

1 **Changes in sediment methanogenic archaea community structure and**
2 **methane production potential following conversion of coastal marsh to**
3 **aquaculture ponds**

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23 **ABSTRACT**

24 Widespread conversion of coastal wetlands into aquaculture ponds in the Chinese
25 coastal region often results in degradation of the wetland ecosystems, but its effects on
26 sediment's potential to produce greenhouse gases remain unclear. Using field sampling,
27 incubation experiments and molecular analysis, we studied the sediment CH₄
28 production potential and the relevant microbial communities in a brackish marsh and
29 the nearby aquaculture ponds in the Min River Estuary in southeastern China. Sediment
30 CH₄ production potential was higher in the summer and autumn months than in spring
31 and winter months, and it was best correlated with sediment carbon content among all
32 environmental variables. The mean sediment CH₄ production potential in the
33 aquaculture ponds (20.1 ng g⁻¹ d⁻¹) was significantly lower than that in the marsh (45.2
34 ng g⁻¹ d⁻¹). While *Methanobacterium* dominated in both habitats (41-59%), the overall
35 composition of sediment methanogenic archaea communities differed significantly
36 between the two habitats ($p < 0.05$) and methanogenic archaea alpha diversity was lower
37 in the aquaculture ponds ($p < 0.01$). Network analysis revealed that interactions between
38 sediment methanogenic archaea were much weaker in the ponds than in the marsh.
39 Overall, these findings suggest that conversion of marsh land to aquaculture ponds
40 significantly altered the sediment methanogenic archaea community structure and
41 diversity and lowered the sediment's capacity to produce CH₄.

42 *Keywords:* Methane production; Methanogenic archaea; Network analysis; Land-use
43 and land coverage change (LULCC); Coastal wetlands; Aquaculture systems

44 **1. Introduction**

45 Methane (CH₄) has a 45-times higher mass-specific global warming potential than
46 carbon dioxide (CO₂) over a 100-year period (Neubauer and Megonigal, 2015), and it
47 contributes to approximately 20% of the global radiative forcing (IPCC, 2013). The
48 average atmospheric CH₄ concentration reached 1875 ppbv in 2019 (National Oceanic
49 and Atmospheric Administration, 2020), exceeding the pre-industrial levels by about
50 150%. Aquatic CH₄ is primarily produced in sediments by methanogenic archaea during
51 the terminal step of organic diagenesis under anaerobic conditions (Gruca-Rokosz et al.,
52 2020; Lai, 2009; Lofton et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2019). Land use and land cover change
53 (LULCC) can lead to changes in hydrology, nutrient cycles, sediment properties and
54 overall ecosystem functions (Andretta et al., 2016; Dick and Osunkoya, 2000; Liu et al.,
55 2021), and has been shown to be a major driver of anthropogenic CH₄ emissions in
56 terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems (Chen et al., 2021; IPCC, 2013; Reay et al., 2018; Tan
57 et al., 2020).

58 Coastal wetlands, located at the interface between the terrestrial and marine
59 environments, are sites of intense biological production (Chmura et al., 2003; Han et al.,
60 2014; Doroski et al., 2019). LULCC has increasing impacts on coastal wetlands (Hao et
61 al., 2020; Liu and Mo, 2016) and has already caused degradation or loss of about 50% of
62 the world's coastal wetlands (Barbier et al., 2011). China (Sun et al., 2015) and the wider
63 Asia-Pacific region (Romañach et al., 2018) are experiencing among the worst wetland
64 degradation due to continuous population and economic growth, rapid urbanization and
65 infrastructure development. It is estimated that 27% of the available wetland area in the
66 Asia has been drained or converted to farmland for intensive food production (Huang et
67 al., 2010), and the conversion of coastal wetlands to aquaculture ponds is particularly

68 widespread in China (Ren et al., 2019, Duan et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2019). The change
69 from temporarily water-logged coastal wetlands to continuously flooded ponds can
70 strongly affect sediment physicochemical properties and the subsequent CH₄
71 biogeochemical processes, but the relevant scientific data are rare.

72 We compared the sediment physicochemical properties, CH₄ production potentials
73 and metagenomics of the methanogenic archaea communities between a coastal marsh
74 and an area that had been converted to aquaculture ponds in southeastern China. Network
75 analysis is a tool to examine changes in property and connectivity within a biological
76 community (Barberán et al., 2012; Banerjee et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021a; Zhou et al.,
77 2020), including soil microbial communities (Chen et al., 2019; Qiu et al., 2021). Here,
78 we applied network analysis to the metagenomics data to characterize differences in the
79 sediment methanogenic archaea community between marsh land and aquaculture ponds.
80 This study helped us understand the effects of LULCC on sediment methanogenic
81 archaea community, its CH₄ production potential and related climate impact.

82 **2. Materials and methods**

83 *2.1. Study area*

84 The Shanyutan Wetland (26°00'36"–26°03'42" N, 119°34'12"–119°40'40" E),
85 located at the mouth of the Min River Estuary in southeastern China (Figure 1), has a
86 subtropical monsoonal climate with an annual average temperature of 19.6 °C and
87 precipitation of 135 cm (Yang et al., 2017a). The semidiurnal tidal range is 0.1–1.5 m
88 (Tong et al., 2018); the average salinity is 4.2±2.5 parts per thousand (ppt) (Yang et al.,
89 2019a). Aquaculture shrimp ponds, common in the area, were reclaimed from nearby
90 marsh land in 2011 by removing the vegetation (predominantly *Cyperus malaccensis*)
91 and re-profiling the bunds into steep slopes (Powell et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2020a).

92 These ponds cover approximately 30% of the total area of the Shanyutan Wetland. Details
93 about the aquaculture pond system and the management practices can be found in [Yang
94 et al. \(2017b; 2020b; 2021\)](#). For this study, a brackish *C. malaccensis* marsh stand and
95 three aquaculture ponds were selected ([Figure 1](#)) for sampling between April 2019 and
96 January 2020.

97 2.2. Sediment porewater collection and analysis

98 Within the marsh stand, we established three quadrats (1 m × 1 m) with 2 m spacing.
99 Sediment porewater was sampled by *in situ* dialysis ([Ding et al., 2003; Strack and
100 Waddington, 2008; Tong et al., 2018](#)). Three screened (Biotrans™ 0.2 μm nylon
101 membrane, [Tong et al., 2018](#)) PVC tubes (5 cm inner diameter) extending 15 cm into the
102 sediment were permanently installed in each quadrat, leaving a 5-cm protrusion above
103 the sediment surface. The top of each tube was sealed when submerged and was only
104 opened during neap tides for extracting the porewater ([Yang et al., 2019b](#)).

105 Sediment cores (15 cm length) were collected from three sites in each aquaculture
106 pond using a steel sediment sampler (internal diameter 5 cm). Porewater was extracted
107 from the pond sediment by centrifugation (4,000 rpm, 10 min Hereaus Omnifuge 2000
108 RS) ([Matos et al., 2016](#)).

109 Field sampling were carried out monthly from April 2019 to January 2020. All samples
110 were stored in an ice box and transported to the laboratory within 6 h. Approximately 50
111 mL of each porewater sample was filtered through a 0.45 μm filter (Biotrans™ nylon
112 membranes) ([De Vittor et al., 2012](#)), and the filtrate was analyzed for the concentrations
113 of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), Cl⁻¹ and SO₄²⁻. Porewater DOC concentrations were
114 determined by a Shimadzu TOC-V_{CPH/CPN} analyzer (Kyoto, Japan). Porewater Cl⁻¹ and
115 SO₄²⁻ concentrations were measured by a Dionex 2100 ion chromatograph.

116 2.3. Sediment sampling and physicochemical properties

117 During each sampling campaign, triplicate surface sediment samples (top 15 cm)
118 were collected from the aforementioned locations with a steel sediment sampler (internal
119 diameter 5 cm) and transferred into ziplock bags. All sediment samples were stored in an
120 ice box and transported to the laboratory within 6 h. In the laboratory, the triplicate
121 sediment samples from each site were used respectively for incubation experiment,
122 measurement of sediment physicochemical properties, and analysis of sediment
123 microorganisms. Sediment temperature (T_s) and electrical conductivity (EC) were
124 measured *in situ* using a handheld temperature meter (IQ150, IQ Scientific Instruments,
125 USA) and a 2265FS EC meter (Spectrum Technologies, USA), respectively.

126 In the laboratory, the sediment samples were diluted with deionized water before
127 measuring sediment pH (Orion 868 pH meter, USA; sediment-to-water ratio 1:2.5 w/v)
128 and salinity (Eutech Instruments-Salt6 salinity meter, USA; sediment-to-water ratio 1:5
129 w/v) (Liu et al., 2021b); readings were subsequently corrected for the dilution effects. A
130 subsample of the sediment was freeze-dried, homogenized and then ground to a fine
131 powder for measuring total carbon (TC) and total nitrogen (TN) by an elemental analyzer
132 (Elementar Vario MAX CN, Germany). Another subsample was weighed, oven-dried for
133 48 hours, then re-weighed to obtain the moisture content.

134 2.4. Illumina sequencing and bioinformatics analysis

135 Triplicate sediment samples collected from the marsh and each of the aquaculture
136 ponds in May, August, October and January were used for metagenomics, giving a total
137 of 12 samples for the marsh and 36 samples for the aquaculture ponds. The 16S rRNA
138 gene for methanogenic archaea was combined with adaptor sequences and barcode
139 sequences in PCR amplification using the primer pair 1106F

140 (TTWAGTCAGGCAACGAGC) and 1378R (TGTGCAAGGAGCAGGGAC) (Li et al.,
141 2021). For each of the 48 sediment DNA samples, the PCR was performed in triplicate
142 and the PCR products were pooled subsequently. Afterward, the amplicons were
143 extracted in 2% agarose gels and purified using the AxyPrep DNA Gel Extraction Kit
144 (Axygen, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions, and quantified using
145 QuantiFluor™-ST (Promega, U.S.). Purified amplicons were pooled equimolar and
146 paired-end sequenced (2×250) on Illumina MiSeq PE300 platform by the standard
147 protocols. The processing of raw fastq files followed previous study (Ye et al., 2021).
148 Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) were classified as clusters with 97% similarity
149 cutoff using the Ribosomal Database Project (RDP) classifier within the SILVA database
150 (Quast et al., 2013). To ensure OTU data compatibility between samples, sequences were
151 rarefied to the lowest number of reads. The alpha diversity indices, including Chao1
152 index, OTU richness, phylogenetic diversity index and Shannon index were calculated
153 using QIIME software (Caporaso et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2015). OTUs affiliated to
154 methanogenic archaea were selected for network analysis (section 2.6).

155 2.5. Sediment CH₄ production potential

156 Anaerobic incubation experiments were conducted to measure sediment CH₄
157 production potential (Bodmer et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2011; Inglett et al., 2012; Minick et
158 al., 2021). Approximately 30 g of each sediment sample was put into a 200 mL glass
159 incubation bottle and *in situ* water was added in 1:1 v/v to make a slurry with 160 mL
160 headspace. Before the start of incubation, the bottles were flushed with pure nitrogen gas
161 (N₂) for 5–8 min to create an anoxic condition (Wassmann et al., 1998; Vizza et al., 2017;
162 Zhou et al., 2022). The bottles were then incubated at *in situ* temperature (14–30 °C) for
163 15 days. We collected 5 mL gas samples from the headspace with a syringe every two
164 days over the incubation period (total 8 times). For each gas sampling, 5 mL of pure N₂

165 gas was added back into the incubation bottles to maintain the pressure. The extracted
166 gas samples were analyzed for CH₄ on a gas chromatograph equipped with a flame
167 ionization detector (GC-2010, Shimadzu, Japan). Sediment CH₄ production potential was
168 calculated from the increase in headspace CH₄ concentration in each incubation bottle
169 (corrected for dilution effect from the added N₂) over the 15-day period with the
170 following Eq. (1) (Wassmann et al., 1998):

$$PP = \frac{dc}{dt} \cdot \frac{M_M \times V_H \times P_A}{R \times W_S} \cdot \frac{T_{ST}}{T_{ST} + T} \quad (\text{Eq.1})$$

171
172 where PP is the sediment CH₄ production potential [$\mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ g}^{-1}$ (dry weight) day^{-1}]; dc/dt
173 is the rate of change in headspace CH₄ in the incubation bottle over time ($\text{mmol mol}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$);
174 M_M is the molar mass (g mol^{-1}) of CH₄ (g); V_H is the volume of serum bottles headspace
175 (L); P_A is the atmospheric pressure (kPa); R is the gas constant ($\text{m}^3 \text{ Pa } ^\circ\text{K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$); W_S is
176 the dry weight of soil sample (g); T_{ST} and T are the standard temperature ($^\circ\text{K}$) and the
177 incubation temperature ($^\circ\text{K}$), respectively. The sediment dry weight was estimated from
178 the sample wet weight and its moisture content (see section 2.3).

179 2.6. Data analysis

180 Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) analysis was done in RStudio using
181 the Bray-Curtis similarity matrix calculated based on OTUs. Analysis of similarities
182 (ANOSIM) was used to assess the community composition differences between the
183 sample groups. The ANOSIM R statistic value of “0” indicates completely random
184 grouping, and “1” indicates a complete separation between sample groups. In addition,
185 permutation multivariate analysis of variance (PerMANOVA) was performed to test for
186 significant differences between the sample groups using the R “vegan” package (Chen et
187 al., 2019), with Bray-Curtis distance and 999 permutations.

188 The associations between predictor index (sediment properties and microbial diversity)

189 and CH₄ production potential were evaluated by Random Forest Analysis (RFA), using
190 the “RandomForest” package in R. RFA evaluated the importance of each predictor by
191 determining how much the mean square error (MSE) increased. For this study, the
192 significance of both the model and each predictor was assessed with the “rfPermute”
193 packages. The differences in sediment CH₄ production potential and environmental
194 variables between the marsh and the aquaculture ponds were tested by repeated measures
195 ANOVA analysis followed by *Tukey’s* posthoc test. Statistical analyses were conducted
196 in SPSS 17.0 (SPSS Inc., USA). All results were presented as the mean ± standard error.

197 To reduce the complexity of the data sets for network analysis, OTUs present in
198 more than eight samples with relative abundance greater than 0.1% were retained for the
199 construction of networks. Subsequently, all possible pairwise Spearman’s rank
200 correlations (*r*) between those OTUs were calculated within the “Hsmic” R package.
201 Species co-occurrences were included in the networks only where correlations between
202 species were robust ($r^2 > 0.49$) and statistically significant ($p < 0.01$, adjusted by FDR).
203 Network visualization and modular analysis were done in Gephi version 0.9.1 platform,
204 with nodes representing OTUs, edges indicating correlations between two OTUs, and
205 degrees indicating the sum of edges that connect with other nodes. Sub-networks for each
206 sample were extracted by preserving the topological parameters of individual sediment
207 samples, using the “induced_subgraph” function in the “igraph” package in R (Ma et al.,
208 2016). Thereafter, we calculated the connectivity for the subnetworks within each habitat.
209 Statistical differences in measured node-level attributes between the two habitats were
210 tested by nonparametric Mann–Whitney U test.

211 **Results**

212 *3.1. Physicochemical properties of sediment*

213 The marsh and the aquaculture ponds differed substantially in sediment properties
214 (Figure 2). The mean sediment T_s , salinity and EC in the marsh was 24.70 ± 0.85 °C,
215 6.69 ± 0.63 ‰ and 4.71 ± 0.51 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$, respectively, all significantly higher than the
216 corresponding values in the pond sediment (20.42 ± 0.62 °C, 2.51 ± 0.16 ‰ and $2.36 \pm$
217 0.15 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$; ANOVA, $p < 0.05$ or < 0.01 ; Figure 2a, c, d). The sediment TC and TN
218 contents in the marsh were 20.18 ± 1.78 g kg^{-1} and 1.34 ± 0.09 g kg^{-1} , respectively, which
219 were significantly higher than those in the pond sediment (TC: 16.51 ± 1.33 g kg^{-1} and
220 TN: 0.70 ± 0.07 g kg^{-1} ; ANOVA, $p < 0.05$; Figure 2e, f). Furthermore, the porewater DOC
221 concentration and Cl^- concentration were also significantly higher in the marsh than in
222 the ponds (DOC: 18.27 ± 0.80 vs 6.83 ± 0.86 mg L^{-1} ; Cl^- : 5436 ± 676 vs 2690 ± 345 mg
223 L^{-1} ; ANOVA, $p < 0.01$; Figure 2g, h). There were no significant differences in sediment
224 pH (6.72 ± 0.12 vs 6.75 ± 0.04 ; Figure 2b) or porewater SO_4^{2-} concentration ($935.24 \pm$
225 98.61 mg L^{-1} vs 780.38 ± 78.51 mg L^{-1} ; Figure 2i) between the two habitats (ANOVA,
226 $p > 0.05$). The seasonal values of physicochemical parameters of the sediments are shown
227 in Figure S1.

228 3.2. Diversity and compositions of sediment methanogenic archaea communities

229 The diversity of sediment methanogenic archaea communities in the marsh and the
230 aquaculture ponds were evaluated in terms of OTU richness, Chao1, phylogenetic
231 diversity and Shannon indices (Figure 3). The alpha diversity was significantly lower in
232 the aquaculture ponds than in the marsh by all measures ($p < 0.05$, < 0.01 or < 0.001 ;
233 Figure 3).

234 The top 10 genera of methanogenic archaea in the samples are shown in Figure 4a.
235 In the marsh sediment, the methanogenic archaea community was dominated by
236 *Methanobacterium* (58.6%), followed by *Methanosphaera* (13.1%), *Methanocella*

237 (7.0%), *Methanosarcina* (6.5%) and *Methanlobus* (3.1%). In the pond sediment, the
238 methanogenic archaea community was dominated by *Methanobacterium* (40.6%),
239 followed by *Methanosphaera* (17.2%), *Methanosarcina* (13.8%) and *Methanocella*
240 (10.5%). NMDS analysis revealed a significant ($p < 0.001$) difference in sediment
241 methanogenic archaea community compositions between the two habitats (Figure 4b).

242 3.3. Co-occurrence networks of sediment methanogenic archaea

243 Networks of the methanogenic archaea were constructed at the OTU level across all
244 sediment samples. The network consisted of 215 nodes linked by 928 edges (Figure 5).
245 Furthermore, we compared the microbial network complexity between the two habitats
246 based on their node-level topological features: Significantly lower node number (Figure
247 6a) and degree (Figure 6b) values were found in the aquaculture ponds than in the marsh
248 ($p < 0.001$), suggesting a lower complexity of the sediment microbial community
249 network in the aquaculture ponds. Concurrently, network complexity both in terms of
250 node number and degree was strongly correlated ($p < 0.05$) with CH₄ production potential
251 (Figure 6c and 6d).

252 3.4. Sediment CH₄ production potential

253 The monthly sediment CH₄ production potential ranged from $3.34 \pm 0.66 \text{ ng g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$
254 to $134.16 \pm 28.35 \text{ ng g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in the marsh and from $3.38 \pm 0.86 \text{ ng g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ to 52.74 ± 11.40
255 $\text{ng g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in the aquaculture ponds (Figure 7). The mean value for the marsh ($45.21 \pm$
256 $12.73 \text{ ng g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) was significantly higher than that for the aquaculture ponds ($20.14 \pm$
257 $5.59 \text{ ng g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) ($F_{df=1}=7.251, p=0.009$). When comparing across seasons, the CH₄
258 production potential in both habitats were substantially higher in summer and autumn
259 than in spring and winter (Figure S2).

260 Pearson correlation analysis showed that the sediment CH₄ production potential was

261 not correlated with pH in either habitat (Table 1), but it was positively correlated with Ts,
262 TC and DOC concentration (also TN in marsh sediment), and negatively with salinity,
263 EC, Cl⁻ concentration and SO₄²⁻ concentration (Table 1). Furthermore, positive
264 correlations were found between sediment CH₄ production potential and all four
265 measures of alpha diversity of sediment methanogenic archaea across the two habitats (p
266 < 0.01; [Figure S3](#)).

267 Based on the result of RFA, sediment TC, porewater SO₄²⁻ concentration, Ts and
268 methanogenic archaea richness were the variables that best explained the variations in
269 sediment CH₄ production potential, of which TC accounted for the highest percentage
270 ([Figure 8](#)).

271 **4. Discussion**

272 *4.1. Temporal patterns of CH₄ production potential in marsh sediment*

273 Our results showed that CH₄ production potential in marsh sediment was
274 significantly higher in the summer and autumn ([Figure S2](#)), similar to the observations
275 in other wetlands (e.g., [Bergman et al., 2000](#); [Tong et al., 2012](#); [Vizza et al., 2017](#)). Other
276 researchers have attributed this to the seasonal variations in temperature that drive the
277 production of substrate precursors and microbial activity ([Zogg et al., 1997](#); [Bergman et](#)
278 [al., 2000](#); [Gudasz et al., 2010](#); [Inglett et al., 2012](#)). Similarly, we also found that Ts, TC
279 and porewater DOC concentration were all higher in summer and autumn ([Figure S1](#)),
280 and they were all significantly and positively correlated with sediment CH₄ production
281 potential ([Table 1](#)).

282 Salinity was another important driver of the seasonal variability of sediment CH₄
283 production potential. Significant effects of saltwater have been observed in coastal
284 marshes in several studies showing decreased sediment CH₄ production as salinity

285 increased (e.g., [Baldwin et al., 2006](#); [Minick et al., 2019](#); [Vizza et al., 2017](#)). Salt water
286 intrusion increases the availability of the more energetically favorable terminal electron
287 acceptor such as SO_4^{2-} in the sediment, which allows sulfate-reducing bacteria to
288 outcompete methanogens (e.g., [Bridgham et al., 2013](#); [Chambers et al., 2013](#); [Dang et al.,](#)
289 [2019](#); [Neubauer et al., 2013](#); [Poffenberger et al., 2011](#)). This may explain the negative
290 correlations of sediment CH_4 production potential with salinity, SO_4^{2-} concentration, EC
291 and Cl^- concentration ([Table 1](#)), and why sediment CH_4 production potentials in the two
292 habitats were significantly higher in the summer months when saltwater influence was
293 weakened ([Figure S1c, d, h](#)) by high precipitation and runoff ([Figure S4](#)).

294 Across our sampling period, the sediment CH_4 production potentials averaged 45.2
295 $\text{ng g}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ (marsh) and 20.1 $\text{ng g}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ (aquaculture ponds). These values were much lower
296 than that of eutrophic sediments ([Berberich et al., 2020](#)), but comparable to that of oligo-
297 to meso-trophic sediments ([Fuchs et al., 2016](#)), and they are within the range reported for
298 similar habitats ([Tong et al., 2015](#)).

299 *4.2. Changes in sediment methanogenic archaea community structures*

300 Previous studies have shown that the composition and functionality of soil and
301 sediment microbiota are sensitive to anthropogenic disturbances and environmental
302 changes (e.g., [Bragazza et al., 2013](#); [Peltoniemi et al., 2016](#); [Hellman et al., 2019](#); [Cui et](#)
303 [al., 2021](#)). In the present study, we assessed the effect of LULCC by comparing the
304 sediment methanogenic archaea community composition and CH_4 production potential
305 between a brackish marsh and the nearby area that had been converted to aquaculture
306 ponds. An interesting finding was that the sediment methanogenic archaea community
307 was significantly less diverse in the ponds than in the marsh ([Figure 3](#)), indicating that
308 the land conversion negatively impacted some of the sediment methanogenic archaea.

309 Conversion of the marsh to aquaculture ponds also affected the dominant
310 methanogenic archaea taxa at the genus level. *Methanobacterium* was by far the most
311 abundant (ca. 59%) in the marsh sediment, followed by *Methanosphaera* (Figure 4a). In
312 pond sediment, *Methanobacterium* was also prevalent but less dominant (ca. 41%);
313 *Methanosphaera* and *Methanocella* were also quite abundant. Most notably,
314 *Methanosarcina* formed a higher percentage of the methanogenic archaea community in
315 the ponds than in the marsh (Figure 4a). Among these genera, *Methanobacterium*,
316 *Methanosphaera* and *Methanocella* are hydrogenotrophic methanogens that can utilize
317 both formate and H₂/CO₂ to produce methane (Jeanlouis et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2016),
318 whereas *Methanosarcina* is facultative methanogen that can utilize H₂/CO₂, methyl
319 compounds, and/or acetate to produce methane (Ferry, 2010). Our results therefore
320 suggest that methanogenesis changed from a predominantly hydrogenotrophic pathway
321 in the marsh sediment to a mix of different pathways in the pond sediment.

322 Network analysis has been successfully used to study soil microbial community
323 structures and assess their changes due to disturbances (Barberán et al., 2012; Chen et al.,
324 2019; Qiu et al., 2021). Here, we applied this technique to explore the effects of land
325 conversion on the co-occurrence patterns of sediment methanogenic archaea
326 communities. Our results showed that the marsh sediment had a significantly higher
327 microbial network complexity (Figure 6a and 6b) than the aquaculture pond sediment
328 ($p < 0.001$), suggesting that the methanogenic archaea were more interconnected with one
329 another in the former than in the latter. Taken together, our results indicate that the
330 conversion of marsh land to aquaculture ponds led to a simpler methanogenic archaea
331 community structure, and presumably a lower degree of microbial cooperation in the
332 sediment (Ju et al., 2014) that may have led to lower CH₄ production.

333 4.3. Changes in sediment physicochemical properties

334 RFA results show that the sediment CH₄ production potential was strongly driven
335 by sediment carbon content (TC), which explained nearly 15% of the variations (Figure
336 8). This was followed by sulfate concentration (SO₄²⁻), temperature (T_s) and
337 methanogenic archaea species richness. TC is indicative of substrate availability that
338 fuels methanogenesis (Updegraff et al., 1995; Liu et al., 2011; Song et al., 2021), whereas
339 T_s affects the overall microbial activity (Bergman et al., 2000; Gudas et al., 2010; Inglett
340 et al., 2012), and a higher species richness would allow the methanogenic archaea
341 community to exploit a wider range of ecological niches (Godin et al., 2012). Hence, it
342 is no surprise that these three parameters were positively correlated with CH₄ production
343 potential (Table 1). Sulfate reducers tend to outcompete methanogenic archaea for
344 electron donors (Vizza et al., 2017; dos Santos Fonseca et al., 2019); therefore, higher
345 SO₄²⁻ concentration would lead to a lower CH₄ production potential (Table 1). The
346 differences in these key sediment properties between the marsh and the aquaculture
347 ponds may explain the different CH₄ production potentials observed in the incubation
348 experiments: Pond sediment had lower TC, higher SO₄²⁻ concentration (summer), lower
349 T_s (Figure S1) and lower species richness (Figure 3) than marsh sediment. Consequently,
350 the CH₄ production potential in the pond sediment was only 44% of that in the marsh
351 sediment (Figure 7).

352 4.4. Effects of land conversion on sediment CH₄ production

353 The continuous river flow and periodic tidal flushing within the marsh should
354 increase the dissolved oxygen level that suppresses methanogenic archaea activity,
355 promotes CH₄ oxidation and minimizes CH₄ accumulation within the water column. In
356 contrast, the stagnant nature of the pond water means should favor sediment CH₄
357 production and accumulation, leading to a high emission (Tan et al., 2020; Yang et al.,

358 [2017a](#)). Therefore, the increasing conversion of coastal wetlands to aquaculture ponds
359 raises the concern of changing (increasing) the production and subsequent release of
360 greenhouse gases ([Yuan et al., 2019a](#)). Interestingly, based on incubation experiments,
361 we found that the mean CH₄ production potential in pond sediment was significantly
362 lower than that in marsh sediment.

363 Contrary to the common expectation that use of aquaculture feeds would elevate the
364 sediment carbon content in the ponds, TC was actually higher in the marsh particularly
365 in the summer and autumn ([Figure S1](#)), when most of the CH₄ production occurred
366 ([Figure S2](#)). In addition to carbon supply from marsh vegetation and other autochthonous
367 sources, the marsh also receives nutrients and organics from the Min River, which
368 together can stimulate sediment CH₄ production. The higher water level within the
369 aquaculture ponds may have also buffered the sediment against temperature rise in the
370 summer ([Figure S1](#)), leading to a lower CH₄ production potential. Some of the native
371 microbes in marsh sediment may not be able to adapt to the very different
372 physicochemical environments in the ponds, and the common practice of draining, drying
373 and liming the ponds between farming periods would have further disrupted the sediment
374 microbial community ([Tong et al., 2021](#)). This may explain the overall lower
375 methanogenic archaea diversity ([Figure 3](#)) and less complex community structure in the
376 pond sediment ([Figure 5](#)), and perhaps leads to the lower CH₄ production potential as a
377 result ([Figure 6c and 6d](#)).

378 *4.5. Limitations and future research*

379 Our study examined the effects of conversion of coastal wetland to aquaculture
380 ponds on sediment CH₄ production potential over an annual cycle. Several aspects could
381 be investigated further in future studies. Firstly, coastal LULCC often involves

382 conversion for multiple land-use types rather than a single land-use type (Tan et al., 2020).
383 Therefore, future research may require detailed comparison of multiple habitat types
384 within the same locale. Furthermore, we conducted our study in shrimp ponds, whereas
385 other aquaculture systems and species may induce different microbial communities and
386 different sediment and water biogeochemistry. Comparative studies of different
387 aquaculture practices in different regions would produce a more comprehensive
388 understanding of the overall impacts of the aquaculture industry on climate (MacLeod et
389 al., 2020). While in the present study we only analyzed the sediment methanogenic
390 archaea community compositions, incorporation of isotopic measurements of the gases
391 would shed light on the methanogenic pathways involved (Qin et al., 2020; Yang et al.,
392 2020; Yuan et al., 2019b). Lastly, the apparent contradiction between the observed
393 sediment CH₄ production potentials and the water-to-air CH₄ emission reported earlier
394 need to be resolved by investigating the fate of CH₄ in the water column and the pathways
395 to transport sediment CH₄ to air.

396 **5. Conclusions**

397 Conversion of coastal wetland to aquaculture ponds is widespread in coastal China
398 and is expected to increase in order to meet the rising food demand. This study was the
399 first to show the change in sediment CH₄ production potential and sediment microbial
400 community structure following the conversion of a brackish marsh to aquaculture ponds
401 in subtropical China. Contrary to the common expectation, our results showed that the
402 conversion decreased the sediment methanogenic archaea diversity, disrupted the
403 microbial community structure, and decreased the capacity for CH₄ production in the
404 sediment. These findings point to the need for a more careful consideration when
405 assessing the effects of land use and land cover change on greenhouse gas dynamics.

406 **Declaration of competing interest**

407 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or
408 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this
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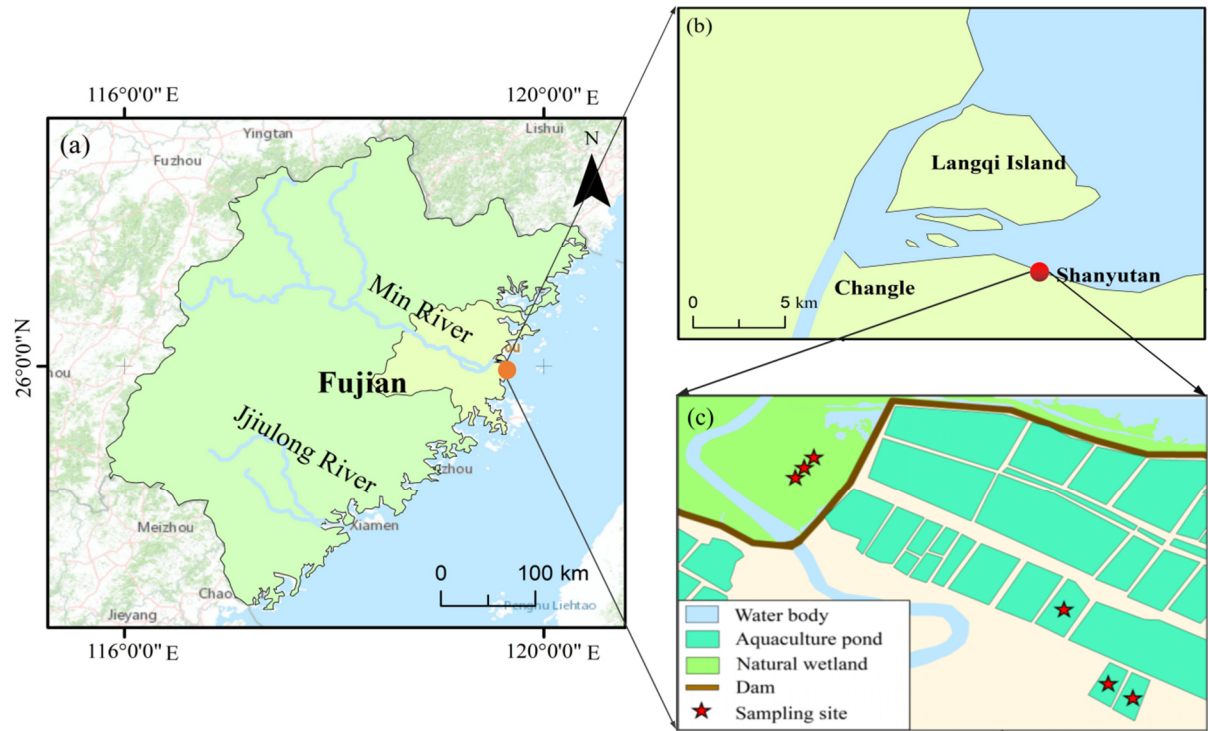
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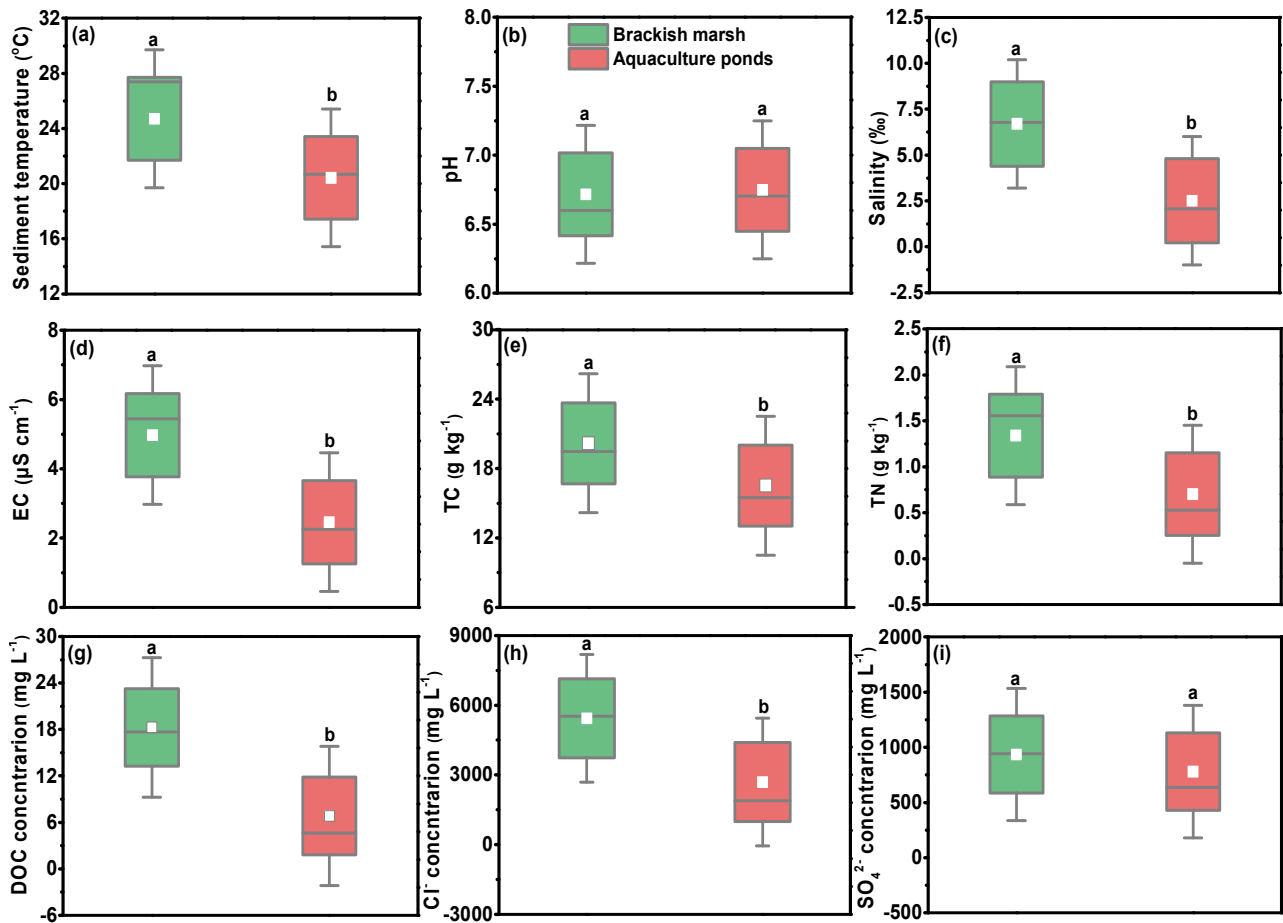
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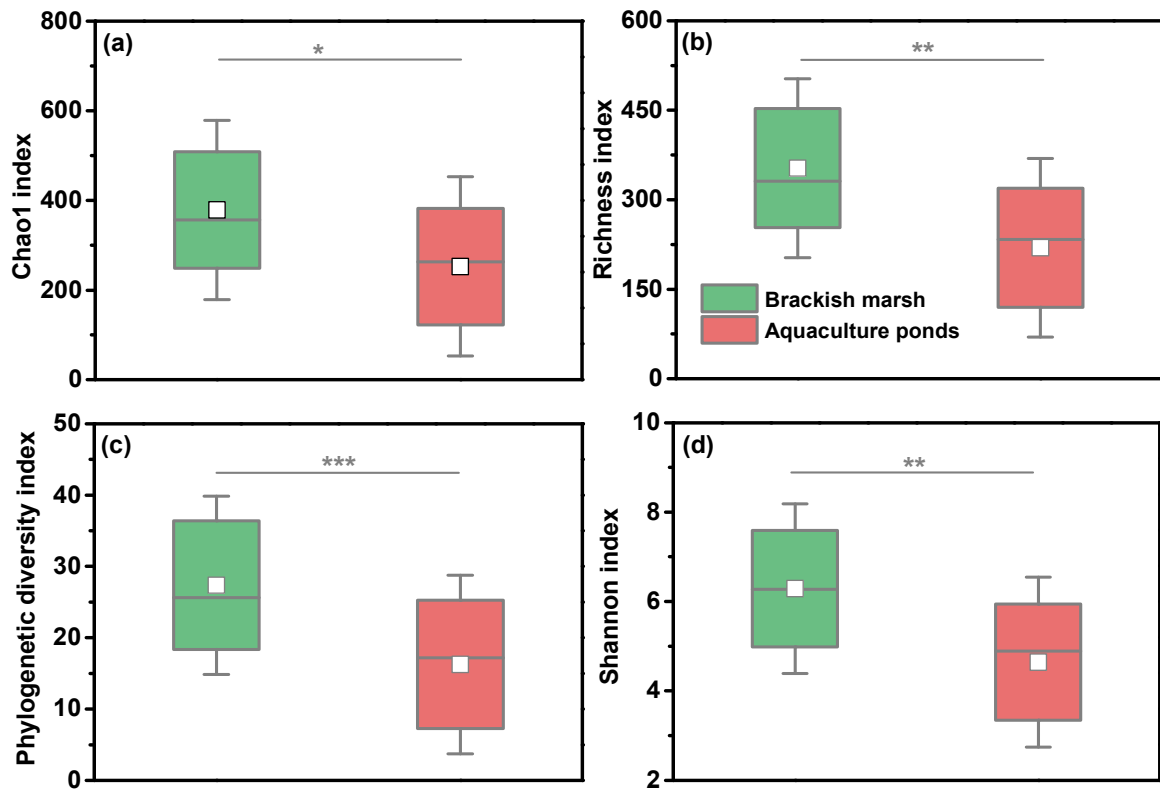
1

2 **Fig. 1.** Location of the brackish *Cyperus malaccensis* marsh and adjacent aquaculture shrimp
 3 ponds in the Min River Estuary, southeastern China.



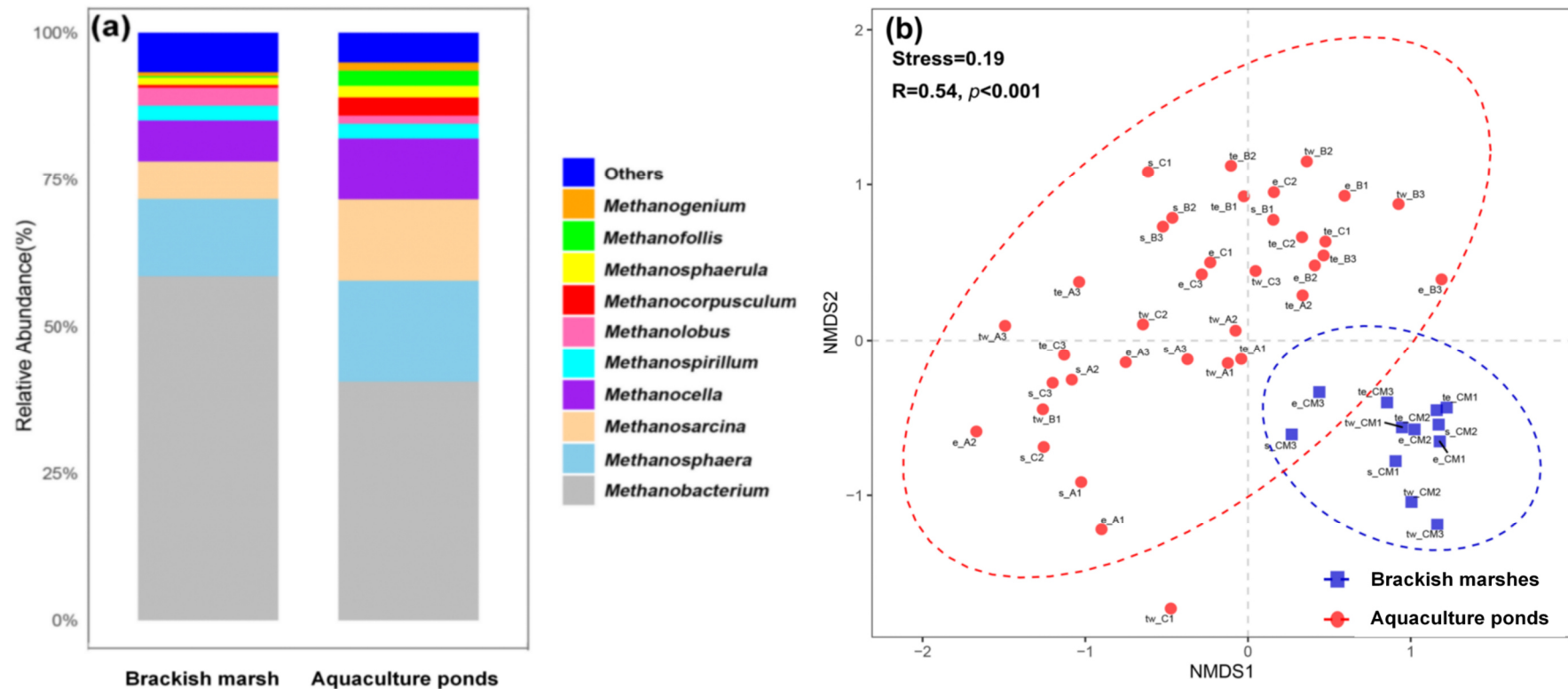
4

5 **Fig. 2.** Boxplots of physicochemical parameters of sediment and porewater from the brackish
 6 marshes and the aquaculture ponds. Each box shows the quartiles and median, while the square and
 7 whiskers represent the mean and values within 1.5 times of the interquartile range, respectively.
 8 Different lowercase letters within each panel indicate significant differences at the $p < 0.05$ level
 9 between the brackish marsh ($n = 30$) and the aquaculture ponds ($n = 90$).

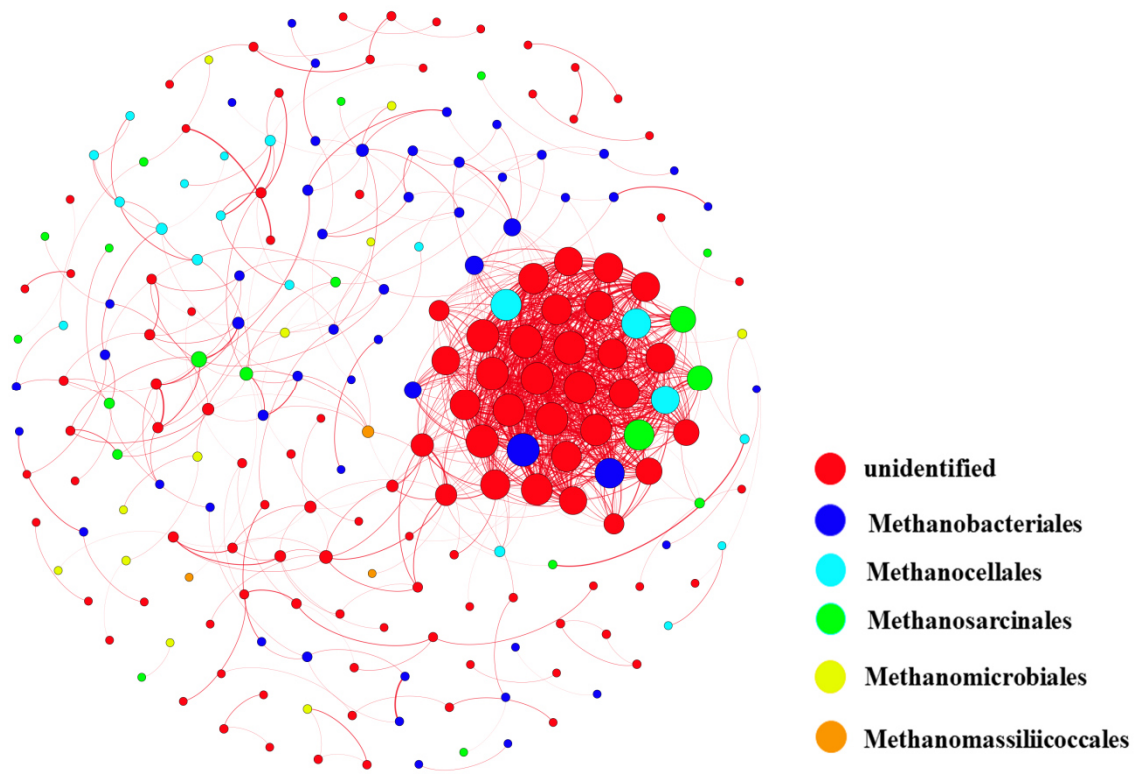


10

11 **Fig. 3.** Boxplots of Alpha diversity indices (i.e., Chao1 (a), Richness (b), Phylogenetic
 12 diversity (c), and Shannon (d)) of the sediment methanogenic archaea communities in the
 13 brackish marsh and the aquaculture ponds. The symbols *, ** and *** indicate significant
 14 differences at the 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 levels, respectively.

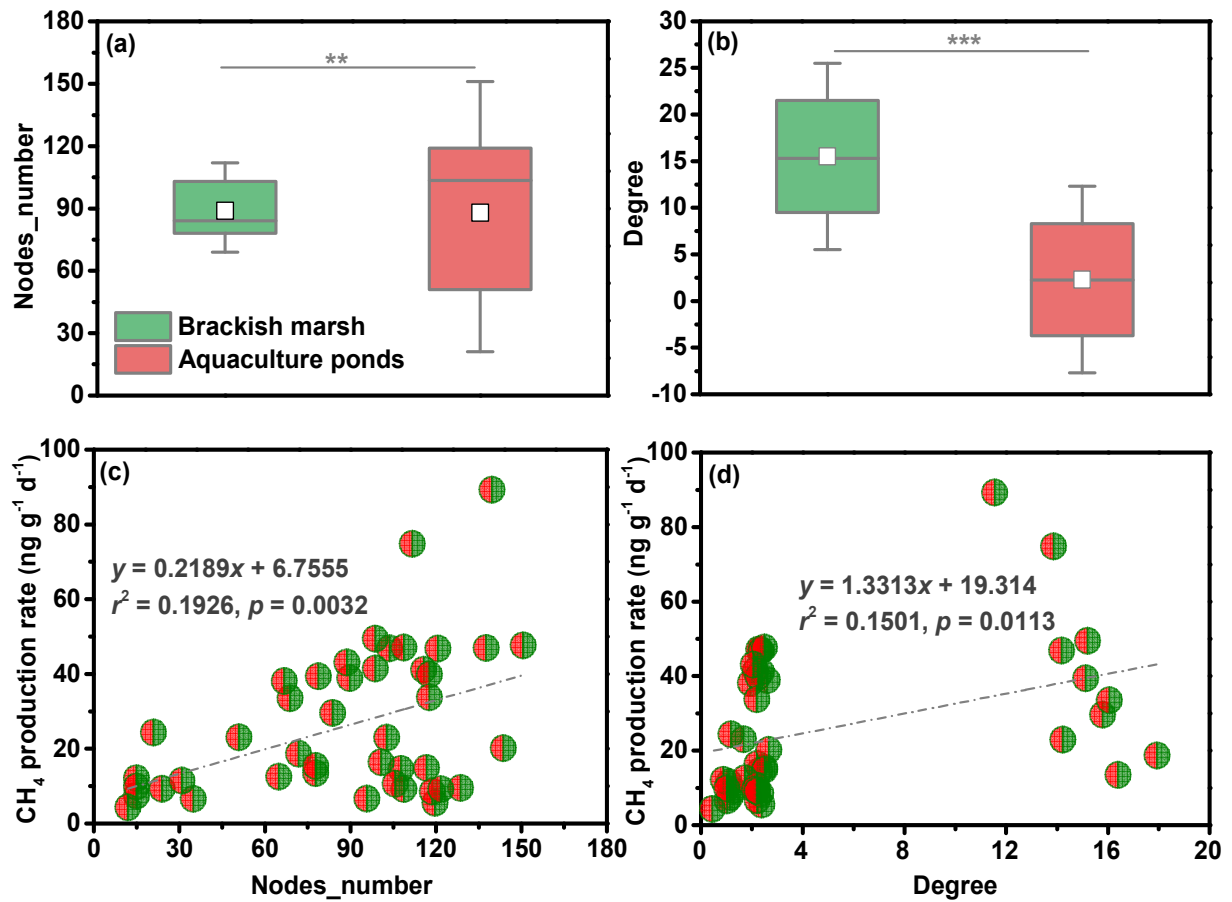


15
 16 **Fig. 4.** Compositions of sediment methanogenic archaea communities (a) and nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) analysis of the
 17 Bray-Curtis distance matrix for the sediment methanogenic archaea communities in the two habitats (b). The indicated ANOSIM R statistics
 18 and PerMANOVA P values for brackish marsh and aquaculture ponds are based on comparisons among sampling sites.



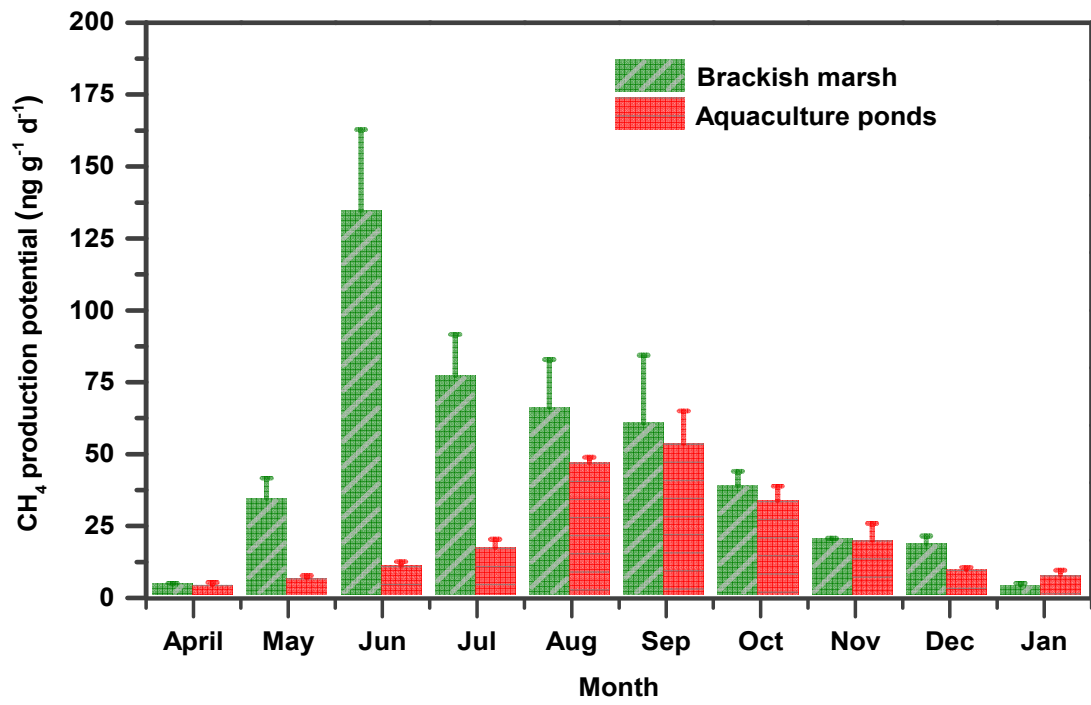
19

20 **Fig. 5.** Methanogenic archaea co-occurrence networks in the brackish marshes and the
 21 aquaculture ponds based on correlation analysis. The size of the node is proportional to the
 22 number of connections.



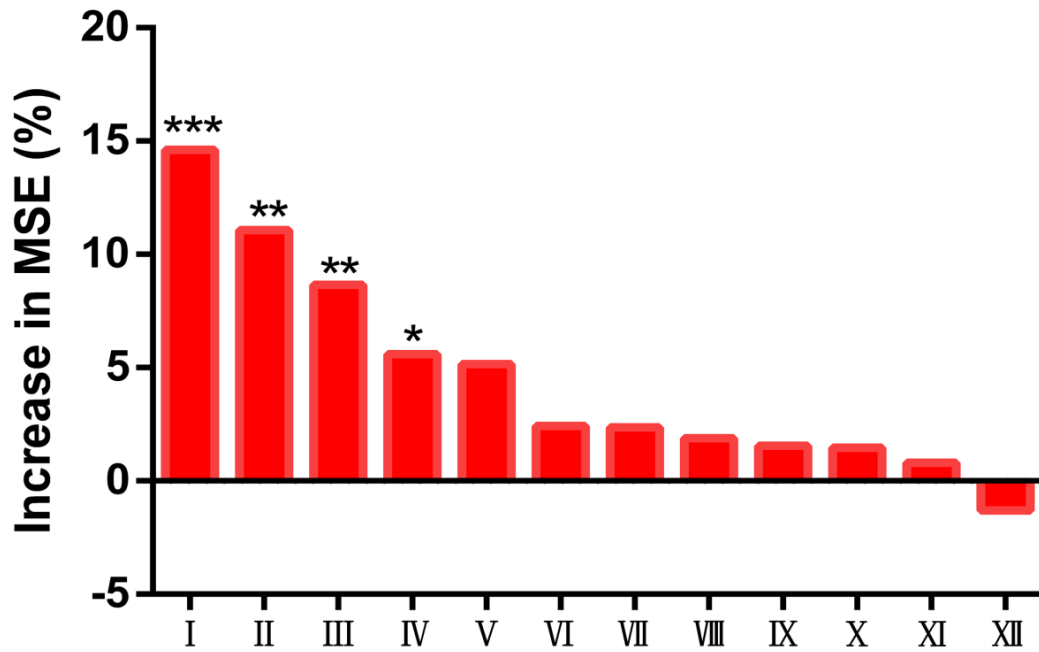
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24 **Fig. 6.** Comparison of microbial network complexity between the two habitats in terms of node
 25 numbers (a) and degree (b), and correlations between sediment CH₄ production potential and
 26 sediment methanogenic archaea network topological features in terms of node numbers (c) and
 27 degree (d) across all samples.



28

29 **Fig. 7.** Monthly sediment CH₄ production potential in the brackish marsh and the
 30 aquaculture ponds. Bars represent mean ± SE (*n* = 3).



31

32 **Fig. 8.** Predictive power of different parameters, expressed as increase in mean
 33 squared error (MSE; %), for sediment CH₄ production potential based on Random
 34 Forest Analysis (RFA). The symbols *, ** and *** above the bars indicate a
 35 significant effect of the parameter at the 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 levels, respectively.
 36 **I:** total carbon (TC); **II:** porewater SO₄²⁻ concentration; **III:** sediment temperature
 37 (*T_s*); **IV:** richness index; **V:** porewater Cl⁻ concentration; **VI:** Shannon index; **VII:**
 38 porewater DOC concentration; **VIII:** sediment salinity; **IX:** total nitrogen (TN); **X:**
 39 sediment pH; **XI:** electrical conductivity (EC); **XII:** phylogenetic diversity index.

1 **Table 1** Pearson correlation coefficients between sediment CH₄ production potential and
 2 different environmental variables in the brackish marsh and the aquaculture ponds.
 3 Significant correlations are denoted by the symbols * ($p < 0.05$) and ** ($p < 0.01$); NS
 4 means non-significant relationship.

Environmental variables	Sediment CH ₄ production potential		
	Brackish marsh	Aquaculture ponds	All data
<i>Sediment</i>			
Temperature (T_s)	0.500**	0.838**	0.603**
pH	NS	NS	NS
Salinity	-0.744**	-0.699**	-0.360**
Electrical conductivity (EC)	-0.700**	-0.579**	-0.392**
Total carbon (TC)	0.755**	0.921**	0.776**
Total nitrogen (TN)	0.454*	NS	0.365**
<i>Porewater</i>			
DOC concentration	0.675**	0.814**	0.602**
Cl ⁻ concentration	-0.628**	-0.586**	-0.416**
SO ₄ ²⁻ concentration	-0.631**	-0.669**	-0.535**

1 **Supporting Information**

2 **Changes in sediment methanogenic archaea community structure and**
3 **methane production potential following conversion of coastal marsh to**
4 **aquaculture ponds**

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23 **Supporting Information Summary**

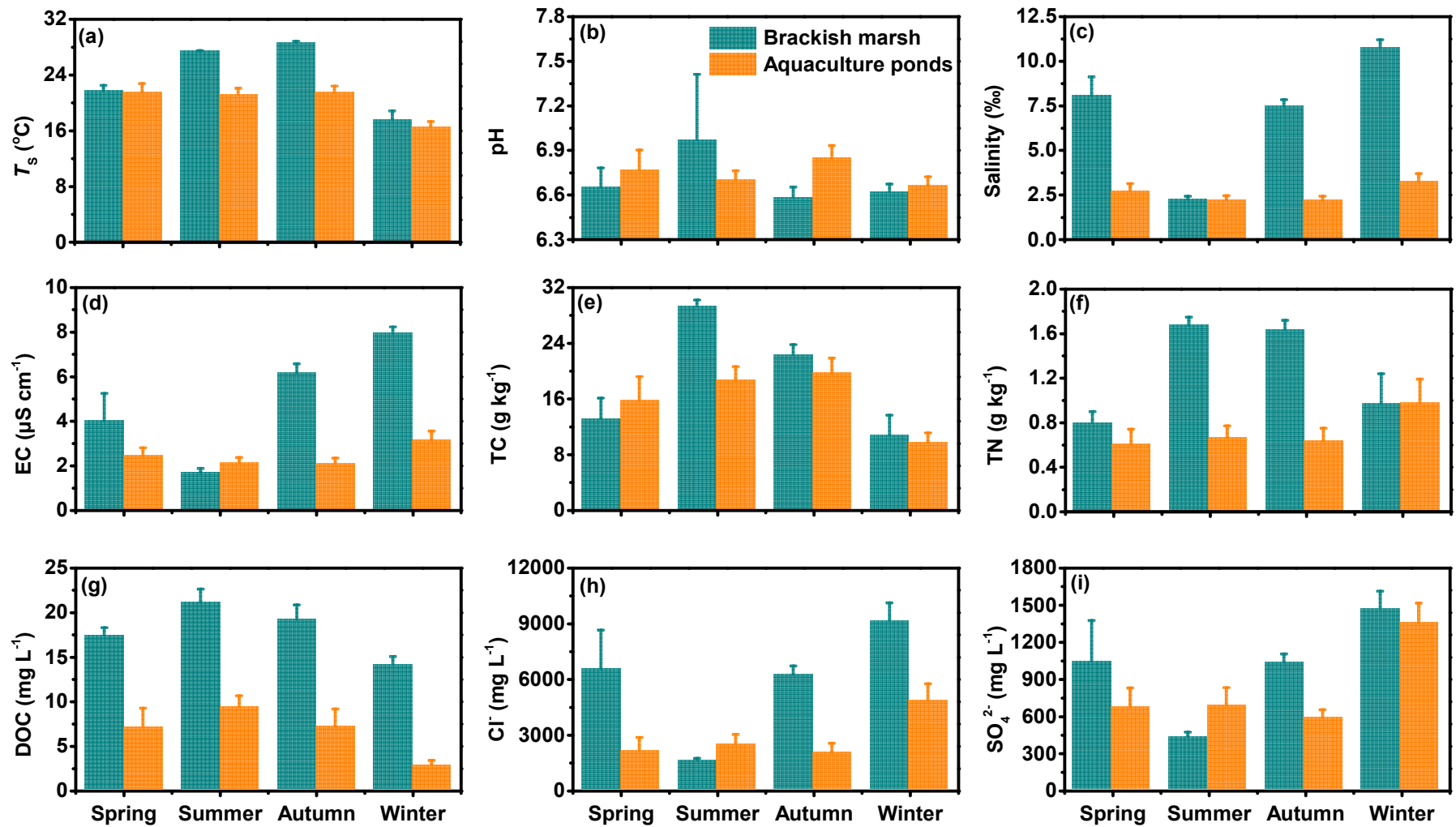
24 **No. of pages: 6 No. of figures: 3 No. of tables: 0**

25 **Page S3:** Figure S1. Seasonal values of sediment temperature (T_s), pH, salinity, conductivity
26 (EC), total carbon (TC), total nitrogen (TN), porewater DOC concentration, Cl^- concentration
27 and SO_4^{2-} concentration in the brackish marsh and the aquaculture ponds during the study
28 period

29 **Page S4:** Figure S2. Seasonal sediment CH_4 production potential in the brackish marsh and
30 the aquaculture ponds during the study period.

31 **Page S5: Figure S3** Relationships between sediment CH_4 production potential and the alpha
32 diversity (i.e., Chao1 (a), Richness (b), Phylogenetic diversity (c), and Shannon (d)) of
33 sediment methanogenic archaea communities across the two habitats.

34 **Page S6:** Figure S4. Precipitation record for the Min River Estuary from March 2019 to April
35 2020.



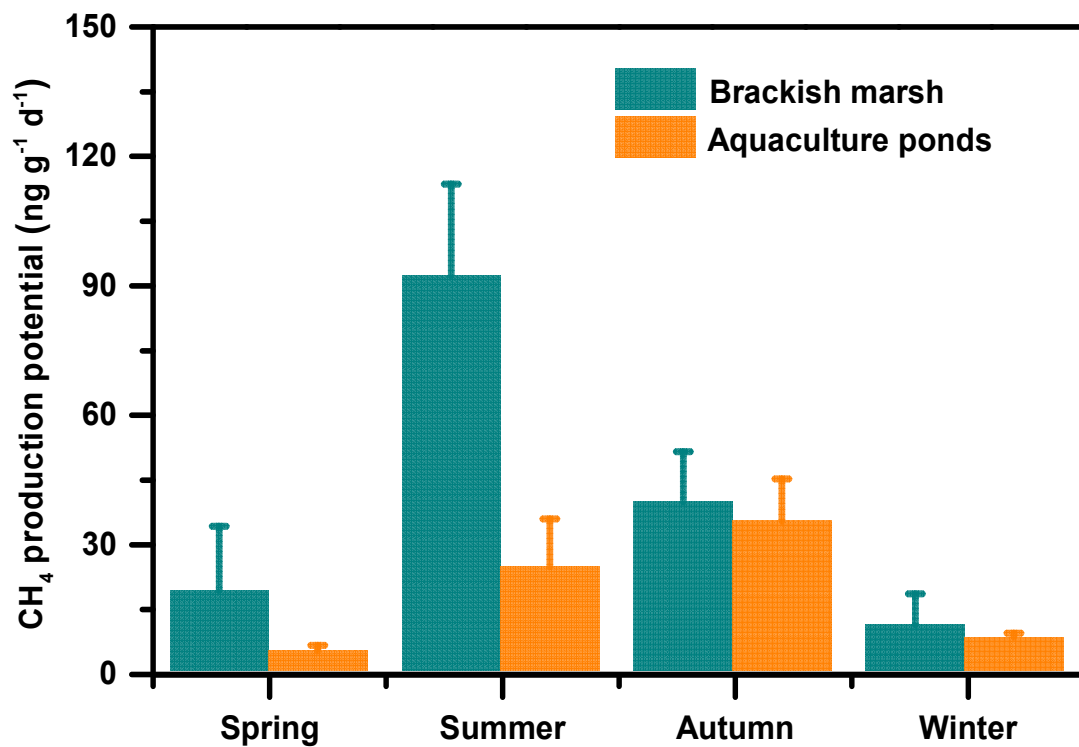
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Figure S1 Seasonal values of sediment temperature (T_s), pH, salinity, conductivity (EC), total carbon (TC), total nitrogen (TN), porewater

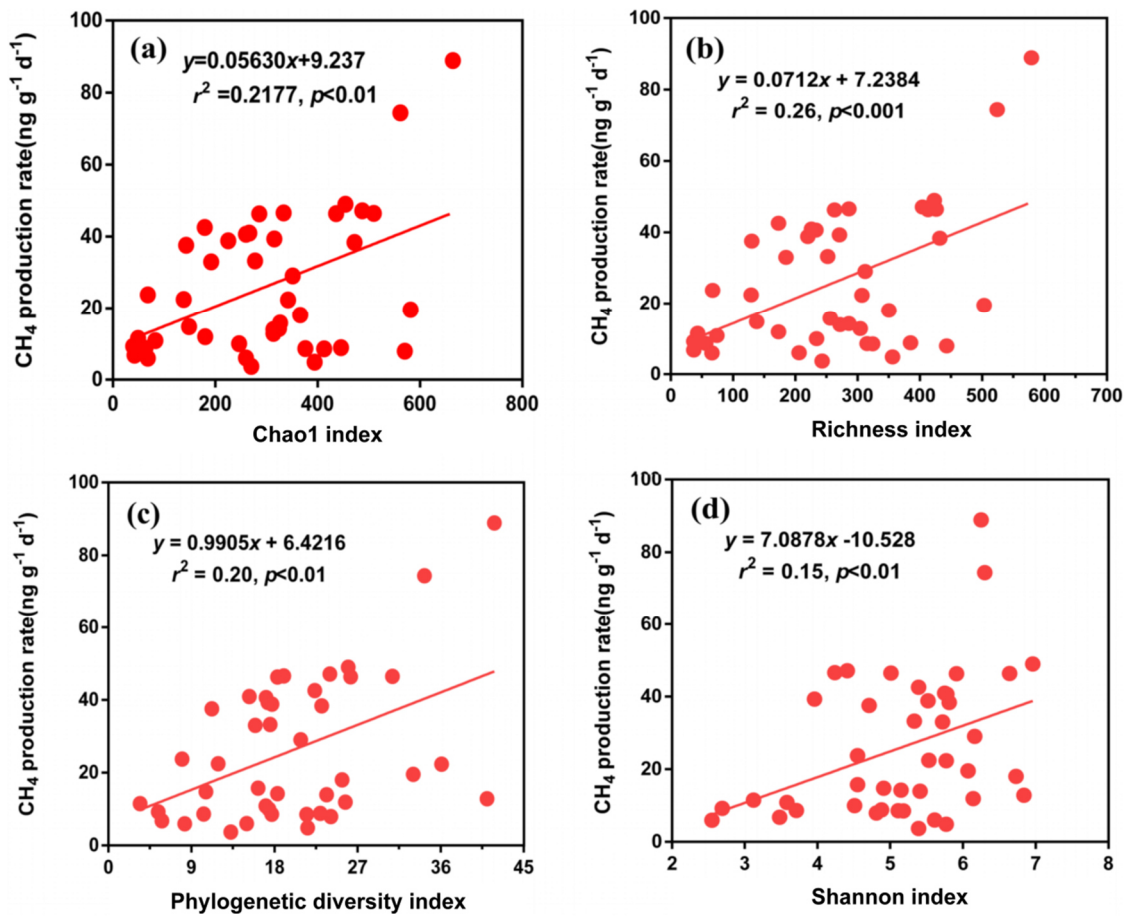
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DOC concentration, Cl^- concentration and SO_4^{2-} concentration in the brackish marsh and the aquaculture ponds during the study period.



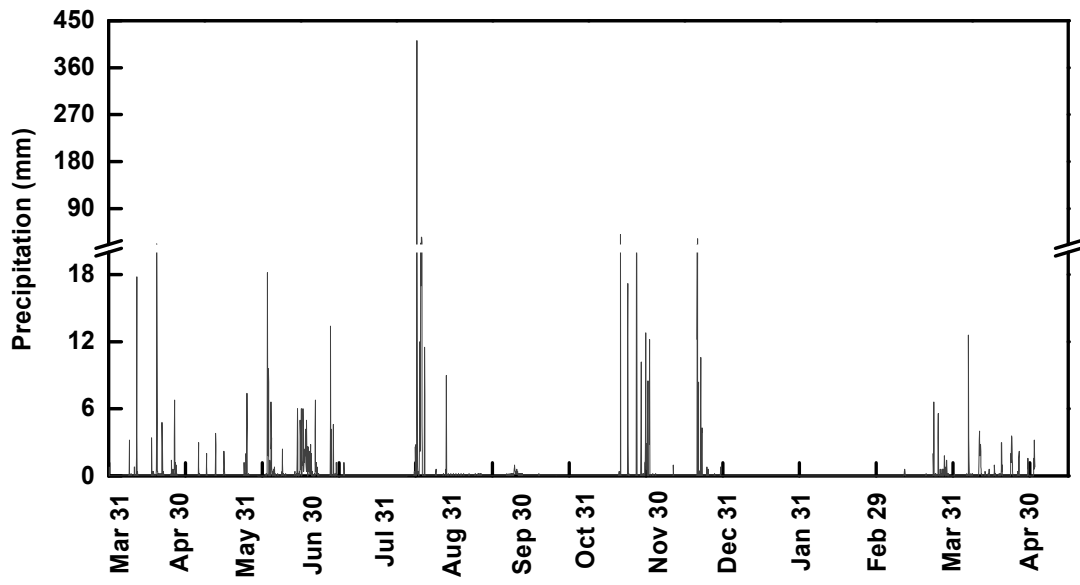
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40 **Figure S2** Seasonal sediment CH₄ production potential in the brackish marsh and the
41 aquaculture ponds during the study period.



42

43 **Figure S3** Relationships between sediment CH₄ production potential and the alpha
 44 diversity indices (i.e., Chao1 (a), Richness (b), Phylogenetic diversity (c), and Shannon
 45 (d)) of sediment methanogenic archaea communities across the two habitats.



46

47 **Figure S4** Precipitation record for the Min River Estuary from March 2019 to April
 48 2020. [Precipitation were measured by the automatic weather station at the Min River
 49 Estuary Ecological Station in the Shanyutan Wetland.]