



1 Reviews and syntheses: Methane biogeochemistry in Sundarbans mangrove ecosystem, NE coast

- 2 of India; a box modeling approach
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9 Abstract:

Biogeochemical cycling of CH₄ was studied in Sundarbans mangrove system during June 2010 to 10 December 2012. The sediment was CH₄ supersaturated with mean production potential of 3547 & 11 48.88 μ mol m⁻³ d⁻¹, respectively in case of intertidal (0 – 25 cm depth) & sub-tidal sediments (first 5 12 cm depth). This induces significant CH₄ out-flux from sediment to estuary via advective and diffusive 13 transports. Mean advective (from intertidal sediment) and diffusive (from sub-tidal sediment) CH₄ 14 fluxes were 159.52 μ mol m⁻² d⁻¹ and 8.45 μ mol m⁻² d⁻¹, respectively. Intertidal sediment CH₄ emission 15 16 rate was about 4 times higher than surface layer CH₄ oxidation rate; indicating petite methanotrophic activity in mangrove sediment. Mean CH₄ concentration in estuarine surface and bottom waters were 17





- 69.90 and 56.17nM, respectively. CH₄ oxidation in estuarine water column being 14 times higher than 18 water - atmosphere exchange is considered as principal CH_4 removal mechanism in this estuary. Mean 19 20 CH_4 mixing ratio over the mangrove forest atmosphere was 2.013ppmv. The ecosystem acts a source of CH₄ to the upper atmosphere having mean biosphere - atmosphere exchange flux of 0.086 mg m^{-2} 21 d^{-1} . Mean CH₄ photo-oxidation rate in the mangrove forest atmosphere was 3.25 x 10⁻⁹ mg cm⁻³ d⁻¹ 22 23 and is considered as principal CH_4 removal mechanism in the forest atmosphere. Finally, a box model 24 presenting CH₄ biogeochemistry in Sundarbans biosphere reserve has been drafted and was used to demonstrate CH₄ budget in this ecosystem. 25
- 26 Keywords: methane, biogeochemistry, budget, mangrove, Sundarbans, India.

27 **1. Introduction:**

Methane (CH₄) is the key gaseous constituent of global carbon biogeochemical cycle in anaerobic environment. In carbon biogeochemical cycle, quantitatively 1% of the CO₂ fixed annually by photosynthesis is converted back to CO₂ by microorganisms via CH₄; the amount of CH₄ annually cycled in this way is around 1 billion tones (Rudolf et al. 2006). The atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratio increased from 0.72 ppbv in 1750 to 1.77 ppbv in 2005 (IPCC, 2007); creating a potential threat towards earth's climate as CH₄ global warming potential is 26 times higher than CO₂ (Lelieveld et al. 1993). The cause of this large augmentation is not fully understood, but it is probably related to a surge





in CH_4 emission from wetlands that contributes approximately 20 - 39% of the annual global CH_4 budget (Hoehler et al. 2014).

Presenting accurate wetland CH₄ budget is very important for projecting the future climate. But, the primary problems in attempting to develop accurate CH₄ budget is the large spatial and temporal (Ding et al. 2003) variability in CH₄ emissions that reported all over the world. Being an integrated part of coastal wetlands, mangroves are relatively very less studied ecosystem with respect to CH₄ biogeochemistry (Barnes et al. 2006; Biswas et al. 2007; Bouillon et al. 2007c; Kristensen et al. 2008). Consequently, presenting wider CH₄ and carbon budgets for mangrove ecosystem globally is problematic.

44 Mangroves are one of the most productive coastal ecosystems and are characterized by high turnover 45 rates of organic matter, both in the water column and in sediment. The organic matter mineralization in 46 sediment is a multi-step process, which begins with an enzymatic hydrolysis of polymeric material to soluble monomeric and oligomeric compounds. Under oxic conditions the organic carbon (OC) is 47 48 directly mineralized to carbon dioxide and water. But, the mangrove sediments are rich in clay content 49 that reduces the porosity of the sediment and helps in the formation and retention of anoxic condition 50 (Dutta et al. 2013). OC mineralization in anaerobic environment is typically complex involving various microbes in initial de-polymerization followed by fermentative microbial break down of complex 51 52 organic compounds to small moieties. The end products of the fermentation process used by methanogens in the final step of anaerobic decomposition can also be used by microbial groups that 53





utilize a variety of inorganic terminal electron acceptors (TEAs) in their metabolism (Megonigal et al. 54 2004). The competitiveness, and thus relative importance, of these TEAs is thought to be controlled 55 56 primarily by their thermodynamic favourability in the following order: NO_3^{-1} (denitrification), Fe (III) (iron reduction), Mn (III, IV) (manganese reduction), and SO_4^{2-} (sulphate reduction) (Keller et al., 2013). 57 Methanogenesis remains suppressed by more favourable TEA-reducing processes and begins when all 58 those TEAs have been consumed and electron donors are in surplus. In fact CH_4 is produced by 59 fermentative disproportionation reaction of low molecular compounds (e.g. acetate) or reduction of CO₂ 60 by hydrogen or simple alcohols (Canfield et al. 2005) depending upon redox condition of sediment, 61 which is reported to be ≤ 150 mV for the process of methanogenesis (Wang et al. 1993). The 62 sedimentary produced CH_4 partially escapes through diffusion and direct ebullition to the atmosphere 63 after partially being oxidized at surface (aerobic oxidation) and subsurface sediments (anaerobic 64 oxidation), while the remaining dissolves in pore water resulting super-saturation. During low tide 65 condition, the CH₄ rich pore water transports to the adjacent creeks and estuaries depending upon 66 67 hypsometric gradient. In addition, CH₄ produced in the underlying sediment of the estuary (sub-tidal sediment) diffuses upward to further enrich the dissolved CH₄ level in estuarine water column. 68

In the estuarine water column, the supplied CH_4 is partly oxidized to CO_2 by methanotrophs, which use CH₄ as the sole carbon source (Hanson and Hanson, 1996). Aerobic CH_4 oxidation in the aquatic systems significantly reduces the CH_4 flux across water – atmosphere interface. In case of stratified systems like lakes, pelagic CH_4 oxidation can consume up to 90 % of the dissolved CH_4 (Utsumi et al.





73 1998a; Kankaala et al. 2006), whereas in the well-mixed estuaries, CH₄ oxidation is believed to be 74 much less efficient (Abril et al. 2007). The CH₄ that escapes from microbial oxidation partially emits 75 from estuary across water - atmosphere interface and remaining exports to adjacent continental shelves 76 region.

The emitted CH₄ from sediment – atmosphere and water – atmosphere interfaces of the mangrove ecosystem enrich the atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratio at a regional level (Mukhopadhyay et al. 2002) and further participates in complex atmospheric CH₄ cycle. In the mangrove forest environment, emitted CH₄ partially exchanges across biosphere - atmosphere interface depending upon micrometeorological conditions; while the major fraction undergoes photo-oxidation depending upon ambient NO_x level. A schematic diagram of atmospheric CH₄ photo-oxidation with/without NO_x concentration is presented in Fig.1 (modified from Wayne, 1991).

This study aimed to report production, oxidation, distribution and fluxes of CH_4 in different subecosystems of Sundarbans for complete understanding of CH_4 biogeochemistry in the estuarine mangrove environment. Beyond this primary objective, another main objective of this study was to demonstrate a comprehensive CH_4 budget for Sundarbans biosphere reserve.

88 **2. Study location**:

Sundarbans is the largest single block of tidal mangrove forest in the world, situated over India andBangladesh at the land ocean boundary of Ganges-Brahmaputra delta and the Bay of Bengal. This





extensive natural mangrove forest was inscribed as a UNESCO world heritage site and covers an area of 91 10,200 sq. km of which 4200 sq. km of reserved forest is spread over India and rest part is in 92 Bangladesh. The Indian Sundarbans Biosphere Reserve (SBR) is extended over an area of 9600 km² 93 94 constituted of 1800 sq km estuarine waterways and 3600 sq. km reclaimed areas along with above stated mangrove reserve forest. The forest is about 140 km in length from east to west and extends 95 approximately 50 - 70 km from the southern margin of the Bay of Bengal towards the north. The Indian 96 part of the Sundarbans mangrove delta is crisscrossed by the estuarine phases of several rivers namely 97 Mooriganga, Saptamukhi, Thakuran, Matla, Bidya, Gosaba and Haribhanga forming a sprawling 98 99 archipelago of 102 islands out of which 54 are reclaimed for human settlement and rest are virgin. One of these virgin Islands is the Lothian Island, which is situated at the buffer zone of the Sundarbans 100 Biosphere Reserve covering an area of 38 km². This island completely intertidal and occupied by thick, 101 102 robust and resilient mangroves trees with a mean height of < 10 m. Among the mangroves, Avicennia 103 alba, Avicennia marina and Avicennia officinalis are the dominant species, Excoecaria agallocha and 104 Heritiera fomes are thinly distributed and Ceriops decandra is found scattered all over the island. The mangrove sediment is silty clay in nature and composed of quartzo-feldspathic minerals like quartz, 105 albite and microline. The adjacent estuarine system of the island is Saptamukhi which has no perennial 106 107 source of freshwater and receives significant amounts of agricultural and anthropogenic runoff 108 especially during monsoon. Climate in the study area is characterized by premonsoon (February – 109 May), south west monsoon (June – September) and north east monsoon or postmonsoon (October –





- 110 January). Based on the above the Lothian Island and associated Saptamukhi estuary have been chosen
- 111 for studying CH₄ biogeochemical cycle in the Sundarbans mangrove environment. A location map of
- 112 Sundarbans showing Lothian Island and Saptamukhi estuary in the subset is presented in Fig.2.

3. Materials and methods:

The present study was carried out during June 2010 to December 2012 to cover the seasonal variation in the study area. Sediment and atmospheric samples were collected from the intertidal mangrove sediment & watch tower located in the center of the Lothian Island (21° 42.58'N: 88°18'E), respectively. Moreover, water samples were collected from the estuarine mixing zones of the Saptamukhi estuary. The details of study design, analyzed parameters and flux calculations are described in the following sections.

120 Intertidal sediment samples were collected at different locations of the mangrove forest covering upper, mid and lower littoral zones with the help of stainless steel corers (diameter: 10 cm) with an mean 121 penetration depth of 25 cm. Sediment cores were sectioned at 5 cm interval and collected in zipper bags 122 for transporting to the laboratory. Surface sediment temperature was measured in-situ using 123 124 thermometer. Simultaneously estuarine bottom sediment (sub-tidal) was also collected using grab samplers. CH₄ production was measured by anaerobic incubations of sediment samples. A small portion 125 126 of sample (about 10 g) were weighed and taken in an incubation bottle (1.2 cm i.d. and 10 cm long) fitted with rubber septum. Then the bottles were flushed with pure N_2 for 1 min to create a completely 127





- anaerobic condition. The incubation was carried out in duplicate at ambient temperature for 24 hrs. At the end of incubation 1 ml gas sample was withdrawn from the headspace through the rubber stopper using a gas-tight glass syringe (Lu et al. 1999). CH₄ accumulation in the headspace was determined by gas chromatography (Varian CP3800 GC) fitted with chrompack capillary column (12.5 m x 0.53 mm) and a flame ionization detector (FID) having a mean relative uncertainty of \pm 2.9 % with reference to the purity of nitrogen for CH₄ as blank. CH₄ production was calculated according to CH₄ accumulation in the headspace, the headspace volume and volume of samples.
- 135 Wet sediment samples (both intertidal and sub-tidal) are processed for measurement of CH₄ concentration according to Knab et al. 2009 followed by measurement of headspace for CH₄ by gas 136 137 chromatography as described above. The nitrate, nitrite and ammonia concentrations of the sediment samples were measured taking 2M KCl extract of sediment followed by standard spectrophotometric 138 139 method (Grasshoff 1983). CH₄ oxidation was measured for intertidal surface sediment only, following 140 incubation with CH₄ spiked air. A fixed volume of surface sediment (~6 ml) was taken in 60 ml flasks fitted with rubber septum and head space air (21% O_2) was spiked with 100 µL CH₄ L⁻¹ (10 ppmv CH₄) 141 procured from Chemtron Science Laboratories Pvt. Ltd.). These flasks were incubated in duplicate at 142 ambient temperature for 4 days. Gas samples from the head-space was drawn immediately at the onset 143 of incubation and at 24 hours interval till the end for analyzing CH₄ concentration using gas 144 145 chromatograph as described earlier. CH₄ oxidation was calculated according to decrease of CH₄ concentration in the headspace, the headspace volume and volume of sediment samples. 146





During low tide condition CH₄ emission from the intertidal sediment surface to the atmosphere was 147 measured using static Perspex chamber method (Purvaja et al. 2004). The chambers were placed in the 148 149 sediment for a particular duration and CH₄ emission rate was calculated based on the enrichment of CH₄ 150 mixing ratio inside the chamber in comparison to the ambient air. Mixing ratio of CH₄ was measured by gas chromatography as described earlier. Advective CH₄ fluxes from intertidal forest sediment to the 151 estuarine water column (F_{ISW}) were computed as (Reay et al. 1995): $F_{ISW} = \Phi \times v \times C$; where, $\Phi =$ 152 porosity of sediment = 0.58 (Dutta et al. 2013), v = mean linear velocity = $d\Phi^{-1}$ (d = specific discharge), 153 $C = pore water CH_4$ concentration in intertidal sediment. The specific discharge for the intertidal 154 155 sediment was recorded by measuring the rate of accumulation of pore water in an excavated pit of known surface area (Dutta et al. 2015b). This was done during low tide condition in the intertidal flat at 156 100 m intervals along with receding water level. Diffusive CH₄ flux from sub-tidal sediment to estuary 157 158 was calculated using Fick's law of diffusion (Sansone et al. 2004).

Collection and analysis of dissolved CH₄ concentration using gas chromatograph for estuarine water has been described elsewhere (Dutta et al. 2013). For measurement of CH₄ oxidation water was filled in precleaned (acid washed and sterilized) septum fitted incubation bottles (in a batch of 12 bottles) from Niskin samplers with gentle overflowing and sealed with no air bubbles. Immediately after collection two bottles are poisoned with HgCl₂ to stop microbial CH₄ oxidation and they are considered as control for the experiment. Rest of the bottles are kept for incubation in ambient condition with two bottles withdrawn from incubation daily and were poisoned with saturated HgCl₂ solution to continue the





incubation experiment up to a times series of 5 days. The concentrations of dissolved CH_4 in all incubated samples was measured to record a time series kinetics of CH_4 oxidation. From the time series plot, the specific rate of CH_4 oxidation was calculated by linear regression of the natural log of CH_4 concentration against time. The value of specific rate of CH_4 oxidation is equivalent to the slope of the regression line. Actual rates of CH_4 oxidation (CH_4 consumption rate) were calculated by the product of dissolved CH_4 concentration and specific rate of CH_4 oxidation (Utsumi et al. 1998b).

CH₄ flux across the air - water interface was calculated according to the expression (Liss and Merlivat 172 1986): $F_{WA} = k \Delta C$; where, ΔC is the difference in concentrations ([CH₄]_{observed} - [CH₄]_{equilibrium}) and k is 173 the gas transfer velocity in cm hr^{-1} was calculated from wind velocity and schmidt number (Liss and 174 175 Merlivat 1986). A positive value denotes flux from water to the atmosphere and vice versa. Water temperature and pH were recorded in situ using a thermometer and a portable pH meter (Orion Star 176 177 A211) with a Ross combination electrode calibrated on the NBS (US National Bureau of Standards) scale (Frankignoulle and Borges 2001). Reproducibility was ± 0.005 pH units. Transparency of the 178 water column was measured with a 15 cm diameter Secchi disc. Salinity and dissolved oxygen 179 180 concentrations in surface and bottom waters were measured onboard, following the Mohr-Knudsen and Winkler titration methods, respectively (Grasshoff et al. 1983). For estimating of nitrite, nitrate and 181 ammonia concentrations samples were collected in 1L HDPE bottles and stored on ice during 182 183 transportation to the laboratory. In the laboratory concentrations were measured using standard spectrophotometric method (Grasshoff et al. 1983) and the values were added to compute dissolved 184





inorganic nitrogen concentration (DIN). For estimating of chlorophyll concentrations samples were collected in 1L amber colored bottles and stored on ice during transportation to the laboratory. In the laboratory chlorophyll concentration was measured using a standard spectrophotometric method (Parsons et al. 1992). Primary productivity and community respiration in the estuarine surface water were measured in situ by a light and dark bottle oxygen method (Parsons et al. 1992) with a relative uncertainty of $\pm 2.5\%$.

191 Samples for measurement of CH_4 mixing ratio were collected in air sampling bulbs from both 10 m and 20 m heights and transported to laboratory for analysis. Samples were analyzed using gas 192 chromatography (Varian CP 3800GC) fitted with chrompack capillary column (12.5 m x 0.53 mm) and 193 194 a flame ionization detector (FID). Two reference gas standards (10.9 ppmv and 5 ppmv, supplied by Chemtron Science Laboratories Pvt. Ltd) were used before and after every measurement. Duplicate 195 196 samples were analyzed periodically and the replicate measurements were found to be within 2 - 3.2 %. 197 Meteorological parameters like air temperature and wind velocity were simultaneously recorded at 10 198 and 20 m heights using a portable weather monitor (Model: Davis 7440) and the value was used to 199 calculated micrometeorological indices like friction velocity (U*), roughness height (Z₀), drag 200 coefficient and planetary boundary layer height (Ganguly et al. 2008). Biosphere - atmosphere CH₄ exchange flux (F_{BA}) was calculated using the following relation (Barrett 1998; Ganguly et al. 2008): 201

$$F_{BA} = V_C \Delta \chi.$$





Where, $\Delta \chi$ = difference of mixing ratio of CH₄ between 10 and 20 m height. V_{C =} exchange velocity 203 which is defined as $1 / (r_a + r_s) (r_a = aerodynamic resistance and r_s = surface layer resistance). Negative$ 204 flux indicates net transfer from the atmosphere to the biosphere and positive flux indicates emission. 205 206 CH₄ photo-oxidation rate (P) in the lower mangrove forest atmosphere was calculated based on the reaction (CH₄ + OH \rightarrow CH₃ + H₂O) as: P = k [CH₄] [OH]; where, k = rate constant of the reaction 207 between CH₄ and OH = $1.59 \times 10^{-20} \text{ T}^{2.84} \exp(-978 / \text{ T}) \text{ cm}^3$ molecule⁻¹s⁻¹ (Vaghjiani and Ravishankara 208 1991). $[CH_4]$ = mean of all CH₄ mixing ratio measurements during the day time at 10 m height in the 209 diurnal cycle and [OH] = mean of all OH radical concentrations during the day time at 10 m height in 210 the diurnal cycle in molecules cm⁻³. OH radical concentration was computed using photolysis frequency 211 of O_3 based on the empirical relation proposed by Ehhalt and Rohrer, 2000. 212

213 **4. Results and discussion:**

4.1 CH₄ cycling in the mangrove sediment:

Mean CH₄ production potential of 20 - 25 cm deep sediment layer of the mangrove forest was 5831 µmol m⁻³ d⁻¹ which is about 7.9 times higher than production potential measured for 5 – 10 cm depth (table 1). Surface layer (0 – 5 cm) CH₄ production potential was not measured at the study point, considering diminutive methanogenic and immense methanotrophic activity in that layer. The profile could not cover up to the end of the methanogenic sediment layer, but the value clearly indicates enormous CH₄ production potential of the mangrove system with a mean of 3547 µmol m⁻³ d⁻¹. The





production potentials measured for this tropical mangrove forest sediment were within the range of that 221 reported for pristine mangrove forest at Balandra, Maxico (Strangmann et al. 2008). On seasonal basis, 222 highest production potential (4616 \pm 2666 µmol m⁻³ d⁻¹) was noticed during postmonsoon and lowest 223 $(2378 \pm 1799 \ \mu mol \ m^{-3} \ d^{-1})$ during premonsoon periods. The peak postmonsoon CH₄ production 224 potential may be attributed to maximum mangrove litter fall (58.79 gm dry wt C m⁻² month⁻¹; Ray et al. 225 226 2011) mediated supply of organic matter in the inter-tidal sediment and subsequently inducing higher CH₄ production. In contrast, high premonsoon salinity regime of the ecosystem may partially inhibited 227 CH₄ production potential of the system by supplying higher SO_4^{2-} and subsequent enhanced SO_4^{2-} 228 229 reduction during this phase (Dutta et al. 2015b). Geochemistry of the mangrove sediment related to this study is briefly discussed elsewhere (Dutta et al. 2013) but a general trend is presented in Fig.3. The 230 231 Fig.3A indicates in this inter-tidal mangrove sediment requisite redox condition for the process of methanogensis (<150 mV; Wang et al. 1993) is attained at ≈ 10 - 25 cm depth while the process of 232 SO_4^{2-} reduction was prominent in the upper 20 cm sediment (Fig.3B). The decreasing trend of %OC 233 across deep mangrove sediment indicates significant OC mineralization by anaerobic microbial 234 235 metabolism (Fig.3C).

CH₄ production potential of first 5 cm deep sub-tidal sediment layer varied between $18.72 - 85.74 \mu mol$ m⁻³d⁻¹ having maximal (77.06 ± 12.27 µmol m⁻³ d⁻¹) postmonsoon and minimal (21.28 ± 3.63 µmol m⁻³ d⁻¹) premonsoon. Mean methanogenesis rate of sub-tidal sediment (0 – 5 cm) was 48.88 ± 26.04 µmol m⁻³ d⁻¹. %OC of sub-tidal sediment surface ranged from 1.56 ± 0.72 to 2.21 ± 0.69 having maximum





- concentration during postmonsoon and minimum during premonsoon period. About 35.25 % higher OC
- supply in sub-tidal surface layer during postmonsoon period compare to premonsoon might have caused
- strong redox condition favoring a higher rate of CH₄ production.
- The %OC underwent anaerobic transformation in the 5 10, 10 15, 15 20 and 20 25 cm depths were 12.7%, 9.94%, 7.64% and 8.23%, respectively. Methanogens utilize a limited number of substrates and the major pathways are through fermentation of acetate (acetoclastic) and reduction of CO_2 with H_2 (hydrogenotrophic). The pathways for both types of methanogenesis are as follows:



249 **P** – **I** = Acetoclastic methanogenesis; **P** – **II** = Hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis

Among these two, in high CO_2 rich environment acetoclastic methanogenesis is predominant over hydrogenotrophic one and approximately 70% of biologically produced CH₄ originates from conversion of the methyl group of acetate to CH₄ (Mayumi et al. 2013). Based on the above fact in the intertidal mangrove sediment up to the depth of penetration 25 cm, acetoclastic methanogenesis mediated OC utilization rate was 59.58 mg m⁻³ d⁻¹ resulting 2483 µmol m⁻³ d⁻¹ of CH₄. The estuarine bottom sediment was also OC as well as CO₂ rich and 0.82 mg m⁻³ d⁻¹ of OC transformed through acetoclastic methanogenesis producing 34.22 µmol m⁻³ d⁻¹ of CH₄. Extrapolating the values for entire Sundarbans, it





- is estimated that in the Sundarbans mangrove sediment (both inter and sub tidal sediments) about 22.86 Ggyr⁻¹ of OC was transformed through methanogenic pathway resulting 15.25 Ggyr⁻¹ of CH₄. The mechanism also produces another radiatively active trace gas (CO₂) as a by-product of CH₄ production & acetoclastic methanogenesis mediated CO₂ production rate of this mangrove forest sediment was 109.23 mg m⁻³ d⁻¹.
- A major part of sedimentary produced CH₄ dissolves in the pore water at in situ high pressure resulting significant super saturation (Dutta et al. 2013). Pore water CH₄ concentrations along intertidal forest sediment depth profile are presented in table 1 indicating almost constant concentration up to 10 - 15 cm sediment layer which abruptly increase 1.79 times at 15 - 20 cm depth and further increase to 2.26 – 2.76 times at 20 - 25 cm depth. On annual basis intertidal sediment pore water CH₄ concentrations ranged between 3204 \pm 1325 to 3639 \pm 1949 nM, being maximal postmonsoon and minimal premonsoon periods (Dutta et al., 2015b).
- Statistical analysis (using MINITAB version 17) was performed between pore water CH₄ concentration ([CH₄]_{PW}) vs. E_h, NO₂⁻, SO₄²⁻, AVS and organic carbon percentage (%OC) in order to point out key controlling factor for variability of pore water CH₄ concentration in intertidal sediment. Here the dependent variable is [CH₄]_{PW} and independent variables are E_h, NO₂⁻, SO₄²⁻, AVS and % OC. The regression equation between dependent and independent variables are as follows: [CH₄]_{PW} = 10.6 -0.0184 E_h - 0.123 NO₂⁻ - 0.0076 SO₄²⁻ - 0.0693 AVS - 4.09 %OC (R² = 86.6%, F = 7.79, p = 0.004, n =





30). From the statistical analysis (table 2) it was found that $[CH_4]_{PW}$ was significantly correlated with %OC (p = 0.004) and E_h (p = 0.013) of sediment, indicating cumulative influence of %OC and E_h on variability of $[CH_4]_{PW}$ in this tropical mangrove forest.

278 Following same seasonal trend annual mean pore water CH₄ concentrations in estuarine bottom lying sediment varied between 2770 ± 1039 to 3980 ± 1227 nM (Dutta et al., 2015b). Compare to the adjacent 279 280 estuarine water (will be discussed in section 4.2) sediment pore water was 53.4 times CH₄ supersaturated; induces significant CH₄ influx from intertidal & sub-tidal sediment to estuary. 281 282 Advective CH₄ fluxes from intertidal sediment to adjacent estuary were between 115.81 ± 31.02 and 199.15 ± 47.89 µmol m⁻² d⁻¹, having maximal postmonsoon and minimal premonsoon periods (Dutta et 283 al., 2015b) (Fig.4). The peak postmonsoon advective CH₄ flux may be ascribed to higher pore water 284 CH₄ concentration as well as specific discharge (0.008 cm min⁻¹). Diffusive CH₄ fluxes from estuarine 285 bottom lying sediment to the water column ranged from 7.06 \pm 1.95 to 10.26 \pm 2.43 µmol m⁻² d⁻¹ 286 (Fig.4), having an annual mean of 8.45 µmol m⁻² d⁻¹ (Dutta et al., 2015b). The diffusive fluxes 287 calculated for this ecosystem were comparatively higher than Yantze estuary $(1.7 - 2.2 \,\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \,d^{-1})$ 288 (Zhang et al. 2008b) but much lower than White Oak river estuary (17.1 mmol $m^{-2} d^{-1}$) (Kelly et al. 289 290 1990). Fluxes were maximal during postmonsoon and minimal during pre-monsoon periods. The peak postmonsoon diffusive CH₄ fluxes may be ascribed to maximal pore water CH₄ concentrations while the 291 292 reverse case applies premonsoon.





From the methanogenic deep sediment layer the produced CH₄ partially diffuses upward, which 293 undergoes aerobic and anaerobic oxidation in sediment before being transported to the forest 294 295 atmosphere. But only aerobic CH₄ oxidation at sediment surface has been included in this study. The 296 seasonal variation of surface sediment CH₄ oxidation potentials are presented in Fig.5 and the values were within the range of that reported for deciduous forest of UK and temperate forests soil in Korea 297 298 (Bradford et al. 2001b; Jang et al. 2006). On seasonal basis, the oxidation potential was maximal premonsoon and minimal monsoon periods having a mean of 1.758 ± 0.34 mg m⁻² d⁻¹. The peak 299 300 premonsoon CH₄ oxidation potential may be due to maximum soil surface temperature (table 1) as 301 methanotrophy is a microbiological process and rate of any microbiological reaction is directly proportional with temperature. NH_4^+ and NO_3^- concentrations in mangrove forest sediment surface 302 varied between $1.01 - 3.31 \mu M$ and $1.11 - 2.98 \mu M$, respectively and correlation between NH₄⁺ and 303 NO_3^- concentrations vs. CH₄ oxidation potential ([CH₄]_(Ox) = 1.63 - 0.307 [NH₄⁺] + 0.293 [NO₃⁻] [R² = 304 68 %, F = 3.18, p = 0.181, n = 15]) revealed negative relationship between $[CH_4]_{(Ox)}$ and $[NH_4^+]$ but 305 positive with $[NO_3^-]$ (table 3). The inhibitory effect of $[NH_4^+]$ on CH₄ oxidation activity may be due to 306 competition of NH₄⁺ with CH₄ for the CH₄ monooxygenases (MMO) in methanotrophic bacteria. Even 307 308 though the affinity of MMO for CH₄ is 600 - to 1300 - fold higher than its affinity for ammonium, high 309 concentrations of ammonium are known to substantially inhibit the process of methanotrophy in sediment (Be'dard and Knowles, 1989). Proportional relationship between NO₃⁻ and CH₄ oxidation may 310 311 be related to the demand of type II methanotrophic bacteria for nitrogen sources (Jang et al., 2006).





After oxidation the residual diffused CH₄ emits across sediment – atmosphere interface. Monthly 312 variation of mangrove sediment – atmosphere CH₄ exchange fluxes are presented in Fig.6; having 313 314 maximal emission during monsoon and minimal during premonsoon (Dutta et al. 2013). Emission 315 fluxes estimated for this study point were within the range of that reported for Pichavarm mangrove, 316 India and mangrove along the south west coast of Puerto Rico (Purvaja et al. 2004; Sotomayor et al. 1994). Mean soil CH₄ emission from this mangrove ecosystem was 7.06 mg m⁻² d⁻¹; indicates the 317 mangrove sediment acts as a rich source of CH₄ to the regional atmosphere. During the observation 318 319 period soil temperature (t) ranged between 18.25 ± 0.22 and $28.36 \pm 1.02^{\circ}$ C and variability of soil CH₄ 320 emissions (E_M) were tested statistically with respective 't' and pore water salinity (s). E_M is best fitted linearly with 't' and by a second order polynomial equation with 's' as given below: 321

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323

$E_M = 0.066 t - 1.79 (R^2 = 0.35, F = 5.33, p = 0.041, n = 12)$

$$E_M = 0.0039 \text{ s}^2 - 0.2006 \text{ s} + 2.8416 (R^2 = 0.77, F = 7.71, p = 0.029, n = 12)$$

The analysis indicates significant correlation between CH_4 fluxes with both the independent variables, indicating cumulative influences of 't' and 's' on mangrove soil CH_4 emission. Similar phenomenon was previously reported in Ranong Province mangrove area, Thailand (Lekphet et al. 2005) and a salt marsh of Queen's creek (Bartlett et al. 1987). Comparing CH_4 emissions from different littoral zones of the mangrove forest, higher emissions (0.288 - 0.507 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) were noticed from upper littoral zone compare to mid & lower littoral zones; may be due to the higher pneumatophore density in that region (42 number m⁻²) and diffusion of CH_4 through it (Dutta et al. 2013). Mean pneumatophore and





bioturbation density in the forest area was counted as 45 ± 7 and 12 ± 2 nos. m⁻², respectively and statistical analysis was done in order to examine the influence of pneumatophore and bioturbation on emission of CH₄ in this mangrove forest atmosphere. Regression equations between soil CH₄ emission rate (F_{SA}) vs. pneumatophores (P_{no}) and bioturbation (B_{no}) density were as follows:

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$$F_{SA} = -8.59 + 0.330 P_{no} (R^2 = 81.9\%, F = 6.94, p = 0.032, n = 20)$$

336
$$F_{SA} = 6.42 - 0.052 B_{no} (R^2 = 61.9\%, F = 5.94, p = 0.041, n = 20)$$

The statistical analysis revealed significant correlation between dependent & independent variables for 337 both cases indicating other than physicochemical factors, biological variables (like presence of 338 pneumatophore and bioturbation) also play a crucial role for CH₄ emission from the forest sediment. 339 340 The positive correlation between sediment CH₄ emission rate and pneumatophore density indicates plant mediated emission of CH₄ in Sundarbans mangrove ecosystem whereas negative correlation with 341 342 bioturbation density indicates that burrows favored sediment oxygenation especially in surface layer, 343 resulting CH₄ oxidation in surface mangrove sediment and ultimately reduced its emission flux from sediment. A similar observation on oxidation of surface sediment by crab burrows in the mangrove 344 345 environment was previously reported by Kristensen and Alongi, 2006.

346 **4.2 Estuarine CH₄ cycling:**





Physicochemical and biological parameters of the estuarine water column are presented in table – 4 and 347 348 on monthly basis from Fig.7A to 7D. For both (temperature and salinity) the values were highest during 349 the premonsoon and lowest during the postmonsoon (for temperature) and monsoon (for salinity) 350 months. Marginal variation of temperature and salinity in estuarine surface and bottom water clearly indicates a vertically well mixed water column. Surface water pH varied over a narrow range (8.10 \pm 351 352 0.03 to 8.17 \pm 0.16) and seasonal differences were not significant. Dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations in estuarine surface and bottom waters were high (6.04 \pm 0.73 to 7.27 \pm 1.14 mg L⁻¹ and 353 5.41 ± 0.03 to 5.98 ± 0.79 mg L⁻¹, respectively) being maximal during postmonsoon and minimal during 354 355 monsoon periods. DO % of saturation varied between 94.8 and 99.3; indicates a well oxygenated water column that would inhibit the anaerobic microbial metabolism of organic matter within estuarine water 356 357 column. The chlorophyll concentration in estuarine surface water ranged from 3.11 ± 0.39 to $7.88 \pm$ 1.90 µg L⁻¹ having highest and lowest concentrations during postmonsoon and monsoon, respectively. 358 Seasonal trends of chlorophyll concentration mirrored the changes in Secchi disc depth, which ranged 359 360 between 29.7 ± 7.8 and 75.9 ± 7.7 cm during the study period. The ratio between primary productivity 361 and community respiration was <1, indicates the estuary is net heterotrophic in nature.

During the observation period estuarine surface and bottom waters dissolved CH_4 concentrations ranged from 54.20 ± 5.06 to 90.91 ± 21.20 and 47.28 ± 12.85 to 67.97 ± 33.12 nM, respectively (Fig.7E); having maximal postmonsoon and minimal monsoon periods (table 4) (Dutta et al., 2015b). The CH_4 concentrations measured in this mangrove dominated estuary was within the range of that measured in





Thames estuary, Loire estuary but higher than Hooghly estuary, Yangtze River estuary, Sado estuary 366 and Elbe estuary (Middelburg et al. 2002; Biswas et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2008b). The peak 367 368 postmonsoon CH₄ concentrations may be attributed to cumulative effect of maximal supply of dissolved 369 CH₄ rich pore water from intertidal mangrove sediment and minimal CH₄ oxidation (will be discussed 370 later) in the estuarine water column. Like other tropical, sub-tropical and temperate estuaries (Upstill-Goddard et al. 2000; Middelburg et al. 2002; Biswas et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2008b) statistical analysis 371 revealed significant negative correlation between estuarine dissolved CH₄ levels with respective salinity 372 (Premonsoon: $R^2 = 89.1\%$, F = 49.15, p < 0.001, n = 8; Monsoon: $R^2 = 95.2\%$, F = 120.12, p < 0.001, n 373 = 8: Postmonsoon: $R^2 = 75.8\%$, F = 18.83, p = 0.005, n = 8) indicating salinity is the major controlling 374 factor for variability of CH₄ levels in this estuary. Moreover, the stronger degree of correlation during 375 376 monsoon months compare to others indicates fresh water runoff mediated addition of CH₄ to the estuary during this period. Other than salinity, statistically no significant correlation was obtained with other 377 physicochemical and biological variables ($[CH_4] = -297 - 0.14$ temperature + 58 pH + 2.69 378 [chlorophyll] - 19.1 [dissolved oxygen] + 8.5 (NPP/R) $[R^2 = 75\%, F = 1.20, p = 0.513, n = 24]$) (table 379 5); pointed towards in situ methanogenesis is not occurring within this estuary and estuarine dissolved 380 CH₄ is entirely exogenous in nature (Dutta et al., 2015b). 381

Being well oxygenated, the water column presumably restrained methanogenesis but induced methanotrophy. CH_4 oxidation in the subsurface water was studied based on time dependent CH_4 reduction in the incubated samples and during this experiment none of the samples showed time series





increment of CH₄ concentration i.e. net CH₄ production. Specific rate of CH₄ oxidation (0.009 \pm 0.001 385 to $0.018 \pm 0.001 \text{ hr}^{-1}$) and consumption (0.54 ± 0.12 to $1.26 \pm 0.27 \text{ nmol } \text{L}^{-1} \text{ hr}^{-1}$) in estuarine surface 386 water was distinctly seasonal; having maximal premonsoon and minimal postmonsoon periods (Fig.7F). 387 The mean dissolved CH₄ consumption rate was 20.59 nmol $L^{-1} d^{-1}$, about 8.11 times lower than rate of 388 CH_4 oxidation reported in the freshwater region of the Hudson estuary during summer (167 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ 389 ¹) (De Angelis and Scranton 1993). Aquatic CH_4 oxidation is a microbial process, so, the 390 physicochemical parameters like temperature (thermal), salinity (tonicity), oxygen (oxidative), DIN 391 392 (nutrient) and turbidity (surface) may have significant metabolic effects in this process. Moreover, other 393 biological processes like primary production and community respiration may be considered to be influencing for this microbial process. Influence of salinity on dissolved CH₄ oxidation rate has been 394 395 reported previously by de Angelis & Scranton 1993. According to their observation in Hudson estuary, high oxidation rates (4 to 167 nmol $L^{-1} d^{-1}$) were found only at salinities below 6, rates at higher 396 salinities being 1 to 2 orders of magnitude lower. The value for dissolved O2 was significantly above the 397 range of the estimated half-saturation constant for CH₄ oxidation, K_m (0.5 - 0.8 mg L⁻¹; Lidstrom and 398 Somers 1984) or the reported optimum range of 0.1-1.0 mg L⁻¹ (Rudd and Hamilton 1975) for microbial 399 CH₄ oxidation in the water column. Influences of dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) concentration on 400 401 microbial CH₄ oxidation had been reported previously in Lake 227 (Rudd and Hamilton 1979). According to their observation in the presence of O_2 concentrations > 31 μ M bacterial CH₄ oxidation 402 was inhibited when DIN concentration was low ($\leq 3 \mu M$) as methanotrophs can fix nitrogen under low 403





DIN conditions (< 3μ M). The nitrogen fixation is disrupted by high concentrations of O₂ but not inhibited when DIN concentration reaches to 20 μ M. Moreover, turbid condition of the estuary methanotrophs associated with particulate matter can encounter high dissolved CH₄ levels in estuarine water column (Abil et al. 2007).

A multiple regression analysis was done in order to point out key controlling factor for CH₄ oxidation in 408 this mangrove dominated estuary. Here the dependent variable is dissolved CH₄ oxidation rate 409 410 ([CH₄]_{DOX}) and independent variables are water temperature (T), salinity (S), dissolved oxygen (DO), 411 dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN), net heterotrophy (R/P) and secchi disc depth (S_d). The resultant regression equation between these variables ($[CH_4]_{DOX} = -65.9 + 0.756 \text{ T} - 2.18 \text{ S} + 7.53 \text{ DO} - 0.408$ 412 DIN - 2.01 P/R - 0.304 S_d [$R^2 = 91.6\%$, F = 9.12, p = 0.014, n = 12]) revealed significant correlation 413 between [CH₄]_{DOX} with S, DO & S_d (table 6); indicating cumulative influence of these variables on 414 415 variability of $[CH_4]_{DOX}$ in this estuarine water.

In a study of CH_4 oxidation in a freshwater lake, Panganiban et al. 1979 reported that 30-60% of the CH₄ oxidized was incorporated with the cell under aerobic conditions but essentially none was incorporated under anaerobic conditions. Rudd and Taylor, 1980 reported an incorporation percentage of 50% in a study of CH_4 oxidation in a freshwater lake. In the mangrove dominated estuary of Sundarbans, the CH_4 oxidation in the water column progressed at aerobic conditions. Assuming that 30-50% of the CH_4 carbon oxidized by methanotrophs was converted to organic matter (bacterial cell materials) and the remainder to CO_2 . The mean CH_4 carbon converted to bacterial cell material was





423 computed as 0.59 mg C m⁻² d⁻¹ while primary productivity mediated production of organic carbon was 424 1545 mg C m⁻² d⁻¹. Thus, the production of organic carbon as a result of CH₄ oxidation was only 425 0.038% of that generated by primary production at that time. The remaining oxidised CH₄ is 426 quantitatively converted to less radiatively active CO₂ & plays a crucial role in the estuarine carbon 427 cycle. Using the stoitiometric equation for aerobic CH₄ oxidation mechanism, CH₄ oxidation mediated 428 CO₂ production rate in this mangrove dominated estuary was 3.25 mg m⁻² d⁻¹. Extrapolating the value 429 for entire Sundarbans estuaries, total CO₂ production from CH₄ oxidation mechanism was 2.13Gg yr⁻¹.

430 Surface water CH₄ % of saturation was ranged from 2483.02 ± 950.18 to 3525.45 ± 1053.72 ; indicating the estuarine water was CH₄ supersaturated inducing CH₄ exchange across water – atmosphere 431 432 interface. Monthly variation of air – water CH₄ flux and CH₄ concentration in estuarine surface water are presented graphically in Fig.7E. Air – water CH₄ fluxes from this estuary ranged between 6.27 \pm 433 1.61 and 10.67 \pm 6.92 µmol m⁻² d⁻¹; having minimal premonsoon and maximal monsoon periods (Dutta 434 et al., 2015b). Minimal premonsoon CH₄ fluxes may be attributed to the lowest value of wind speed 435 436 over the estuary as well as surface water dissolved CH₄ levels. Flux values estimate for this site fall within the range measured in the Hooghly estuary ($0.88 - 148.63 \mu mol m^{-2} d^{-1}$) (Biswas et al. 2007) but 437 are much lower than those reported for some other estuaries like Oregon estuary (181.3 μ mol m⁻² d⁻¹) 438 439 (De Angelis and Lilley, 1987). The large variation in water – atmosphere CH₄ flux between different 440 estuaries reflects a combination of dissolved CH₄ concentration, the gas transfer velocity and variability 441 of estuarine regimes (Dutta et al., 2015b). Wind speed over the estuarine water surface ranged between





442 2.28 ± 1.01 and 3.16 ± 1.79 ms⁻¹. The value seems to be low; may be due to high resistance offered by 443 the mangrove vegetation resulting low gas transfer velocity as well as air - water CH₄ exchange flux 444 value in this estuary. Our flux estimates were analyzed statistically to examine the influence of 445 temperature and salinity on their variability. In both cases the analysis revealed significant correlations 446 (water temperature: $R^2 = 61\%$, F = 6.71, p = 0.029, n = 24; salinity: $R^2 = 54\%$, F = 5.31, p = 0.037, n =447 24) indicating a cumulative effect of temperature and salinity on estuarine CH₄ emission (Dutta et al., 448 2015b).

449 **4.3.** Atmospheric CH₄ dynamics:

Temperature of the mangrove forest atmosphere varied between 17.34 ± 4.0 to 30.34 ± 0.91 °C at 10 m 450 and 16.17 ± 1.80 to $29.73 \pm 1.13^{\circ}$ C at 20 m; being maximal premonsoon and minimal postmonsoon 451 seasons (table 7). Wind velocity varied between 0.41 ± 0.36 and 1.32 ± 1.11 m s⁻¹ at 10 m height and 452 0.80 ± 0.88 to 1.64 ± 1.37 m s⁻¹ at 20 m height; having maximal monsoon and minimal postmonsoon 453 454 periods. The atmospheric turbulence expressed by friction velocity (U*) plays an important role in controlling the stability of the atmosphere & varied between 0.01 and 1.2 m s⁻¹. Planetary boundary 455 456 layer or atmospheric boundary layer (PBL) height over the mangrove forest atmosphere varied between 457 702.45 m and 936.59 m; having maximal height during premonsoon and minimal during monsoon 458 periods. Mean atmospheric boundary layer height over the tropical mangrove forest atmosphere was 811.7 m on annual basis. Values of other micrometeorological indices such as drag coefficient and 459





roughness height are presented in table 5. The seasonal variation for drag co-efficient may be attributed to the variation of wind speed in this mangrove forest atmosphere (Smith and Banke, 1975) while the values for both drag coefficient and roughness height were minimum in monsoon period. The low values of drag coefficient and roughness length could be deemed specific for this particular surface which is due to the action of low - pressure force on individual surface elements and the low shearing stress generated by particular wind (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2002).

Monthly variation of CH₄ mixing ratio at 10 & 20 m heights of the forest atmosphere are presented in 466 467 Fig.8A; indicating minimal premonsoon (at both 10 and 20 m heights) and maximal during monsoon 468 and postmonsoon periods for 10 m and 20 m heights, respectively (table 7). The maximal monsoon CH₄ mixing ratio at 10 m height may be attributed to maximum monsoon CH₄ emission from sediment and 469 470 aquatic surfaces and primarily it's mixing to the lower atmosphere of the mangrove ecosystem. Diurnal 471 variation of CH₄ in the mangrove forest atmosphere at 10 m and 20 m heights in a month of January is 472 presented in Fig.8B; indicating peak concentrations during early morning may be attributed to CH₄ 473 accumulation within a stable boundary layer in that period (Dutta et al., 2013c). With progress of the 474 day due to increment of atmospheric turbulence the stable layer breaks up resulting decrease of CH_4 in the lower atmosphere (Mukhopadhyay et al. 2002). Changes in the 475 concentration 476 micrometeorological parameters at the study site change the stability (Z/L) of the atmosphere, which in turn may alter the atmospheric CH_4 mixing ratio in the lower atmosphere ([CH_4]_{10m}). Statistical analysis 477 revealed significant correlation between Z/L and $[CH_4]_{10m}$ ($[CH_4]_{10m}$ = 2.56 + 2.25 Z/L $[R^2 = 74.8\%, p]$ 478





< 0.001, F = 29.73, n = 30]); indicates potential impact of micrometeorological parameters on 479 480 variability of CH₄ mixing ratio at lower atmosphere. Comparing CH₄ distribution along vertical column 481 of the forest atmosphere it was evident that CH₄ mixing ratio at 10 m height was 1.02 times higher than 482 20 m height; induces biosphere – atmosphere CH_4 exchange in this mangrove environment depending upon micrometeorological conditions of the atmosphere. Monthly variation of biosphere - atmosphere 483 484 CH₄ exchange flux is presented in Fig.8C having maximal flux monsoon and minimal postmonsoon periods. This mangrove biosphere acts as a source for CH₄ during monsoon, when $\Delta \chi$ is significantly 485 positive and as sink during pre and post monsoon seasons, when $\Delta \chi$ is negative. The contributory 486 processes to the $\Delta \chi$ are emission from water and soil resulting enrichment in the 10 m layer and 487 oxidation (both microbial and photochemical) causing depletion at 10 and 20 m, respectively (Dutta et 488 al. 2013). Mean biosphere – atmosphere methane exchange flux was calculated as 0.086 mg m⁻² d⁻¹; 489 490 indicates on annual mean basis the mangrove ecosystem acts as a source of CH₄ to the upper 491 atmosphere. Mean compensation point (i.e. where net biosphere - atmosphere CH_4 flux is zero) for CH_4 492 in this subtropical mangrove forest was 1.997 ppmv. Statistical analysis was done between biosphere -493 atmosphere CH_4 flux (F_{BA}) and sensible heat flux (H) as the transport of energy and mass are partially controlled by 'H'. The regression equation $[F_{BA} = -0.0013 \text{ H}^2 + 0.0967 \text{ H} + 0.7789 (R^2 = 0.53, F = 0.53)]$ 494 495 7.72, p = 0.002, n = 12] explains 53% variability between dependent & independent variables indicating significant influence of sensible heat flux on variability of biosphere – atmosphere CH₄ 496 exchange in this tropical mangrove forest ecosystem. 497





On annual basis mean daytime CH_4 mixing ratio was 1.03 times lower than night-time; the variability is 498 presumed to be governed by photo-oxidation and diurnal changes in the boundary layer height. But 499 statistically no significant correlation was obtained between variability of daytime and nighttime CH₄ 500 mixing ratio with PBL height ($\Delta CH_4 = -0.0118 \Delta PBL + 0.3045$, $R^2 = 16.2\%$, F = 0.321, p = 0.987, n = 0.987, n501 12); indicating variability of atmospheric boundary layer height was not the major controlling factor for 502 503 ΔCH_4 , that pointed towards large atmospheric CH₄ photo-oxidation in the mangrove forest atmosphere. CH_4 photo-oxidation rate in this subtropical mangrove forest atmosphere varied between 6.05 x 10¹⁰ and 504 1.67 x 10^{11} molecules cm⁻³ d⁻¹ being maximum oxidation during monsoon and minimum during 505 506 postmonsoon periods (Dutta et al. 2015c). The peak monsoon CH₄ photo-oxidation rate may be 507 attributed to maximum CH₄ supply through emission as well as high UV index and UV erythermal dose 508 irradiance during this period in these subtropical latitudes (Panicker et al. 2014). Considering the mean day light period as 12 hours and 6.023×10^{23} molecules equals to 1 mole or 16000 mg CH₄, the mean 509 CH_4 photo-oxidation rate in this tropical mangrove forest atmosphere was calculated as 3.25 x 10⁻⁹ mg 510 $cm^{-3}d^{-1}$. 511

512 **4.4: Quantitative CH₄ budget from Indian Sundarbans:**

A box diagram (fig.9) was constructed for describing biogeochemical CH_4 cycling in Sundarbans biosphere reserve. In the model different subsystems are designated as separate reservoir. CH_4 storage in each reservoir and exchange fluxes of CH_4 between different reservoirs are presented as an annual mean





- and values were used to calculate the input and output of CH_4 to/from the reservoirs, which in turn established the CH_4 budget for this mangrove-dominated estuarine system.
- 518 Mangrove sediment methane budget:
- 519 1. Mean CH₄ production potential in intertidal forest sediment (up to the depth of 25 cm) was 3547
- μ mol m⁻³ d⁻¹. Considering the rate equal to in situ CH₄ production and extrapolating over entire
- forest, total CH_4 production within 25 cm depth of the forest sediment is 21.75 Ggyr⁻¹.
- 522 2. Intertidal sediment pore water CH₄ concentration was 3451 nM and extrapolating the
 523 concentration for entire mangrove forest (up to 25 cm depth), the sediment stands as a reservoir
 524 pool of 0.031Gg CH₄.
- 525 3. The intertidal sediment pore water methane concentration was about 55 times supersaturated
 526 than adjacent estuarine water (63.04 nM) indicating significant out flux of CH₄ rich pore water
 527 from intertidal sediment to estuary during low tide phase via advective transport.
- 528 4. About 8.2% of the produced CH₄ is advectively transported to the adjacent estuarine system with 529 a rate of 159.52 μ mol m⁻² d⁻¹.
- 5. Mean CH₄ oxidation potential at intertidal forest sediment surface was 1.758 mg m⁻² d⁻¹ and total oxidation was 2.70 Ggyr⁻¹, when extrapolated for entire forest area of Sundarbans. The





532		value indicates only 12.41% of produced CH ₄ is oxidized at sediment surface; presenting petite
533		activity of methanotrophs in comparison to the methanogens in forest sediment.
534	6.	Total CH ₄ emission across sediment – atmosphere interface of the mangrove forest was 10.8
535		Ggyr ⁻¹ (about 49.6% of total produced CH ₄ in sediment) with a rate of 7.06 mg m ⁻² d ⁻¹ .
536	7.	The total CH_4 emission and oxidation from/at the mangrove surface sediment was 6.05 and 1.51
537		times higher, respectively compare to total CH ₄ advectively transported to the estuary; indicates
538		emission acts as major CH ₄ removal pathway from intertidal mangrove sediment.
539	8.	Balancing total production and removal, annually 6.46 GgCH ₄ remains unexplained. This
540		establishes the existence of anaerobic methane oxidation in mangrove sediment column which

541 was not covered in this study.

542 Sub-tidal sediment CH₄ budget:

- 543 **1.** CH₄ production potential of 0 5 cm depth of estuarine underlying sediment (sub-tidal 544 sediment) was 48.88 µmol m⁻³ d⁻¹ and total production was 0.026 Ggyr⁻¹ when extrapolated for 545 entire sub-tidal area for estuaries of Sundarbans.
- 546 2. Mean sub-tidal sediment (0 5 cm) pore water CH₄ concentration was 3286 nM; which was 547 about 52.13 times supersaturated than overlying estuarine water inducing diffusive CH₄ transport 548 from sub-tidal sediment to the overlying estuary.





549	3.	Mean diffusive CH ₄ flux from sub-tidal sediment to the overlying estuary was 8.45 μ mol m ⁻² d ⁻¹ .
550		Extrapolating the rate for entire sub-tidal area of Sundarbans, the sub-tidal sediment acts as a
551		source of 0.089 GgCH ₄ annually to the upper estuarine system.
552	Estua	rine CH ₄ budget:
553	1.	Total CH ₄ input from sediment to estuary (by both advection and diffusion transports) was
554		1.875Gg yr ⁻¹ . Advective flux being 20 times higher than diffusive flux acts as major source for
555		CH ₄ to the estuary.
556	2.	Mean dissolved CH_4 concentration in the estuary was 63.04 nM. Extrapolating this over the
557		entire volume of the estuaries of the Sundarbans, the system stands as a reserve pool of 0.011Gg
558		CH ₄ (Dutta et al., 2015b).
559	3.	The total CH_4 oxidation rate in the estuarine water column was $1.30Ggyr^{-1}$ with a rate of 20.59
560		nmol $L^{-1} d^{-1}$.
561	4.	Mean CH ₄ emission flux across the water - atmosphere interface of the estuary was 8.88 μ mol m ⁻
562		2 d ⁻¹ . Extrapolating this over the total estuarine surface area, on an annual basis the mangrove
563		associated estuaries of the Sundarbans are a source of 0.093Gg CH ₄ to the regional atmosphere,
564		which is only 4.96 % of total CH_4 supplied to the estuary.





- 565 5. CH₄ oxidation, being 14 times higher than water atmosphere exchange, is considered as 566 principal CH₄ removal mechanism in this estuary.
- 567 6. Mean turnover time of CH_4 in the water column relative to oxidation and emission was 3.77 568 days, which is in the range of turnover times relative to oxidation reported for the low salinity 569 region of the Hudson estuary (1.4 – 9 days) (De Angelis and Scranton 1993).
- 570 7. The total sink of CH_4 due to these oxidation and emission processes were 1.39 Ggyr⁻¹, about 571 74.13 % of total CH_4 supply to the estuary, indicating a significant export flux of CH_4 from 572 estuary to the adjacent continental shelf.
- 8. Balancing CH₄ sources vs. sinks in this estuarine system, the export flux of CH₄ from estuary to
 the continental shelf was 0.485 Ggyr⁻¹, indicating a significant contribution from the Sundarbans
 estuaries to the CH₄ budget of the northern Bay of Bengal (Dutta et al., 2015b).

576 Atmospheric CH₄ budget:

577 1. Net CH_4 emission from Sundarbans mangrove ecosystem (sediment & estuarine surfaces) to the 578 regional atmosphere was 10.89 Ggyr⁻¹, of which sediment is the principal contributor (99.17%).

- 579 2. Comparison to the global mean CH_4 emission rate from mangrove forest & creeks (10.76 mg m⁻
- 580 2 d⁻¹; Barnes et al., 2006) mean CH₄ emission rate from Sundarbans mangrove environment is





- approximately 2.99 times lower; representing partial impact of this mangrove system towardsearth's global warming as well as climate change scenario.
- 3. Atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratio in 10 m and 20 m heights of the forest atmosphere were 2.038
 and 1.987 ppmv, respectively having mean of 2.013 ppmv. Extrapolating over entire Sundarbans
 up to the height of atmospheric boundary layer (811.7 m), atmosphere stands as a reservoir pool
 of 11.2 GgCH₄.
- 4. The annual mean mangrove biosphere atmosphere CH_4 exchange flux was 0.086 mg m⁻² d⁻¹ and the former when multiplied by the total forest area of the Sundarbans yields that this tropical mangrove ecosystem annually acts as source for 0.30 GgCH₄ to the regional atmosphere (about 2.75% of total CH_4 input from water & sediment surfaces).
- 5. Total CH_4 photo-oxidation in the forest atmosphere up to height of atmospheric boundary layer 591 was 9.26 Ggyr⁻¹ with a mean rate of 3.25 x 10^{-9} mg cm⁻³ d⁻¹. Compare to total CH₄ supply to the 592 forest atmosphere, about 85% is photo-oxidized within atmospheric boundary layer of 593 594 Sundarbans and is recognized as major atmospheric CH₄ removal pathway. The photo-oxidation mediated depletion of CH₄ is highly significant in atmospheric chemistry producing byproducts 595 like HCHO, O₃ depending upon ambient NO_x level. Balancing total atmospheric sources and 596 597 sinks, annually 1.33Gg CH₄ remains unbalanced in the atmosphere, which enriches regional atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratio. 598

599 **5. Conclusion:**





CH₄ production potential within 25 cm depth of the forest sediment is 21.75 Ggyr⁻¹ and pore water CH₄ 600 concentration was 3541 nM. CH₄ fluxes across intertidal sediment – atmosphere interface acts as major 601 602 sink for produced CH_4 in intertidal sediment over surface layer CH_4 oxidation and advective CH_4 603 transport to estuary. The process of methanogenesis is totally restricted within estuarine water column 604 and is supplied from adjacent mangrove forest ecosystem and underlying sediment of the estuary. 605 Advective flux being 20 times higher than diffusive flux acts as major source for CH₄ to the estuary. CH₄ oxidation, being 14 times higher than water - atmosphere exchange, is considered the principal 606 607 CH₄ removal mechanism in this estuary. Total annual CH₄ emission from sediment and water surfaces 608 of the Sundarbans mangrove biosphere was 10.89Gg, of which sediment is the principal contributor (99.17%). Compare to total CH₄ supply to the atmosphere, about 85% is photo-oxidized within 609 610 atmospheric boundary layer of Sundarbans and 2.75% is transported to the upper atmosphere through 611 biosphere – atmosphere CH_4 exchange flux.

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- 758 Table 1: Seasonal variation of CH₄ production potential and pore water CH₄ concentrations in
- 759 intertidal and sub-tidal sediments. Here, T = soil surface temperature; S = pore water salinity;
- 760 [CH₄]_(PI) = CH₄ production potential in intertidal sediment; IS = intertidal sediment; SS = sub-
- 761 tidal sediment.

Season	T (°C)	S	Depth (cm)	[CH ₄] _(PI) (µmol m ⁻³ d ⁻¹)	[CH ₄] _(IS) (µM)	[CH4] (SS) (µM)
		-	0-5	ND	2292	2770 ± 1039
			5 - 10	214.99	2313	
Premonsoon	28.36 ±1.02	28.88 ± 0.13	10 – 15	2088.67	2334	
			15 – 20	2918.89	3804	
			20 - 25	4290.22	5274	
			0-5	ND	1881	3110 ± 1023
			5 - 10	823.58	2155	
Monsoon	28.01 ± 0.41	22.55 ± 0.31	10 – 15	3539.90	2429	
			15 – 20	4373.44	4508	
			20 - 25	5850.478	6587	
	-	-	0-5	ND	2246	3980 ± 1227
			5 - 10	1175.56	2319	
Postmonsoon	18.25 ± 0.22	25.98 ± 0.45	10 – 15	4033.30	2413	
			15 – 20	5903.10	4542	
			20 - 25	7352.94	6670	





762 Table 2: Results of multiple regression analysis between pore water CH₄ concentrations, E_h, NO₂,

	CO^{2} ANG 1 COO COO
/63	SO_4 , AVS and organic carbon (OC) concentration.

Predictor	Coef	SE Coef	Т	Р
Constant	10.601	2.921	3.63	0.005
$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{h}}$	-0.018447	0.009074	-2.03	0.013
NO ₂	-0.12277	0.05477	-2.24	0.052
SO ₄ ²⁻	- 0.00764	0.01454	-0.53	0.612
AVS	- 0.06933	0.04129	-1.68	0.127
%OC	- 4.086	1.086	-3.76	0.004

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769 Table 3: Results of multiple regression analysis between surface layer CH₄ oxidation potential

770 ([CH₄]_(ox)) vs. NH_4^+ & NO_3^- concentrations.

-	Predictor	Coef	SE Coef	Т	Р	-
-	Constant	1.6338	0.3253	5.02	0.015	-
	$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	-0.3065	0.1362	-2.25	0.110	
	NO ₃ ⁻	0.2930	0.1285	2.28	0.107	
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779 Table 4: Seasonal variation of dissolved CH₄ concentrations, physicochemical and biological

780 parameters of estuarine water.

Properties	Parameters	Position	Premonsoon	Monsoon	Postmonsoon
		Surface	54.20 ± 5.06	64.58 ± 10.56	90.91 ± 21.20
	[CH ₄] (nM)	Bottom	47.28 ± 12.85	53.27±19.47	67.97 ± 33.12
		Surface	29.99 ± 0.97	27.82 ± 0.26	19.88 ± 0.18
Physical property	Temperature (°C)	Bottom	28.79 ± 0.07	26.92 ± 0.62	19.08 ± 0.78
property	S _D (cm)		62.3 ± 13.1	29.7 ± 7.8	75.9 ± 7.7
		Surface	27.09 ± 0.59	19.06 ± 4.33	22.33 ± 0.81
	Salinity	Bottom	26.88 ± 0.15	18.87 ± 0.33	22.14 ± 0.65
Chemical		Surface	6.53 ± 0.29	6.04 ± 0.73	7.27 ± 1.14
properties	$DO (mg L^{-1})$	Bottom	5.83 ± 0.37	5.41 ± 0.03	5.98 ± 0.79
	рН	Surface	8.17 ± 0.16	8.10 ± 0.03	8.15 ± 0.06
	Chl ($\mu g L^{-1}$)	Surface	5.30 ± 0.19	3.11 ± 0.39	7.88 ± 1.90
Biological	$P (mg C m^{-2} hr^{-1})$	Surface	56.9 ± 7.1	48.2 ± 8.0	88.0 ± 18.6
properties	$R (mg C m^{-2} hr^{-1})$	Surface	125.0 ± 100	102.8 ± 116.7	110.1 ± 65.6

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- 784 Table 5: Results of multiple regression analysis between [CH₄] and temperature (T) (^oC), pH,
- 785 chlorophyll (Chl) (µg L⁻¹), dissolved oxygen (DO) (mg L⁻¹), productivity and community
- 786 **respiration ratio** (**P** / **R**).

Predictor	Coef	SE Coef	Τ	Р
Constant	-296.8	986.5	-0.30	0.792
Т	-0.140	2.178	-0.06	0.955
рН	57.6	103.1	0.56	0.633
Chl	2.688	5.801	0.46	0.689
DO	-19.13	28.82	-0.66	0.575
P/R	8.50	61.86	0.14	0.903

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- 792 Table 6: Results of multiple regression analysis between dissolved methane consumption rate
- 793 ([CH₄]_{DOX}) vs. water temperature (T), salinity (S), dissolved oxygen (DO), DIN, net heterotrophy
- 794 (P/R) and secchi disc depth (S_d).

Predictor	Coef	SE Coef	Т	Р
Constant	-65.85	22.24	-2.96	0.031
Т	0.7561	0.6142	1.23	0.273
S	2.1752	0.4949	4.40	0.007
DO	7.528	2.868	2.62	0.047
DIN	-0.4082	0.3686	-1.11	0.318
P/R	-2.012	2.938	-0.68	0.524
S _d	-0.30365	0.09738	-3.12	0.026

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799 Table 7: Seasonal variation of micrometeorological parameters, methane mixing ratio, biosphere

800 – atmosphere CH₄ exchange and CH₄ photo-oxidation in mangrove forest atmosphere.

Parameters	Height(m)	Premonsoon	Monsoon	Postmonsoon
	10	30.34 ± 0.91	29.74 ± 2.50	17.34 ± 4.09
Air temp. (°C)	20	29.73 ± 1.13	28.37 ± 0.88	16.17 ± 1.80
	10	0.70 ± 0.42	1.32 ± 1.11	0.41 ± 0.36
Wind velocity(ms ⁻¹)	20	0.95 ± 0.44	1.64 ± 1.37	0.80 ± 0.88
U* (m/sec)		0.20 ± 0.04	0.15 ± 0.15	0.17 ± 0.49
$Z_{o}\left(m ight)$		3.77 ± 3.01	1.63 ± 1.02	2.97 ± 2.98
C _{D(10m)}		0.386	0.157	0.167
H (W m ⁻²)		6.349	8.248	1.154
PBL (m)		936.59	702.45	796.10
	10	1.769 ± 0.04	2.180 ± 0.12	2.112 ± 0.05
CH ₄ (ppmv)	20	1.821 ± 0.09	2.027 ± 0.03	2.116 ± 0.06
$F_{BA}(mg m^{-2} hr^{-1})$		- 4.514	6.635	-2.110
				10
[CH ₄] _{photo-ox rate} (molecules cm ⁻³ d ⁻¹)	10	$1.40 \ge 10^{11}$	1.67×10^{11}	6.05 x 10 ¹⁰





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803 Fig.1: Schematic diagram of atmospheric CH₄ photooxidation with/without NO_x concentration.







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Fig.2: Map showing locations of the study point.













Fig.3: Vertical variation of physicochemical properties of mangrove sediment (A) E_h (B) pore water
sulphate – S concentration (C) % organic carbon (D) pore water AVS concentration







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Fig.4: Seasonal variation of advective and diffusive CH₄ fluxes from intertidal and subtidal sediments,





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Fig.6: Monthly variation of soil methane emission from intertidal mangrove forest.

Fig.7: Monthly variation of physicochemical parameters along with dissolved methane concentrations,methane oxidation and air-water methane exchange flux.

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Fig.8: (A) Monthly variation of methane mixing ratio in forest atmosphere (B) Diurnal variation of methane mixing ratio in forest atmosphere (C) Monthly variation of biosphere-atmosphere methane exchange flux.

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Fig.9: Quantitative methane budget at Sundarbans mangrove ecosystem.