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Towards improved accounting and mitigation of greenhouse gas emissions from ditches and canals

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51 1. Introduction

52 Ditches and canals are important but largely unaccounted for components of global
53 greenhouse gas (GHG) budgets. These human-made, linear waterways have a vast range of
54 typologies and conditions (see Clifford et al., 2025 for a detailed review). In general, ditches
55 tend to be narrower, variably inundated, and primarily used for drainage of wet soils for
56 agriculture or forestry, while canals tend to be wider, used for transportation or irrigation,
57 more likely to be made of impermeable substrate and perennially inundated (but these two
58 terms are sometimes used interchangeably) (**Table 1**). The cumulative extent of ditches and
59 canals is large; often rivalling stream and river length at regional scales (Brown et al., 2006),
60 but remains poorly quantified at the global scale. Recent global syntheses have shown that
61 ditches and canals emit notable amounts of methane (CH_4) (Gan et al., 2024; Peacock et al.,
62 2021) as well as carbon dioxide (CO_2) and nitrous oxide (N_2O); often more per unit area than
63 other inland waters (Silverthorn et al., 2025), and in some landscapes, even exceeding
64 emissions from adjacent terrestrial areas (van der Knaap et al., 2025). These elevated
65 emissions largely result from high nutrient and carbon inputs from the intensively managed
66 agricultural and urban landscapes where these waterways are typically found (Peacock et al.,
67 2021). Although local-scale studies about GHG emissions from ditches and canals have
68 increased (**Figure 1A**), these water bodies remain overlooked in global inland water GHG
69 budgets and national inventory reporting, despite Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
70 Change (IPCC) recommendations to include emission from ditches draining organic soils
71 (IPCC, 2014) and subsequently from all ditches and canals (IPCC, 2019). Improved reporting
72 would enable mitigation measures leading to reduced ditch and canal emissions to be
73 recognised in Nationally Determined Contributions to the UN Framework Convention on
74 Climate Change (UNFCCC). Moreover, reducing ditch and canal emissions should be
75 recognized as an important measure for achieving net-zero emission targets set by many

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3 76 nations. Given the importance of ditch and canal GHG emissions, we (1) identify key
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5 77 knowledge and data gaps that must be addressed to better constrain global estimates of GHG
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7 78 emissions from ditches and canals, and (2) explore potential strategies for mitigating these
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9 79 emissions.

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13 **Table 1.** Functional and physical descriptions of five common ditch and canal types. These
14 types may be referred to by other names (e.g. agricultural ditch or agricultural canal;
15 roadside ditch or swale). This list is not exhaustive as other ditch types exist (see Clifford et
16 al., 2025), such as residential canals, transportation canals, sewage ditches, peat extraction
17 ditches, moats, and hydropower channels.

Ditch type	Description and representative study	Photo
Forest ditch	Ditches used for draining wet soils for commercial tree growth. Typically narrow (~1m wide) and found in the northern hemisphere (Rissanen et al., 2023).	
Agricultural ditch	Ditches used for draining wet soils for agricultural use. Variable widths, typically <10m, found around the world (Wu et al., 2023).	
Roadside ditch	Ditches used for collecting and transporting excess water from roads and to prevent their flooding. Variable widths, intermittently flooded, often vegetated, typically <2m, found around the world (McPhillips et al., 2016).	
Urban canal	Canals used for providing transportation, aesthetic, flood control, and other functions in urban settings. Substrate is often impermeable, variable widths (Pelsma et al., 2023).	

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Irrigation
canal

Canals used to transport water for agricultural production. Substrate can be impermeable, variable widths, found around the world (Palmia et al., 2021).



12 Photos: forest ditch in Sweden (M. Peacock); agricultural ditch in Hebei province, China
13 (Z. Yan); Roadside ditch in Ontario, Canada (K. Kolman); Urban canal in Rio de Janeiro,
14 Brazil (S. Kosten); Irrigation canal in India (S. Balathandayuthabani).

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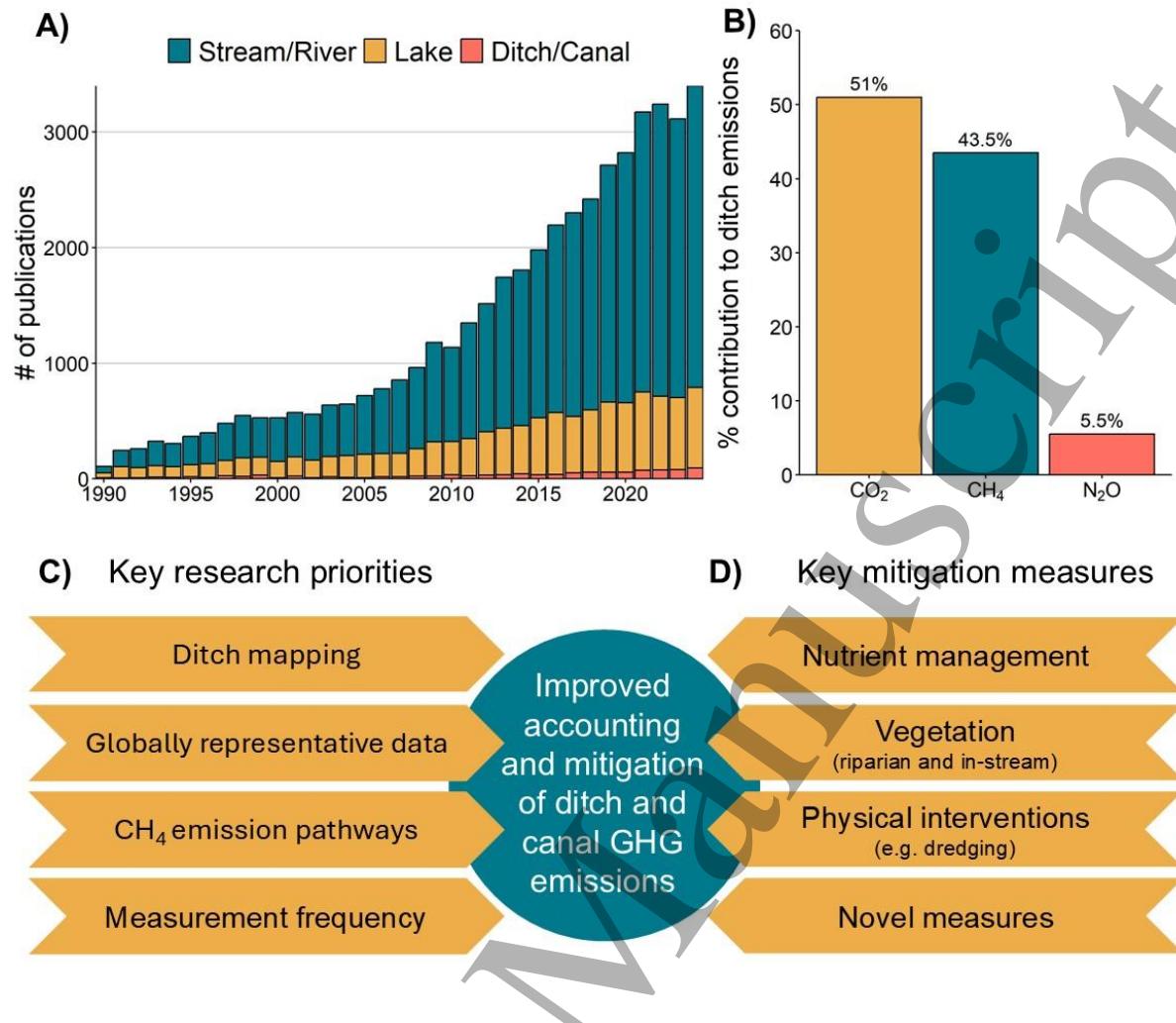


Figure 1. Conceptual synthesis of current knowledge and priorities for improved accounting and mitigation of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from ditches and canals. **A)** Annual number of peer-reviewed articles related to GHG emissions from ditches compared to other inland waters; **B)** Relative contribution of each gas to ditch GHG emissions in terms of CO₂-equivalents from *n* = 22 studies (Silverthorn et al., 2025); Summary of **C)** key knowledge gaps; and **D)** mitigation measures. Figure details in Supplementary Materials.

2. Knowledge gaps

The key gaps in data and in our understanding of ditch and canal GHG emissions are

associated with (1) lack of accurate and representative estimates of GHG emissions, with

particular focus on CO₂ and CH₄, which contribute the most to climatic warming (**Figure 1B**); and (2) the mapping of the global extent of ditches and canals (**Figure 1C**). Addressing

these gaps is critical for improving global estimates of ditch and canal emissions and for

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3 96 accurate reporting in national inventories. For inventory reporting, key challenges include
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5 97 both completeness (reporting all emissions) and avoiding double-counting ditch and canal
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7 98 emissions with agricultural, wetland, or urban wastewater emissions.
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11 99 **2.1. Knowledge and data gaps in GHG emissions**
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14 100 The growing, but still limited, dataset of ditch and canal emissions that has
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16 101 accumulated since the 1990s has allowed global upscaling of all three main GHGs (Peacock
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18 102 et al., 2021; Silverthorn et al., 2025). However, current estimates rely on a single global
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20 103 average (“emission factor”) for each GHG, which could be refined and disaggregated
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22 104 through consideration of climate zones, trophic state, temporal variability, etc. To improve
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24 105 global estimates, we suggest three critical gaps must be addressed: (1) the global bias of data,
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26 106 (2) the underrepresentation of ebullitive and plant-mediated CH₄ emissions, and (3)
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28 107 insufficient measurement frequency.
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33 108 Half of the data points from the global syntheses of Peacock et al. (2021) and
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35 109 Silverthorn et al. (2025) are from Europe. Although Australia, North America, and Asia are
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37 110 moderately well-covered, to date, there is just one study from South America and none from
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39 111 Africa. Missing national- or continental-scale data leads to fundamental uncertainty in global
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41 112 upscaling. Moreover, measurements from these under-represented regions are needed to
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43 113 refine global estimates according to geographic and/or climate regions, as has been done for
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45 114 other inland waters (IPCC, 2019; Lauerwald et al., 2023).
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50 115 Although some early studies measured ditch CH₄ ebullition (Minkkinen et al., 1996),
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52 116 it remains largely neglected. Those that have measured ebullition have often found it to be the
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54 117 dominant emission pathway, making up 80% of total CH₄ emissions (Silverthorn et al.,
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56 118 2025), although some cases of negligible ebullition contributions also have been reported
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58 119 (Köhn et al., 2021). The magnitude of ebullitive relative to diffusive fluxes will likely depend
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3 120 on sediment properties, trophic state, water velocity, and water depth (which can influence
4 sediment temperature). In addition, few studies have measured plant-mediated transport of
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6 121 CH₄, presumably due to logistical difficulties of measuring emissions from tall emergent
7 vegetation such as *Phragmites* and *Typha*. However, the presence of plants with
8 aerenchymatous tissue can enhance CH₄ emissions (Bastviken et al., 2023). More
9 measurements of these two pathways will allow for better estimates of CH₄ emissions to be
10 incorporated into future global estimates.
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20 127 Most ditch and canal GHG studies rely on non-continuous measurements (although
21 see Harrison et al., 2005; Paranaíba et al., 2025) which are then extrapolated to annual
22 estimates, despite their poor ability to capture diel cycles and episodic events (e.g. droughts,
23 storms, and management interventions) that can significantly influence GHG emissions. For
24 example, peaks in ditch CO₂ and CH₄ emissions have been observed post-flood (Webb et al.,
25 2016), while continuously inundated ditches have higher N₂O emissions compared to ditches
26 that periodically dry out (Silverthorn et al., 2025). In addition, higher ditch CO₂ and CH₄
27 emissions have been observed at night than during the day (Paranaíba et al., 2025),
28 suggesting that relying solely on daytime measurements (when photosynthetic uptake by
29 ditch vegetation is occurring) may lead to an underestimation of total emissions. These
30 dynamics highlight the need for continuous, sensor-based GHG monitoring to more
31 accurately capture temporal variability.
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139 2.2. Knowledge and data gaps in mapping and mapping methods

140 We have yet to map the global extent of ditches and canals due to knowledge and data
141 gaps pertaining to (1) the limited availability of drainage maps, (2) a lack of harmonised
142 labelled training data (e.g., ground truthed features) and (3) limitations to scale current
143 mapping efforts. Existing regional and national maps remain outdated, inconsistent, or

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3 144 incomplete, especially where waterways are small and/or obscured with vegetation canopy
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5 145 (Lidberg et al., 2023). To address this, remote sensing and image analysis techniques have
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7 146 been explored, although methodological and data gaps persist.
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11 147 Optical aerial or high resolution satellite imagery can be used for ditch and canal
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13 148 mapping, but vegetation, canopy cover, and persistent cloud cover can limit its effectiveness,
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15 149 particularly in dense forested, agricultural or peatland areas (Connolly & Holden, 2017;
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17 150 Habib et al., 2024). Airborne LiDAR can overcome these issues and detect subtle
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19 151 geomorphological features like ditches and canals (Lidberg et al., 2023). However, its limited
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21 152 spatial coverage and high cost hinder broader application. Similarly, Synthetic Aperture
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23 153 Radar (e.g., Sentinel-1) provides all-weather capabilities and has been used for mapping
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25 154 water level in ditches (Al-Khudhairy et al., 2001), but it lacks the spatial resolution to resolve
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27 155 narrow waterways.
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32 156 For image analysis, traditional pixel-based classification methods are often inadequate
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34 157 due to the small size and complex morphology of many ditches and canals. Object-Based
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36 158 Image Analysis improves detection by incorporating spatial and geometric contexts
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38 159 (Connolly & Holden, 2017). More recently, Deep Learning methods such as Convolutional
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40 160 Neural Networks have shown considerable promise for the automated identification of
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42 161 ditches (Habib et al., 2024). However, Deep Learning approaches require extensive training
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44 162 data, lack transferability across geographic areas, and are computationally intensive, limiting
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46 163 scalability. Overcoming these challenges will require harmonised multi-sensor frameworks,
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48 164 transferable Machine Learning models, and collaborative data generation.
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52 165 **3. Mitigation**
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56 166 Mitigation of ditch and canal GHG emissions can be achieved through a diverse
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58 167 range of strategies (**Figure 1D, Figure 2**). Advancing their implementation will require both
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3 168 further research into their effectiveness as well as supportive government policies and
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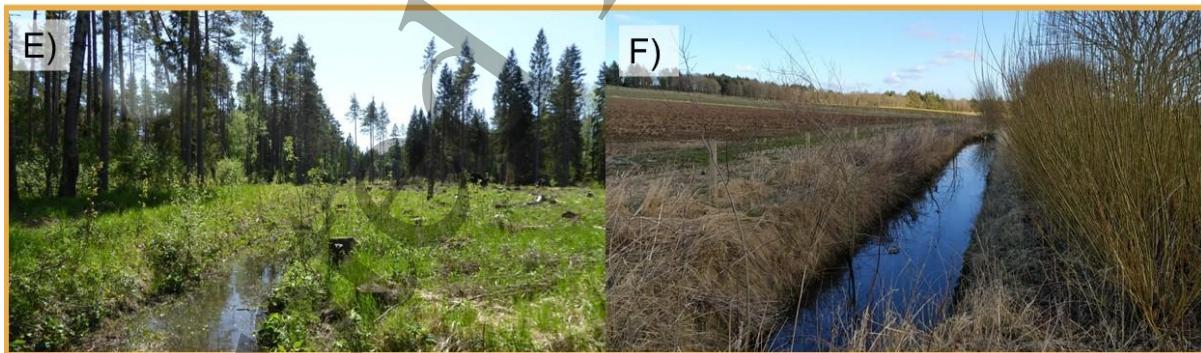
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168 (i) Physical interventions



169 (ii) In-stream vegetation



170 (iii) Riparian vegetation



171 **Figure 2.** Photographs of ditches and canals with various greenhouse gas (GHG) emission
172 mitigation measures related to physical interventions, in-stream vegetation, and riparian
173 vegetation: (A) Recently dredged agricultural lowland peat ditch in England; (B) Recently
174 dredged irrigation canal in Tamil Nadu, India; (C) Urban canal with submerged macrophytes
175 and floating algae in the Netherlands; (D) *Sphagnum* moss-covered forest ditch in Finland;
176 (E) Continuous cover forestry (selective cutting) around a forest ditch in Sweden; (F)
177 Agricultural ditch in Scotland with *Salix* riparian vegetation periodically harvested for
178 biomass. Photos: M. Peacock (A, E), S. Balathandayuthabani (B), J.R. Paranaíba (C), M.
179 Kurki (Luke) (D), and D. Bryan (F).

181 **3.1. Nutrient management**

182 Measures that reduce the inputs of nutrients and organic matter into ditches and canals
183 can help lower GHG emissions. Excessive nitrogen and phosphorus loading, often from
184 agricultural runoff or urban stormwater, can increase organic matter production (e.g., algal
185 growth) and accelerate its decomposition. This decomposition, in turn, fuels microbial
186 processes such as methanogenesis, nitrification, and denitrification, all of which release
187 GHGs (Wu et al., 2023). High nutrient inputs can therefore drive emissions both by
188 enhancing organic matter accumulation and by directly stimulating microbial activity (Zhou
189 et al., 2025). Thus, mitigating point-source pollution from sources such as wastewater
190 treatment plants and infrastructure like boat docks can reduce GHG emissions from canals
191 (Martinez-Cruz et al., 2017; Mwanake et al., 2024). While reducing fertiliser application rates
192 and other nutrient amendments at the catchment scale, together with improving crop nutrient
193 use efficiency and excluding livestock from riparian areas, can mitigate GHG emissions from
194 agricultural ditches.

195 **3.2. Riparian vegetation**

196 Riparian vegetation can help mitigate inputs of nutrients and sediments by
197 intercepting them before reaching the waterway, thereby reducing aquatic GHG production
198 (Fisher et al., 2014). However, impervious substrate and banks may limit the effectiveness of
199 this strategy for many canals. Although organic matter inputs from vegetated riparian zones
200 can fuel respiration, increasing CO₂ and CH₄ emissions, these can be reduced through
201 vegetation harvesting (Bai et al., 2022). Additionally, riparian shading may reduce water
202 temperature (Roth et al., 2010), reducing microbial activity rates and therefore GHG
203 emissions (Yvon-Durocher et al., 2010). For forest ditches, maintaining a continuous riparian
204 forest canopy by using selective cutting instead of clear-cutting can attenuate post-harvest

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3 205 water table rise and thus reduce nutrient leaching from peat soils into ditches (Nieminen et
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5 206 al., 2018).
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10 207 **3.3. In-stream vegetation**
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12 208 Within ditches and canals, vegetation can play a critical role in regulating GHG
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14 209 dynamics (Bodmer et al., 2024; Theus & Holgerson, 2025). Submerged plants can facilitate
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16 210 CH₄ oxidation by transporting atmospheric oxygen to the rhizosphere through their
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18 211 aerenchyma tissues, creating micro-oxic zones in anoxic sediments which support
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20 212 methanotrophic bacteria that consume CH₄ (Lemoine et al., 2012). Floating plants can
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22 213 decrease the diffusive flux of GHGs to the atmosphere, resulting in a large proportion of CH₄
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24 214 oxidized below the plants, but they may increase CH₄ ebullition thereby potentially leading to
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26 215 an overall increase in emissions (Theus & Holgerson, 2025). In forest ditches, CH₄ emissions
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28 216 can be significantly lower in *Sphagnum* moss-covered ditches compared to “cleaned”, moss-
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30 217 free ditches (Rissanen et al., 2023). Therefore, measures that protect or restore submerged
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32 218 macrophytes and *Sphagnum* moss can play a critical role in reducing ditch CH₄ emissions.
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35 219 However, aquatic vegetation can augment emissions by providing a carbon source during
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37 220 seasonal plant senescence (Theus & Holgerson, 2025) and emergent rooted plants can be
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39 221 direct conduits of CH₄ from sediments to the atmosphere (Bodmer et al., 2024). The effects
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41 222 of aquatic vegetation on GHG fluxes are therefore challenging to disentangle, and vary by
42
43 223 plant type (e.g. submerged, floating, emergent, non-vascular) and time of year, with more
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45 224 ditch and canal-specific research needed. This strategy is mostly unsuitable for navigation
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47 225 canals as in-stream vegetation can obstruct vessel movement, but separated, shallow margins
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49 226 have been trialled as a way to increase aquatic plant abundance without obstructing boat
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51 227 traffic (Boedeltje et al., 2001).
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3 228 **3.4. Dredging**
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5 Dredging, routine in many agricultural ditches, may help reduce GHG emissions by
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7 230 removing accumulated sediments rich in organic matter and nutrients, along with the
8
9 231 microbial communities that drive carbon and nitrogen cycling (Paranaíba et al., 2025). While
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11 232 dredging can trigger short-term emission spikes, it has been associated with a longer-term
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13 233 reduction in agricultural ditch GHG emissions: ~35% less CO₂-equivalent emissions within
14
15 234 one year following dredging (Paranaíba et al., 2025). However, emissions from the displaced
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17 235 ditch sediments must be accounted for (Paranaíba et al., 2023), and dredging disturbs aquatic
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19 236 habitats, including benthic communities. The effects of dredging frequency, timing, and
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21 237 methods on GHG mitigation remain poorly understood and require further attention. In
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23 238 addition to dredging, we argue that other physical considerations such as channel design,
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25 239 water depth, and flow rates should be explored for their potential to reduce ditch GHG
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27 240 emissions.

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34 241 **3.5. Novel mitigation measures**
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36 Novel measures, such as biochemical manipulation and enhanced rock weathering,
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38 242 are gaining recognition as a promising frontier in ecosystem management. Although still in
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40 243 its early stages and largely limited to experimental settings, microbial inoculations in
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42 244 sediments, such as with nitrite/nitrate-dependent anaerobic methane-oxidizing
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44 245 microorganisms (Legierse et al., 2023) and stimulation of iron-dependent anaerobic methane-
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46 246 oxidizing bacteria through iron chloride additions (Struik et al., 2024), show promise in
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48 247 agricultural ditches as innovative strategies to mitigate CH₄ emissions. These specialized
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50 248 microbial communities can oxidize CH₄ using nitrite, nitrate, or iron as electron acceptors,
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52 249 playing a key role in reducing CH₄ emissions under anoxic conditions commonly found in
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54 250 ditch sediments. Chemical weathering of rocks is a natural process that absorbs CO₂, and this
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56 251 process can be enhanced by applying crushed rocks to the land surface or aquatic systems. As
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3 253 the minerals dissolve in water, the dissolution products are transported to the ocean where the
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5 254 carbon is stored (Strefler et al., 2018). Other novel measures include nutrient-binding
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7 255 amendments, and using salinization, oxygenation, and sulphate additions to reduce anaerobic
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9 256 CH₄ production (Paranaíba & Kosten, 2024; Varjo et al., 2003). However, uncertainties
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11 257 remain about large-scale implementation of these novel measures, including long-term
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13 258 efficiency, transferability across ecosystems, unintended ecological impacts, and economic
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15 259 viability.
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21 **260 4. Conclusions and implications**

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23 261 Ditches and canals are important but overlooked sources of GHG emissions. Moving
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25 262 forward, policymakers and land managers should integrate ditch and canal GHG mitigation
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27 263 into broader climate and land-use planning. Ditch and canal emissions should also be
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29 264 incorporated into global inland water GHG models, particularly predictive models assessing
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31 265 the impacts of global change, such as warming and eutrophication, which are expected to
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33 266 increase emissions from these waterbodies. The riparian zones of ditches (located at the
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35 267 terrestrial-aquatic interface) can also be emission hotspots (van der Knaap et al., 2025). Thus,
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37 268 to obtain the full picture, these areas should be included in landscape scale upscaling.
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40 269 Additionally, legislative frameworks should be updated to recognize ditches and canals as
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42 270 fundamental and functional ecosystems that influence landscape carbon and nitrogen cycles.
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44 271 Much of the current knowledge on mitigation remains in the experimental phase, therefore
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46 272 accelerating research in collaboration with stakeholders and policymakers is crucial.
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48 273 Addressing key research priorities in mapping, geography, emission pathways, and
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50 274 measurement frequency will improve understanding of ditch and canal GHG production and
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52 275 emissions to refine global upscaling. Through improved accounting and emission reductions,
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54 276 ditches and canals can be important actors in climate change mitigation.
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277 Author contributions

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279 was planned. **Conceptualization:** this manuscript was conceptualized through discussions
280 with all co-authors. **Writing - Original Draft:** TS wrote the introduction and conclusions;
281 JC, WH, and MP wrote the section on knowledge gaps; SK, TL, and JRP wrote the section on
282 mitigation. **Visualization:** TS prepared the figures. **Writing - Review & Editing:** All authors
283 reviewed and contributed to the manuscript drafts. Author order was assigned alphabetically
284 by last name for the core authors (excluding the first and last authors), and the order of the
285 remaining authors was assigned using a random number generator.

286 Data Availability

287 The data and code used to make Figure 1 can be found on Github at
288 <https://github.com/TeresaSilverthorn/Ditch-symposium> and on Zenodo at
289 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17069240>

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