METHANE FLUX FROM A SUBTROPICAL RESERVOIR LOCATED IN THE FLOODPLAINS OF RIVER YAMUNA, INDIA

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Abstract. Tropical and subtropical reservoirs are considered to be a strong anthropogenic source of methane (CH_4) emissions worldwide due to high temperature, augmented carbon and nutrient loadings. Thus, $CH₄$ emission estimation from tropical/subtropical reservoirs is critical for preparation of green house gas emission budgets. The Present study estimates $CH₄$ flux from a subtropical freshwater manmade Okhla reservoir located on the river Yamuna, National Capital Region, India. Results showed that Okhla reservoir transformed into a potential CH_4 emission source after flooding as the CH₄ flux increased by 3.81 orders of magnitude with a net contribution of 171.96 mgm⁻²d⁻¹. Enhanced CH₄ flux is primarily attributed to elevated organic and nutrient loadings to reservoir via river's inflow water, high percentage of shallow areas and presence of dense aquatic vegetation mainly *Eichhornia crassipes* and *Typha angustifolia*. These aquatic weeds not only facilitate vascular CH₄ transport but also provide substantial amounts of biomass for methanogens to generate CH4. Results also revealed that the summer season exhibited significantly higher CH_4 flux (Kruskal-Wallis H-Test; $p < 0.05$) as compared to monsoon and winter seasons due to prevalence of more favorable water and soil conditions for CH⁴ emissions including temperature, redox potential, water depth, dissolved oxygen, biological oxygen demand and plant biomass.

Keywords: *artificial wetlands, semi-static chamber technique, macrophytes, total organic carbon, eutrophic conditions*

Introduction

Reservoirs principally represent artificial wetlands which are used for storage, regulation and control of water resources. Construction of reservoirs through interrupting the river by dams and barrages, refurbish the entire lotic water system (river system) into the lentic water system (reservoirs) leading to pronounced impacts on physico-chemical characteristics, nutrient loading besides floral and faunal composition of the river water. Organic enrichment after the impoundment results in anaerobiosis that supports the generation and release of green house gases including methane (CH_4) , carbon dioxide (CO_2) and nitrous oxide (N_2O) etc. due to the increased decomposition of biomass and nutrient loadings of carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus.

Methane $(CH₄)$ emissions from the reservoirs vary widely depending upon reservoir specific characteristics including surface area, age, shape and depth of the reservoir, water residence time in the reservoir, water quality, organic loading by tributaries and rivulets, surface flow from the surrounding areas, the quantity and quality of vegetation of flooded and surrounding areas (St. Louis et al., 2000; Guerin et al., 2006).

Reservoirs also show extensive variations in CH_4 emissions due to changes in the local climate. Guerin et al. (2006) estimated $CH₄$ emissions from three tropical

reservoirs including Petit Saut reservoir (France), Balbina and Samuel reservoir (Brazil) in the range of $33.60 - 80$ mgm⁻²d⁻¹. Likewise, Karin Grandin (2012) calculated CH₄ emissions from three Brazilian tropical reservoirs consisting of Funil reservoir, Santo Antonio reservoir and Tres Marais reservoir. The total measured $CH₄$ fluxes in three reservoirs varied from 5.28 to 1155.36 mgm⁻²d⁻¹ with mean flux of 36.96 mgm⁻²d⁻¹ from all the three reservoirs. Tremblay et al. (2005) did CH₄ emission studies for boreal reservoirs of northern Canada reporting that CH₄ flux varied from 0 to 20 mgm⁻²d⁻¹. Soumis et al. (2004) focused on the estimation of $CH₄$ emissions from temperate reservoirs of the western United States and measured diffusive CH4 flux from 3.20 to 9.50 mgm⁻²d⁻¹. Wang et al. (2013) reported flux values for two subtropical reservoirs in Taiwan including Liyutan Reservoir (CH₄ flux: 0.72 to 28.80 mgm⁻²d⁻¹) and 2nd Baoshan Resevoir (CH₄ flux: 0.72 to 9.60 mgm⁻²d⁻¹). These studies apparently show that reservoirs in the tropical and subtropical regions show higher CH_4 emissions as compared to temperate and boreal reservoirs due to nutrient enrichment, high carbon loadings and increased water temperatures. St. Louis et al. (2000) estimated that 90 % of global reservoir CH⁴ emissions were from reservoirs in tropical regions; however Bastviken et al. (2011) attribute freshwater ecosystems located in tropics contribute about 49 % of the total CH⁴ emissions. Consequently, considering varying reservoir characteristics and local climate, more intensive work is required to quantify the contribution of tropical and subtropical reservoirs to CH₄ budgets.

In India, a large number of dams and barrages have been constructed since independence for storage, flood control, irrigation and hydro-electricity generation. These man-made water storages can significantly contribute towards CH_4 emission. Surprisingly, most of the published data related to $CH₄$ fluxes in India mainly comprises CH⁴ emissions from lakes and rivers such as Verma et al. (2002) from Vembanad Lake, Purvaja et al. (2004) from unpolluted mangrove, Rajkumar et al. (2008) from Adyar River, Khoiyangbam et al. (2008) from Lakshmi and Antiya Lake, Mallick and Dutta (2009) in the Bhalsawa Lake. Methane $(CH₄)$ emission studies from the reservoirs are highly sporadic. Narvenkar G. et al. (2013) estimated dissolved CH₄ emissions from eight reservoirs and measured surface water CH_4 concentrations in the range of 0.0028 – 0.305μ M. It is apparent that the present study is the first comprehensive dataset on airwater interface CH₄ flux from an Indian reservoir i.e., Okhla reservoir located in floodplains of river Yamuna on Delhi-Uttar Pradesh border, India. Current study attempts to quantify and seasonally describe the $CH₄$ flux for the Okhla reservoir as it is an important fresh water subtropical reservoir heavily infested by various types of truly aquatic, amphibious and terrestrial vegetation with extreme anthropogenic pressure in terms of high pollutant and organic loadings from nearby urban, agricultural and industrial areas.

Material and Methods

Study Area

Present research work has been carried out in the Okhla reservoir which is a manmade fresh water reservoir created after the construction of Okhla Barrage on river Yamuna on 8th May, 1990 for the purpose of irrigation and flood control in the surrounding areas. Okhla reservoir was notified as Okhla Bird Sanctuary (OBS) by the Uttar Pradesh government under the Wildlife (Protection) Act, 1972 (Management Plan for Okhla Bird Sanctuary, 2011-2021). The most important sources of input water that

enters the reservoir includes Yamuna water released after Wazirabad Barrage, Hindon water discharged from Hindon Barrage and runoff generated from Delhi area. The major outflows include water released into the Agra canal and downstream into river Yamuna heading towards Uttar Pradesh.

Okhla reservoir is under extreme anthropogenic pressure due to high load of pollutants discharged into it from the nearby residential, agricultural and industrial areas through river's inflow water (Yamuna river and Hindon river). Yamuna water entering the sanctuary is highly polluted due the waste discharges from 19 major drains including Najafgarh drain between Okhla and Wazirabad. Okhla reservoir also receives agricultural and industrial waste from Uttar Pradesh through Hindon river via Hindon Cut.

Even though the Okhla reservoir receives high pollution load and is greatly influenced by human disturbances, it provides breeding ground to a large number of species of birds, reptiles, mammals, amphibians and is occupied by a variety of aquatic, amphibious and terrestrial plants including *Eichhornia crassipes, Pistia stratiotes, Typha angustifolia, Kyllinga squamulata, Alternanthera sessilis* etc. Thus, this reservoir represents a human intervened sub-tropical freshwater artificial wetland which can act as one of potential source of CH_4 emissions predominantly due to high pollution load and heavy vegetation infestation. Major features of Okhla reservoir are enlisted in *Table 1* whereas the location of the study site is shown in *Figure 1*.

Characteristics	Reservoir			
Country	India			
Location	Delhi-Utttar Pradesh Border, National Capital Region (NCR)			
Date of Creation/approximate age	8^{th} May, 1990/ ~ 24 years			
Geographic Location Altitude	Latitude: 28° 32' 56.3" N and Longitude: 77° 18' 56.6" E from Delhi site and Latitude: 28° 32' 43.5" N and Longitude: 77° 18' 41.7" E from Uttar Pradesh site 200 m			
Area Annual Rainfall	400 hectares (flooded area: 370 hectares; roads and bunds: 30 hectares)			
	660-670 mm			
Water Depth	0.15 - 3m (water expanse and its depth varies with season)			

Table 1. Main characteristics of Okhla Reservoir, Gautam Budh Nagar, National Capital Region, India

Source: Management Plan for Okhla Bird Sanctuary (2011-2021).

Sample collection and analysis

To assess the net contribution of the Okhla reservoir to CH_4 flux, CH_4 emission estimation was accomplished for two different zones including exposed soil zone (ESZ) and water zone (WZ). Water surface CH_4 concentration in any reservoir is mainly described as a function of soil sediments that gets impounded after flooding the

reservoir as the methane is generally derived from the organic matter present in terrestrial soils inundated during impoundment (Kemens et al. **2011**).

Figure 1. Map to show location of Okhla Reservoir, Gautam Budh Nagar, National Capital Region, India

Therefore, terrestrial soil present in the reservoir (ESZ) was assumed as the reference site for pre-impoundment CH⁴ flux estimation whereas WZ was selected for postimpoundment CH⁴ flux calculation. The ESZ mainly included the water-logged soil and terrestrial soil (reed beds and sand beds) present inside and along the reservoir periphery/edges. To consider for inhomogeneity of water body i.e., shallow and deep stratified reservoir areas, WZ was further sub-divided into two zones i.e., shallow water zone (SWZ; depth < 200 cm) and deep water zone (DWZ; depth ≥ 200 cm). CH₄ emissions estimations were done on seasonal basis i.e., monsoon (July -October 2010), winter (November-March 2010-2011) and summer season (April –June 2011) deploying semi-static chamber technique.

Gas fluxes: sampling and analysis

For each zone, CH⁴ gas sampling was made using semi-static chamber technique $(Figure 2)$ which measures the total $CH₄$ emissions including diffusive as well as ebullitive CH⁴ emission. To collect gas samples from water and soil surface, perspex chambers with dimensions 36.25 cm \times 33.00 cm \times 53.75 cm (Length \times Breadth \times Height) were used. Homogenous mixing of air inside the chambers was maintained through battery-operated fans. Gas samples were collected in pre-evacuated 50 ml air tight plastic syringes through a vent provided at the top of the chamber. For each zone,

gas sampling was carried out twice a day and thrice in a season in 3-4 replicates at the intervals of 0, 15, 30, 45 and 60 min.

Figure 2. Semi-static chamber technique to collect gas samples from a) air-water interface, and b) soil surface at Okhla reservoir

Gas chromatograph (model no. 6890, Agilent Technologies, USA) fitted with Flame ionized detector (FID) and wide bore HP-PLOT Q capillary column was used to analyze CH⁴ gas samples. The column, inlet and detector were maintained at temperatures of 45, 250 and 250 \degree C respectively. CH₄ peak was identified at retention time of 2.4 min. The column flow was maintained at 3.0 ml/min with the spilt ratio of 1 ml/min. Concentration of CH_4 gas in the samples was calculated by calibrating gas chromatograph with two CH₄ standards of 1.8 ± 0.2 ppmv CH₄ in nitrogen (procured from MAINZ, Germany) and 10.1 ± 0.1 ppmv CH₄ in nitrogen (procured from Spectra Gas, USA). Daily gas concentration in the chambers was estimated by applying the temporal decrease and increase of CH⁴ mixing ratios inside the chambers following the equation mentioned below (Singh et al., 1998; Chakraborty et al., 2011):

CH₄ (mg m⁻² d⁻¹) = [(BV_{STP}×C_{CH4}×M×1000×60) / (10⁶×22400×A×t)] × 24

Where

 $\rm BV_{STP}$ (Box Air Volume in cm³ at standard temperature and pressure) =

(BV×BP×273)/ [(273+T)×760]

BV (Box volume) for water surface $= (H-h) \times L \times W$ – (volume of biomass inside the chamber); H = chamber height in cm, h = water level above the channel cm; L = chamber length in cm; $W =$ chamber width in cm

BV (Box volume) for soil surface = $(H+h) \times L \times W$ – (volume of biomass inside the chamber); H = chamber height in cm, h = channel height above soil surface in cm; L= chamber length in cm; $W =$ chamber width in cm

 M = molecular weight of CH₄

 $BP = b$ arometric pressure (mm Hg) at the time of sampling

T = chamber air temperature at the time of sampling in Kelvin (K; $273 + \text{temp in }^{\circ}C$) C_{CH4} = change in CH₄ concentration in (ppm) from 0 min. sampling to the t min. sampling

A= wetland area covered by the chamber in m^2 .

Water and soil quality

Water samples were collected in 2 litre bottles from the well mixed zone of 0.3 m. Water DO (Dissolved oxygen), Eh (Redox potential), pH and WT (Water temperature) were predicted in the field at the time of gas sampling deploying portable DO, Eh and pH meter (model: HACH-HQ30D) and portable Infra Red Thermometer (model: OAKTON: Infra Pro[®] 5) respectively. Water depth (WD) was estimated using a wellmarked wooden pole. Phosphate $(PO₄³)$, Nitrate $(NO₃)$, and BOD (Biological oxygen demand) were analyzed using the standard methods for analysis of water and waste water (APHA, 2005). TOC (Total organic carbon) was estimated using TOC analyzer which consisted of two units, namely, a) Digester (model: HACH-DRB 200) for digesting water samples, and b) Calorimeter (model: HACH-DR 900) for taking readings.

Soil samples were collected in air tight plastic vials using soil tube auger (Singh et al., 1999) at the depth of 22.08 cm to analyze various soil quality parameters. Soil Eh, soil pH, and soil temperature (ST) were estimated following the same analytical methods as used in case of water analysis. Soil organic carbon (SOC) was analyzed using Walkley and Black Method (Walkley and Black, 1934).

GARMIN etrex -12 channel Global Positioning System was used to mark the location of each sampling point in the field. The floral compositions were analyzed using a Quadrat Method (APHA, 2005) deploying quadrat of 1×1 m². The plant biomass was measured by harvesting plant species from 1×1 m² plots. Fresh weight of each plant sampled was noted in the field and then oven dried at 105°C over night to obtain the dry weight.

Statistical analysis

Temporal variability in CH_4 emissions was evaluated using non-parametric statistics in both ESZ and WZ (Kruskal-Wallis H-test) as the temporal CH_4 values neither achieved homogeneity of variances (Levene's Test for Equality of Variances; $p < 0.05$) nor exhibited normal distribution (Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test; $p < 0.05$). On the other side, importance of various environmental variables including soil, water and vegetation in regulating temporal CH⁴ emissions, was assessed by conducting Pearson correlation matrix analysis. All statistical work was performed in SPSS-12.0 statistical software for Windows.

Results and Discussion

CH4 flux measurements

The annual averaged CH⁴ emissions from each zone of the Okhla reservoir were estimated by integrating the daily emissions throughout the year for each zone which were then extrapolated to the maximum reservoir inundated area of 370 hectares in order to compare with previous estimates. Pre-impoundment and post-impoundment CH₄ fluxes were found to about 61.13 mgm⁻²d⁻¹ and 233.09 mgm⁻²d⁻¹ respectively.

Results for reservoir CH⁴ flux values are summarized in *Table 2*. It was opined from the results that the Okhla reservoir exhibited the high degree of temporal variability in $CH₄$ emissions as the summer season showed significantly higher $CH₄$ flux (Kruskal-Wallis H-Test; $p=0.000 < 0.05$ for ESZ and $p=0.005 < 0.05$ WZ) followed by monsoon season and least during winter season in both the zones. High CH4 flux during summer season can be corroborated by high temperature which results in increased decomposition rates leading to more reduced and anoxic conditions. Enhanced above ground plant biomass, low WD and DO, high Eh and BOD on the advent of summer season further support high CH⁴ flux values observed during summer season in comparison to monsoon and winter season.

Pre-impoundment CH₄ Flux (mgm⁻²d⁻¹)*						
Wetland zone	Monsoon 2010	Winter 2011	Summer 2011	Annual mean value	Total wetland *** area (Hectares)	
ESZ (Exposed soil zone)	26.17 ± 3.59 10.71 ± 0.84		$137.77 \pm$ 11.92	$61.13 \pm$ 13.41	370.00	
Post -impoundment CH ₄ Flux (mgm ⁻² d ⁻¹)**						
$SWZ***$ (Shallow) water zone)	$105.73 \pm$ 44.63	92.53 ± 22.79	431.25 \pm 48.38	$209.84 \pm$ 39.49	240.50	
$DWZ****$ (Deep water zone)		19.20 ± 2.97 17.47 ± 3.49		33.42 ± 1.92 23.25 ± 2.52	129.50	
			Total CH ₄ flux from WZ	233.09	370.00	

Table 2. CH⁴ flux (value ± standard error of mean) estimated for Okhla reservoir

*Pre-impoundment CH4 Flux was represented by ESZ

**Post-impoundment CH4 Flux was represented by WZ (SWZ+DWZ)

***Total wetland area for Okhla Reservoir is 400 hectares but only 370 hectares has been included in CH4 emission estimation excluding 30 hectares which mainly comprise of roads and bunds (Management plan for Okhla Bird Sanctuary, 2011-2021)

****Area covered by the SWZ was about 65% of total wetland area (Manral et al., 2012)

*****Area covered by the DWZ was about 35% of total wetland area (Manral et al., 2012)

It was also observed that the flooding of landscape to create reservoir triggers the CH4 generation largely because of anaerobic decomposition of the terrestrial soils and plants inundated during impoundment. Different landscapes contain different amounts of stored organic carbon in soils and vegetation (Schlesinger, 1997), and so the potential for CH⁴ production and loss varies from site to site characteristics (St. Louis et al., 2000). In the present investigation, high soil organic carbon $(0.83 \pm 0.005\%)$ and above ground plant biomass $(36.47 \pm 6.06 \text{ g DW m}^2)$ estimated in the exposed soil of Okhla reservoir represents the most probable source of labile organic carbon for CH⁴

generation before flooding. Results showed that this carbon stock further increased after impoundment due to the surplus organic load contributed by river's inflow water as total organic carbon (20.06 \pm 1.04 mg l⁻¹), and macrophytic vegetation as aquatic plant biomass (16.81 \pm 2.74 g DW m⁻²) supporting the total CH₄ flux of 233.09 mg m⁻² d⁻¹. Thus, the post-impoundment CH_4 flux was higher than pre-impoundment CH_4 flux with a net contribution of 171.96 mg $m^{-2} d^{-1}$. The net CH₄ emissions from Okhla reservoir (171.96 mg m⁻² d⁻¹) exceeded the value of 83. 80 mg m⁻² d⁻¹ estimated for a eutrophic reservoir by Gunkel (2009) but was below the value of 300 mg $m⁻² d⁻¹$ reported by St. Louis et al. (2000) for tropical reservoirs**.**

In addition, in comparison with the other estimates (*Table 3*), Okhla reservoir exhibits significantly higher mean CH₄ flux values (116.60 mg m⁻² d⁻¹) after flooding owing to i) excessive input of the allochthonous organic carbon from surrounding areas through Yamuna and Hindon river as indicated by high BOD (21.50 \pm 1.31 mg l⁻¹) and TOC values $(20.06 \pm 1.04 \text{ mg l}^{-1})$, ii) enhanced autochthonous organic carbon production by heavy aquatic vegetation infestation in the lake, and iii) high percentage of low water depth non-stratified shallow areas (nearly 65% of total wetland area) contributing about 90.03% of total post-impoundment CH_4 flux whereas DWZ emits only 9.97% of total post-impoundment CH_4 flux occupying the only 35% of total wetland area. However, total surface emissions after integrating the point measurements to the entire water surface of the reservoir, CH_4 flux values for Petit Saut, Balbina, Lokka, Laforge 1, Shasta, Three Gorges reservoir exceeded the CH_4 emissions obtained for Okhla reservoir mainly due to the large surface areas.

Reservoir	Country	Climate	Area	Mean	Mean CH ₄	Area-wise	Reference
			(hectares)	depth(m)	flux	CH ₄ flux	
					$(mgm-2d-1)$	(tones yr^{-1})	
Tsengwen	Taiwan	Tropical	1772	34.5	5.95	38.5	Wang et al. (2013)
Petit Saut	France	Tropical	28750	10.0	44.80	4701.2	Guerin et al. (2006)
Balbina	Brazil	Tropical	1960	7.4	33.60	240.4	Guerin et al. (2006)
Samuel	Brazil	Tropical	419.5	5.7	80.00	122.5	Guerin et al. (2006)
Lokka	Finland	Boreal	41700	7.4	33.60	5114.1	Huttunen al. et (2003); Y. Zhao et al. (2013)
Laforge 1	Canada	Boreal	128800	3.0	27.36	12862.5	Tremblay et al. (2005); Y. Zhao et al. (2013)
Dworshak	United States	Temperate	3700	65.0	4.40	59.4	Soumis et al. (2004)
Shasta	United states	Temperate	7700	35.8	9.50	267.0	Soumis et al. (2004)
Gold Creek Dam	Australia	Subtropical	19	11.8	93.50	6.5	Sturm et al. (2013)
Three	China	Subtropical	108400	70.0	5.12	2025.8	Y. Zhao et al. (2013)
Gorges							
Liyutan	Taiwan	Subtropical	449	49.0	4.80	7.9	Wang et al. (2013)
Okhla	India	Tropical	370	2.0	116.60	157.5	Present study (post- impoundment CH4 flux)

Table 3. Air-water interface CH⁴ flux for Okhla and some other important reservoirs

Factors controlling CH4 flux

It is amply clear from the present investigation and other reported studies that the CH⁴ emission potential in reservoirs is highly site specific and varies with particular reservoir characteristics such as surface area, age, water residence time, physicochemical properties of river's inflow water, soil quality and type of vegetation being submerged during the progressive impoundment or being present in and around the reservoir after impoundment.

Reservoir age, area and water retention time

Newly constructed and large reservoirs are expected to release more CH₄ as compared to older and small reservoirs. The most probable cause for this observation is that newly flooded labile carbon (present in plant leaves and litter) decompose at a higher rate as compared to older more recalcitrant organic carbon including soil organic carbon (SOC). But the present study showed that it is complicated to quantify flux-age and flux-area relationship in the reservoirs like Okhla reservoir where most of the reservoir area is shallow and occupied by heavy macrophytic vegetation.

In Okhla reservoir, dense macrophytic vegetation in shallow areas, floating vegetation in deeper areas and dense terrestrial vegetation present along reservoir periphery facilitates the continuous supply of fresh labile carbon to methanogens. Thus, though the Okhla reservoir is older (24 yrs.) and occupies the small flooded area of 370 hectares, it produces a substantial amount of $CH₄$ independent of age and area. So, these two parameters were not found to be the sole controlling factors for $CH₄$ production and emission in case of Okhla reservoir. Sturm et al. (2013) also mentioned that the older reservoir examined in south east Queensland exhibited higher CH⁴ emission rates than younger reservoirs suggesting that reservoir age is not a key parameter for controlling CH₄ flux.

Water retention time is another important morphometric characteristic which significantly determines the rate of $CH₄$ production within the reservoir. Fearnside (2005) expressed that the longer the water retention time, lower the oxygen concentration in the reservoir leading to enhanced CH⁴ production. Thus, reservoir with long retention time like Okhla reservoir (water retention time \sim 12 months) is prone to high nutrient/organic loadings and remained anoxic almost throughout the year supporting high rates of $CH₄$ production.

Floral composition

Twenty important plant species (including aquatic, semi-aquatic and terrestrial species) have been identified in all the three zones (SWZ, DWZ and ESZ) of Okhla reservoir (*Table 4*). The total above-ground plant biomass/aquatic plant biomass (*Table* $5)$ was also estimated to find out the role of vegetation in controlling the CH₄ emission rates. It was observed that high plant mediated CH₄ flux due to the presence of dense vegetation (aquatic and terrestrial) at Okhla reservoir discriminate this reservoir from many other tropical/subtropical reservoirs as most of the studied reservoirs include hydroelectric dams where CH⁴ emissions are either restricted by absence of aquatic vegetation or presence of limited aquatic vegetation.

Aquatic vegetation mainly regulates the $CH₄$ emissions by providing easily degradable organic substrates to methanogens and by facilitating $CH₄$ to move out of the water column to atmospheres via vascular transport. Floral composition analysis for

Okhla reservoirs demonstrate that SWZ was heavily invaded by macrophytic vegetation including *Eichhornia crassipes, Typha angustifolia, Pistia stratiotes* etc. *Eichhornia crassipies* which is a most widespread floating fresh water plant is 4-11 times as active in CH⁴ emission as the rice paddies and release the bulk of CH⁴ from leaf blades and much less through the petiole (Banik et al., 1993; Rady, 1979). The large plant biomass of *Eichhornia crassipies* $(3.66 \pm 0.83 \text{ g DW m}^2)$ and *Typha angustifolia* $(4.04 \pm 0.70 \text{ g})$ DW m⁻²) on decomposition enrich the aquatic sediments with labile plant substrates for CH⁴ generation. Moreover, continuous semi-stagnant mats of *Eichhornia crassipies* (water hyacinth) with sediment- rooted emergent macrophytes including *Alternanthera philoxeroides, Paspalum distichum, Alternanthera sessilis etc.* present in shallow regions of reservoir periphery, also facilitate the increase in CH₄ flux after flooding due to boosted CH₄ vascular transport and additional aquatic plant biomass input of 16.81 \pm 2.74 g DW m^{-2} .

Table 4. Flora identified at Okhla reservoir

Species code	Botanical name	Family	Species code	Botanical name	Family
A	Cyperus Sps.	Cyperaceae	K	Chenopodium murale	Chenopodiaceae
в	Cynodon dactylon	Poaceae		Melochia corchorifolia	Sterculiaceae
с	Oplismenus burmannii	Poaceae	м	Cannabis sativa	Cannabinaceae
D	Alternanthera sessilis	Amaranthaceae	N	Polygonum lanigerum	Polygonaceae
Е	Sacchrum spontaneum	Poaceae	Ω	Xanthium strumarium	Asteraceae
F	Panicum sps.	Poaceae	P	Eichhornia crassipes	Pontederiaceae
G	Lantana Indica	Verbenaceae	Q	Alternanthera philoxeroides	Amaranthaceae
н	Kyllinga squamulata	Cyperaceae	R	Pistia stratiotes	Araceae
	Paspalum distichum	Poaceae	s	Typha angustifolia	Typhaceae
	Parthenium hysterophorus	Asteraceae	т	Ranunculus sceleratus	Renunculaceae

Table 5. Plant biomass estimation for ESZ, SWZ and DWZ at Okhla reservoir

* Annual mean value \pm standard error of mean, **g DW m² = grams of dry weight per meter square, ***total plant biomass is equivalent to above ground plant biomass in ESZ (Exposed soil zone) and aquatic plant biomass in SWZ (Shallow water zone)/DWZ (Deep water zone)

In contrast, DWZ was devoid of macrophytic vegetation except few floating mats of *Eichhornia crassipies* which were not considered noteworthy in CH₄ emissions. The plausible explanation for this observation is that the floating vegetation is not much efficient in CH⁴ vascular transport as they are not stagnant and their time of residence at one place was not enough to absorb and eliminate the substantial amounts of CH_4 from the water column to the atmosphere. Consequently, SWZ released more CH₄ than DWZ proving the observation of Singh et al. (2000) which vowed that vegetated water surface emits more CH₄ than non-vegetated water surface. Thus, aquatic plant biomass show strong positive correlation of $r=0.62$; $p<0.01$ zone wise. Temporally, in SWZ, aquatic plant biomass exhibit comparatively weak correlation $(r=0.44; p<0.05)$ with seasonal CH⁴ flux. This may be due the observation that monsoon and summer seasons displayed nearly similar aquatic plant biomass as both monsoon and summer seasons exhibit optimal conditions for plant growth including temperature, moisture content, nutrient availability etc. On the contrary, aquatic plant biomass was lowest during the winter season because of cold damage induced by low temperature (*Table 5*). No correlation was attempted for DWZ as it was devoid of sediment rooted macrophytic vegetation.

ESZ at Okhla reservoir was also densely occupied by various amphibious and terrestrial plants including *Cynodon dactylon, Oplismenus burmannii, Alternanthera, sessilis, Sacchrum spontaneum* etc. Vegetation of exposed soil chiefly affects the rates of CH⁴ production by determining the amount of plant litter that can be added directly or washed away from exposed soils to reservoir water during rainfall events. Therefore, to find out the contribution of vegetation of exposed soil to $CH₄$ flux, above ground plant biomass was estimated. Results showed that vegetation present in exposed soils of Okhla provided organic matter in the form of above ground plant biomass of $36.47 \pm$ 6.06 g DW m^{-2} to support the high CH₄ flux values observed at this reservoir. Above ground plant biomass showed positive correlation ($r=0.83$; $p<0.01$) with seasonal CH₄ flux. Enhanced above ground plant biomass provided increased availability of plant substrates for CH_4 generating bacteria to support high CH_4 flux values during summer season (*Table 5*).

Soil and water quality of reservoir

Soil and hydrological characteristics of Okhla reservoir were found to be in conformity with high $CH₄$ flux values emitted by reservoir surface. It was observed that the metabolism of organic matter (allochthonous and autochthonous) is the primary source of CH⁴ emission within the reservoirs as the soil organic carbon (SOC) and total organic carbon (TOC) are the main indicators of high organic carbon loadings in the reservoirs. Annual mean values for SOC $(0.83 \pm 0.005\%)$ at Okhla reservoir indicated that soil present at Okhla reservoirs are highly organic in nature and support pre/post impoundment CH₄ production of 61.13 mg m⁻² d⁻ and 233.09 mg m⁻² d⁻¹ respectively. On the other hand, high TOC value $(20.06 \pm 1.04 \text{ mg l}^{-1})$ observed at Okhla reservoir was one of the key reasons for enhanced $CH₄$ flux following the impoundment. High TOC values in Okhla reservoir can be attributed to the allochthonous organic carbon imported to reservoir through Yamuna and Hindon river tributaries and autochthonous organic matter produced by the dense macrophytic vegetation present in littoral zones of the reservoir.

SOC and TOC did not follow any significant seasonal trend with CH_4 flux. SOC is a stable soil property which does not fluctuate seasonally. Amount of TOC in Okhla reservoir was primarily dependent on organic carbon imported to reservoir by Yamuna river that cannot be defined seasonally as Yamuna river receive polluted water from various non-point and point sources (*Figure 3b, 4b, and 5c*). Consequently, both SOC and TOC showed no significant correlations with seasonal CH₄ emissions ($r=0.02$; p>0.05 for SOC and r= -0.25; p>0.05 for TOC).

Data analysis in the present research also suggests that CH_4 emission in tropical and subtropical reservoirs is also contingent on water depth (WD), dissolved oxygen (DO) and biological oxygen demand (BOD) content of the reservoir water. In Okhla reservoir, to find out the relationship between CH_4 flux and WD, CH_4 estimation was carried out for shallow water zone (SWZ) and deep water zone (DWZ). Results brought out that that SWZ exhibited high CH₄ flux values $(209.84 \pm 39.49 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1})$ than DWZ $(23.25$

 \pm 2.52 mg m⁻² d⁻¹) due to increased upward CH₄ diffusion at low WD (105.13 \pm 6.04 cm) and heavy macrophytic infestations leading to high plant mediated $CH₄$ flux. In contrast, in stratified non-plant DWZ (210.87 \pm 11.26 cm), flux of CH₄ from water surface to the atmosphere is highly constrained by high $CH₄$ oxidation rates because of well-mixed oxygenated conditions prevalent in surface water and lack of aquatic vegetation. King (1990) and Laanbroek (2010) also reported that surface water is normally oxic and approximately 90% of CH₄ emitted through diffusion and ebullition gets oxidized before reaching the atmosphere.

High CH₄ flux values from Okhla reservoir are further supported by low DO (3.88 \pm 0.24 mg l⁻¹) and high BOD (20.51 \pm 0.90 mg l⁻¹) values as low DO values create anaerobic conditions and high BOD support high microbial activity for increased CH⁴ production rates in tropical/subtropical reservoirs. Similar relationship among $CH₄$ flux, DO and BOD have also been reported by Das et al. (2005) for wetlands in the state of Orissa, India. In addition to this, negative Eh (redox potential) values (-77.76 ± 5.66 mV for ESZ and varied from -162.29 ± 1.95 mV to -49.38 ± 4.70 mV for WZ) obtained at Okhla reservoir also support anaerobiosis leading to more reduced conditions and hence increased CH⁴ flux.

Figure 3. Temporal variability in pre-impoundment CH⁴ flux with respect to various soil quality parameters at Okhla reservoir

It can also be opined from the results that WD, DO and Eh were found to be negatively correlated (r=-0.70; $p<0.01$ for WD; r=-0.75; $p<0.01$ for DO; r=-0.93; $p<0.01$ for Eh in ESZ and r=-0.60; $p<0.01$ for Eh in WZ) and BOD was found to be positively correlated (r=0.73; p<0.01) with seasonal CH₄ flux supporting high CH₄ flux values in summer season. High temperature in summer season supports high microbial activities. This will lead to enhanced decompositions of organic matter causing severe DO depletion, high Eh and BOD values. WD depth also falls down during summer season because of increased evaporation rates resulting in accelerated $CH₄$ flux in summer season (*Figure 4a, 4c, 5a, 5b, and 5c*).

The results of the current work have also shown that reservoir soil pH (8.57 \pm 0.05) and water pH (7.40 \pm 0.05 – 7.78 \pm 0.18) varied from neutral to alkaline range and lied within the optimum pH range for CH_4 production i.e., 5.2 -9.2 (Buchanan and Gibbons, 1975; Banik et al., 1993). With respect to seasonal CH_4 flux variations, soil pH and water pH exhibited insignificant correlation with $CH₄$ emissions (r=-0.02; p>0.05 for soil pH and r=-0.18; p>0.05 for water pH). Both soil pH and water pH remained constant throughout the year and showed no specific seasonal pattern (*Figure 3a, 4c, and 5c*).

Figure 4. Temporal variability in post-impoundment CH⁴ flux with respect to various water quality variables in Shallow water zone (SWZ) at Okhla reservoir

Soil temperature (ST) and water temperature (WT) were also found within the congenial range for methanogenesis (25°C - 35°C; Wassman et al., 1998; Dubey, 2005) as mean values for ST and WT were about 28.83 ± 1.10 °C and 28.34 ± 0.68 °C respectively. Seasonally, both ST and WT were found to be positively correlated with CH₄ flux (r=0.68; p<0.01 for ST and r=0.49; p<0.01 for WT) due the direct simulation of methanogenic activity at high temperatures in summer season leading to enhanced CH4 emission rates (*Figure 3a, 4b, and 5a*).

Reservoir water also exhibited high annual mean concentrations of nutrients including $PO_4^{3} (1.29 \pm 0.14 \text{ mg l}^{-1})$ and $NO_3 (4.23 \pm 0.87 \text{ mg l}^{-1})$ indicating existence of eutrophic conditions in the reservoir. These nutrients primarily enter the reservoir through river's inflow water enriched in domestic, agricultural and industrial wastes. Addition of excess nutrients mainly results in high biomass production particularly in the form of dense macrophytic growth. Thus, high nutrient levels further support high CH⁴ flux in a eutrophic Okhla reservoir due to accelerated plant productivity. Seasonally, PO_4^3 showed insignificant correlation with CH₄ flux (r=-0.14; p>0.05) as the $PO₄³$ content of WZ remained nearly stable throughout the year with slightly higher concentration during winter season. On the other hand, $NO₃$ was found to be negatively but weakly correlated with seasonal CH₄ flux ($r=0.36$; $p<0.05$). This may be due the reason that $NO₃$ content was found to be higher in the winter season but during monsoon and summer season NO₃ content was almost same (*Figure 4d and 5d*).

Figure 5. Temporal variability in post-impoundment CH4 flux with respect to various water quality variables in Deep water zone (DWZ) at Okhla reservoir

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Maximum NO_3^- and PO_4^3 loadings during winter season might be due to the discharge of nutrient rich untreated wastewater into the reservoir from the unidentified non-point source (industrial units) as Okhla reservoir is surrounded by the Okhla industrial area. In addition to this, $NO₃$ content increases during winter due to enhanced contribution from nitrogen rich sediments under high oxygen status during winter season. Contrary, NO₃ values during monsoon and summer season were principally low because of increased biotic utilization by macrophytes.

Conclusions and future outlook

Present research work has brought out vividly that the Okhla reservoir represents a strong CH_4 emission source as the emissions from this reservoir far exceeded the CH_4 flux values reported for a eutrophic and other temperate, boreal, sub-tropical and tropical reservoirs. Higher CH_4 emissions are attributed to long water retention time, enhanced organic and nutrient loadings from Yamuna and Hindon river, high primary productivity especially macrophytes and high percentage of low depth shallow areas. The CH4 emissions in Okhla reservoir exhibits a significant seasonal trend with maximum emissions during summer season and minimum during winter season in line those reported for various other tropical and subtropical reservoirs. This was due to the occurrence of suitable conditions of temperature, Eh, DO, BOD, WD and plant biomass during summer season.

In conclusion, this study demonstrated that the tropical/subtropical shallow reservoirs heavily infested with aquatic vegetation (like Okhla reservoir) can contribute significant amounts (171.96 mg m^2 d⁻¹) of CH₄ to the atmosphere after flooding. Thus, for sustainable use of tropical/subtropical reservoirs, CH_4 emission estimation from these reservoirs should constitute an integral part of environmental impact assessment studies prior to construct any reservoir in the hot tropical and subtropical areas. Further, based on this study some of the important management strategies can be adopted for regulating CH⁴ emissions in tropical and subtropical reservoirs: 1) Assessment of total carbon stock (soil organic carbon and plant biomass), organic and pollutant loadings of inflow water and CH_4 production potential of reservoir area before submersion, 2) Maintenance of oligotrophic conditions in the reservoir after submersion by upholding appropriate water depth, checking growth of highly proliferating aquatic weeds including *Eichhornia crassipes* and *Typha angustifolia*, and organic/pollutant load of water to be discharged into the reservoir after flooding. Therefore, considering the paucity of substantial CH_4 emission data in tropical reservoirs, in future, CH_4 flux data obtained in Okhla reservoir may be used as an indicator for planning appropriate management strategies to minimize the CH₄ emissions from tropical and subtropical reservoirs.

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