306 therefore propose that an enhancement to Odum's (1956) fundamental calculation of diel  
307 O<sub>2</sub> curves is needed, especially when considering small, sheltered lakes:

$$308 \quad Q = GPP - R + D + A_r + A_p + GW \quad (2)$$

309 The term "GW" has been introduced to reflect the possible role played by anoxic  
310 groundwater intrusion on small lakes lacking surface in- or out-flows. The term "A",  
311 which initially represented water column mixing (Eq. 1), is here divided into "A<sub>r</sub>",  
312 representing random mixing events (e.g., wind-driven mixing), and "A<sub>p</sub>," representing  
313 periodic mixing events such as convective mixing following different warming/cooling  
314 regimes between nearshore and offshore waters, or daily microstratification events.  
315 During spring and fall, A<sub>r</sub> is anticipated to play an important role, and the use of  
316 smoothing models such as Kalman filters (Batt and Carpenter, 2012), or the removal of  
317 dates with high wind speeds or low solar irradiance (Rose et al., 2014) is recommended  
318 to reduce the presence of outliers. While the effect of A<sub>p</sub> on diel O<sub>2</sub> curves may be  
319 greatest in summer and winter, its magnitude depends upon lake size and bathymetry,  
320 changes in air temperature, and the difference between littoral and off-shore O<sub>2</sub>  
321 production, making it more difficult to predict.

322

323 **Comments and recommendations**

324           Although diel O<sub>2</sub> curves remain one of the most cost- and time-efficient methods  
325 for calculating metabolic rates in aquatic ecosystems, we note that their utility may be  
326 limited in some situations. We advise researchers to critically examine the frequency and  
327 severity of false negative metabolic rates, taking into consideration possible factors which  
328 could be responsible for producing them, especially if they comprise a significant share  
329 of calculated rates. Although it is possible to estimate horizontal exchange flow rates  
330 based on the littoral benthic slope (e.g., Sturman et al., 1999), more research (including  
331 direct measurements with an acoustic Doppler current profiler) would be necessary to  
332 establish whether such a calculation could provide enough information to reliably avoid  
333 the common recurrence of false negative metabolic values. As a first step, we suggest that  
334 researchers adopt multiple independent approaches when determining ecosystem  
335 productivity. Additionally, in lakes in which periodic mixing events ( $A_p$  in Eq. 2) such as  
336 convective mixing or microstratification events may occur (during summer or wintertime  
337 months in shallow lakes or embayments), multiple sampling depths and distances from  
338 the littoral zone during these seasons may improve the reliability of metabolism rates  
339 calculated from diel O<sub>2</sub> curves.

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482 **Table 1.** Seasonality of calculated gross primary production (GPP) and related  
 483 meteorological data (May 8<sup>th</sup>, 2010 to May 7<sup>th</sup>, 2011).

	Percentage of negative GPP values	Mean whole- lake GPP from diel-O <sub>2</sub> curves, negatives included (g C m <sup>-2</sup> y <sup>-1</sup> )	Mean whole- lake GPP from diel-O <sub>2</sub> curves, negatives excluded (g C m <sup>-2</sup> y <sup>-1</sup> )	Phytoplankton GPP from P-I curves (g C m <sup>-2</sup> y <sup>-1</sup> )	Mean wind speed (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	Mean day- to- night air temp. diff. (°C)
Spring (Mar- May)	30	138 ± 49 (n = 54)	307 ± 44 (n = 38)	165 ± 7 (n = 55)	1.26 ± 0.05	6.4 ± 0.6 (n =24)
Summer (Jun- Aug)	40	99 ± 52 (n = 88)	422 ± 41 (n = 53)	476 ± 17 (n = 88)	1.08 ± 0.04	9.2 ± 0.4 (n = 88)
Fall (Sep- Nov)	32	119 ± 26 (n = 86)	232 ± 27 (n = 58)	142 ± 6 (n = 86)	1.14 ± 0.04	5.6 ± 0.4 (n =

						86)
Winter (Dec- Feb)	81	-33 ± 25 (n = 63)	263 ± 99 (n = 11)	0 (n = 64)*	NA	3.9 ± 0.4 (n =65)
Total	45	83 ± 21 (n = 291)	315 ± 22 (n = 160)	216 ± 12 (n = 293)	0.90 ± .03	6.5 ± 0.2 (n = 263)

484 \* Due to snow and ice cover, with resulting light transmittance anticipated to be low,

485 wintertime phytoplankton GPP was estimated to be zero.

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498 **Figure captions**

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500 **Figure 1.** Convective flow of oxygen from littoral to pelagic lake zones (black arrows)  
501 above and parallel to the thermocline (dashed line) due to differential heating during the  
502 day and differential cooling at night (adapted from Monismith et al. (1990) and Oldham  
503 and Sturman (2001)). When coupled with higher primary production in the littoral zone  
504 during the day and higher respiration at night, this convective flow may explain  
505 unexpected oxygen curves measured at a central probe (such as rising overnight oxygen  
506 concentrations).

507

508 **Figure 2.** Theoretical diel oxygen curves, showing higher primary productivity in the  
509 littoral zone than the pelagic zone, and the resulting offset under advective current  
510 conditions.

511

512 **Figure 3.** Sample oxygen measurements from Schulzensee (black circles), showing the  
513 volumetric primary productivity rates (represented by the slopes of the solid and dashed  
514 lines) which would result from the measured oxygen curves (solid lines, below measured  
515 oxygen points), compared to independently determined phytoplankton production for the  
516 same days (dashed lines, above oxygen points). Grey zones represent nighttime periods.

517

518 **Figure 4.** Full-year gross primary production of Schulzensee, as calculated from diel O<sub>2</sub>  
519 curves by LakeMetabolizer, comparing Bayesian, Kalman, bookkeeping, maximum-  
520 likelihood estimation (MLE), and ordinary least squares (OLS) approaches. Boxes

521 represent the upper quartile, median, and lower quartile of values, with whiskers  
522 representing the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles. Centered squares represent the mean value, and  
523 crosses designate minimum and maximum values in the dataset.

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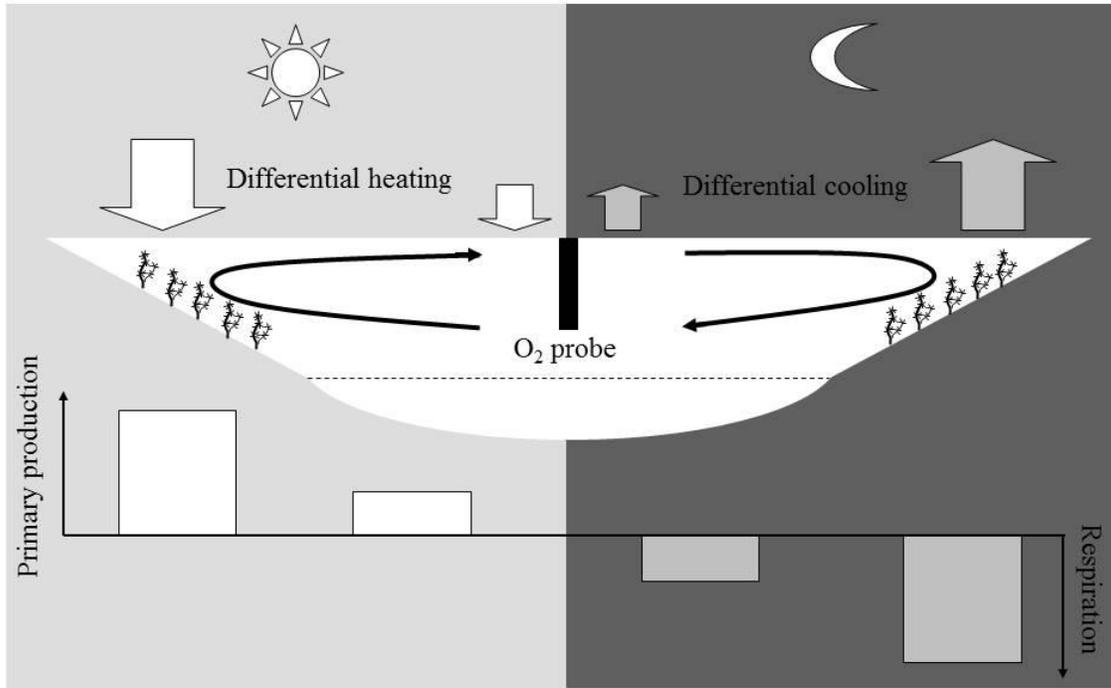
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545 Fig. 1

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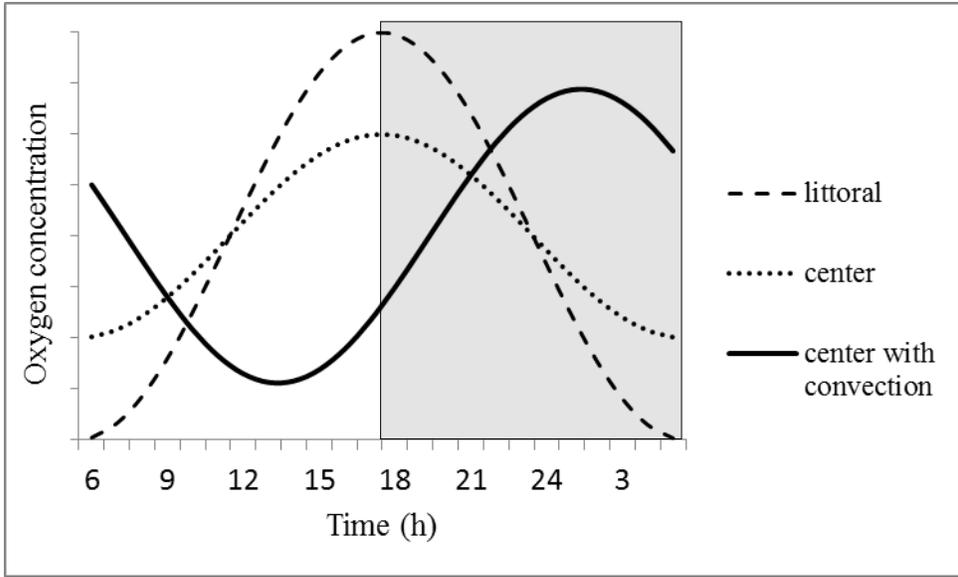
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559 Fig 2.

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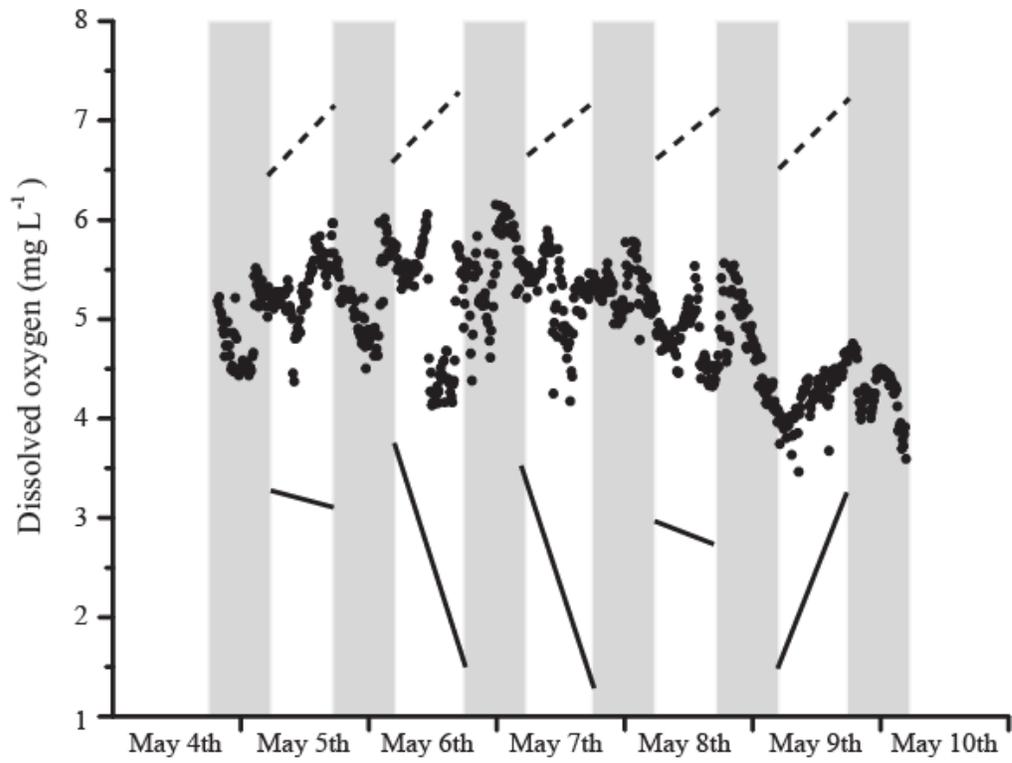
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571 Fig. 3

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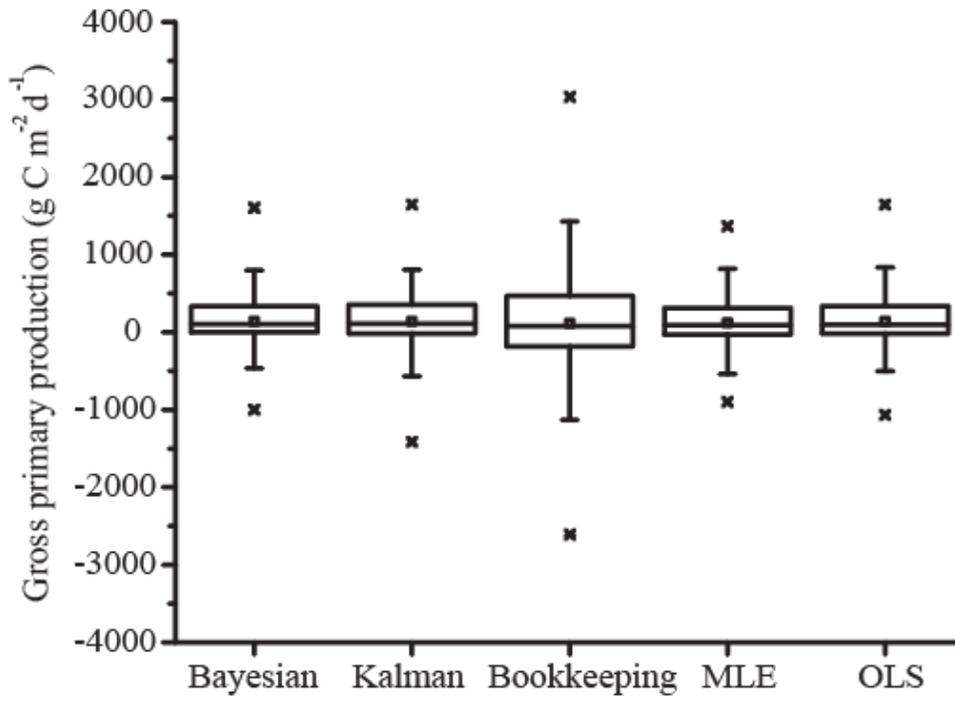
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585 Fig. 4