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Ideas and perspectives: A strategic assessment of methane and nitrous oxide measurements in the marine environment

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Abstract. In the current era of rapid climate change, accurate characterization of climate-relevant gas dynamics - namely production, consumption and net emissions - is required for all biomes, especially those ecosystems most susceptible to the impact of change. Marine environments include regions that act as net sources or sinks for a number of climate-active trace gases including methane (CH_4) and nitrous oxide (N_2O). The temporal and spatial distributions of CH_4 and N_2O are controlled by the interaction of complex biogeochemical and physical processes. To evaluate and quantify the importance of these mechanisms relevant to marine CH_4 and N_2O cycling requires a combination of traditional scientific disciplines including oceanography, microbiology, and numerical modeling. Fundamental to all of these efforts is ensuring that the datasets produced by independent scientists around the world are comparable and interoperable. Equally critical is transparent communication within the research community about the technical improvements required to increase our collective understanding of marine CH_4 and N_2O. An Ocean Carbon & Biogeochemistry (OCB) sponsored workshop was organized to enhance dialogue and collaborations pertaining to marine CH_4 and N_2O. Here, we summarize the outcomes from the workshop to describe the challenges and opportunities for near-future CH_4 and N_2O research in the marine environment.

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1. Background

The most abundant greenhouse gases in the troposphere, excluding water vapor, are carbon dioxide (CO_2), methane (CH_4), and nitrous oxide (N_2O). Together they account for more than 80% of the total radiative forcing (IPCC, 2013) and their current tropospheric mole fractions and rates of increase are unprecedented in recent Earth history (Ciais et al., 2013; Burke et al., 2020; Fig. 1a). While CO_2 is the most abundant of the three greenhouse gases, CH_4 and N_2O both have a higher warming potential than CO_2 (Montzka et al., 2011). To accurately constrain the contribution of CH_4 and N_2O to Earth's radiation budget requires their sources and sinks to be quantified with high resolution at the global scale.

The oceans are a fundamental component of the global climate system and are a net source of tropospheric CH_4 and N_2O at the global scale, although local to regional budgets may include both source and sink aspects. There are far fewer marine measurements of dissolved CH_4 and N_2O than of dissolved CO_2 and while there is substantial international coordination with regard to CO_2 analysis, calibration and data reporting, no such coordination yet exists for CH_4 and N_2O (Wilson et al. 2018). Given the increasing prominence of climate change on scientific and societal agendas, greater coordination among the marine CH_4 and N_2O scientific community to provide more targeted measurements and increase the quality and interoperability of CH_4 and N_2O observations is particularly timely.

Despite the lack of an international coordinating framework, there have been important advances in our understanding of marine CH_4 and N_2O in numerous research disciplines, ranging from cellular metabolism and model microbial systems to large-scale modeling. For example, recent work identified novel microorganisms and metabolic pathways in the production of N_2O (Trimmer et al., 2016; Caranto and Lancaster, 2017) and CH_4 (Repeta et al. 2016; Bižić et al., 2020). Earth system models now incorporate improved N_2O parameterizations to better resolve the ocean's role in the global N_2O cycle (Battaglia and Joos, 2018). New techniques enable the discrimination of ancient and modern dissolved CH_4 (Sparrow et al., 2018) and the transfer of CH_4-derived carbon to other carbon pools (Pohlman et al., 2011; Garcia-Tigreros and Kessler, 2018). Other technological and analytical advances include improved near-continuous spectroscopic analysis that yield greater sampling resolution in surface waters (e.g. Gülzow et

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al., 2011; Arévalo-Martínez et al., 2013; Erler et al., 2015) and the deployment of analytical devices on robotic vehicles (Nicholson et al., 2018).

These scientific advances and an improvement in the quantity and quality of CH_4 and N_2O observations are timely given that large areas of both the open and coastal ocean remain under-sampled (Fig. 1b). This leads to uncertainty in oceanic CH_4 and N_2O inventories, their rates of production and consumption, and their emissions. This is problematic given that the marine environment is susceptible to an accelerating rate of anthropogenic change that will continue to modify the global cycles of carbon and nitrogen into the future. Environmental impacts on marine CH_4 and N_2O distributions include increasing seawater temperatures, decreasing concentrations of dissolved oxygen (O_2), acidification, retreat of ice and mobilization of carbon substrates from former permafrost, altering coastal run-off, and eutrophication (IPCC, 2019). These impacts will undoubtedly alter future CH_4 and N_2O exchange with the atmosphere, but the directions and magnitudes of these modified fluxes remains insufficiently understood.

A need to resolve the uncertainties prompted an evaluation of the collective ability of the international scientific community to accurately determine the distribution and emissions of CH_4 and N_2O, and the physical-biogeochemical factors that determine them. This became the focus of a marine CH_4 and N_2O workshop hosted by the Ocean Carbon and Biogeochemistry (OCB) program at Lake Arrowhead, California in October 2018. The workshop considered CH_4 and N_2O equally on the same agenda, even though nearly all field, laboratory, and modeling studies examine these trace gases separately. The rationale for this dual approach is that CH_4 and N_2O share common considerations of the physical, chemical, and microbial processes that dictate their water-column distributions (Bakker et al., 2014; Bodelier and Steenbergh, 2014). In addition, many of the analytical procedures for quantifying CH_4 and N_2O and the subsequent data quality assurances share many common requirements. The opportunity to bring a large research community together to increase dialogue and encourage the cross-fertilization of ideas was thus considered very valuable. This article articulates the workshop outcomes framed in the context of current marine CH_4 and N_2O research and explores future research opportunities and challenges.

2. Coordination of oceanic CH_4 and N_2O measurements

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Our understanding of the temporal and spatial distributions of oceanic CH_4 and N_2O derives from over five decades of open ocean and coastal observations, including targeted expeditions, repeat hydrographic surveys, and time-series monitoring, each of which has been crucial to the development of our current knowledge (Fig. 2). Targeted programs have enabled invaluable insights into the role of oxygen deficient zones in N_2O cycling (Babbin et al., 2015; Bourbonnais et al., 2017; Frey et al., 2020) and the exploration of CH_4-rich seeps and vents (Foucher et al., 2009; Suess, 2010; Boetius and Wenzhöfer, 2013). Basin-scale repeat hydrographic surveys (e.g. the international GO-SHIP program) have facilitated extensive water-column mapping to identify relevant water masses and evaluate ventilation rates (e.g. de la Paz et al., 2017). Other oceanic surveys have focused exclusively on surface sampling, using continuous equilibrator systems connected to various gas analyzers to yield high-resolution surface concentration fields of CH_4 and N_2O (Gülzow et al., 2013; Erler et al., 2015; Kodovska et al., 2016; Thornton et al., 2016a; Pohlman et al., 2017). In contrast, sustained long-term time-series measurements of CH_4 and N_2O at fixed monitoring stations are relatively few, but they span a range of latitudes and biogeochemical provinces (Fig. 2). The time-series observations provide the contextual background for seasonal and interannual variation that allow long-term temporal trends and episodic events to be identified and evaluated (Farías et al., 2015; Wilson et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2019). Overall, the majority of measurements enable the variability in marine CH_4 and N_2O to be quantified at the mesoscale or greater (i.e. from hundreds of kilometers to ocean basins), with monthly to annual resolution but there are substantially fewer datasets at the sub-mesoscale level (i.e. <10 km and hours to days) (Fig. 3). A major reason for the limited sampling at the sub-mesoscale level is that it necessitates high-resolution measurements to resolve the heterogeneous variability that exists at these time-space scales. Such analyses have only recently become technically feasible (discussed in more detail in Section 6).

Until recently there has been no formal coordination of observations across the CH_4 and N_2O scientific community. In response to this, a Scientific Committee on Oceanic Research (SCOR) Working Group was initiated in 2014 entitled: '*Dissolved N_2O and CH_4: Working towards a global network of ocean time series measurements'*. A major goal of the SCOR Working Group was to unite the international community in joint activities conceived to improve and inform seagoing CH_4 and N_2O analyses. An important activity was the preparation and distribution of common, combined gaseous CH_4 and N_2O standards to twelve international laboratories, with

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the aim of improving and standardizing calibration (Bullister et al., 2017). A subsequent inter-comparison of discrete seawater samples included the use of these standards and revealed the variability between laboratories. While there were some encouraging results from the intercomparison, such as the agreement between individual laboratories using contrasting techniques, overall a large range was observed in CH_4 and N_2O concentration data generated by the participating laboratories (Wilson et al., 2018). Such analytical discrepancies weaken our collective ability as a community to evaluate temporal-spatial variability in marine CH_4 and N_2O. The discrepancies also highlighted the need for Standard Operating Protocols (SOPs) for CH_4 and N_2O analyses to facilitate standardization of sampling, measurement, and calibration, as well as the reporting of data and accompanying metadata in common repositories. The SOPs are currently in preparation with intended publication on the Ocean Best Practices network.

A data repository for oceanic CH_4 and N_2O data known as the MarinE MEthane and NiTrous Oxide database (MEMENTO) was established in 2009 (Bange et al., 2009; Kock and Bange, 2015). MEMENTO is now sufficiently mature to support descriptions of the broad-scale surface distributions of CH_4 and N_2O (e.g. Suntharalingam et al., 2012; Zamora and Oschlies, 2014; Buitenhuis et al., 2018; Battaglia and Joos, 2018). Machine-learning mapping recently identified CH_4 and N_2O distributions and various physical and biogeochemical predictor variables (e.g. depth, temperature, salinity, O_2, nutrients, primary production) (Weber et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2020, Fig. 4). The application of gas transfer algorithms to the extrapolated oceanic CH_4 and N_2O distributions helped decrease the uncertainty in estimates of global air-sea exchange fluxes (Fig. 4c), thereby fulfilling one of the key goals of MEMENTO (Bange et al., 2009). Net global open ocean emissions of N_2O are now similarly estimated at 3–5 Tg N yr^{-1} by both Yang et al. (2020) and the Global Nitrous Oxide Project (Tian et al., 2020). In comparison, net global ocean CH_4 emissions from machine-learning mapping were estimated at 6–12 Tg CH_4 yr^{-1} (Weber et al., 2019), compared to 9–22 Tg CH_4 yr^{-1} in the most up-to-date CH_4 synthesis (Saunois et al., 2020). However, the narrower range for machine-learning derived CH_4 emissions retains high uncertainty in regions such as the Arctic, where emissions are highly heterogeneous and compounded by seasonal ice cover. Identifying the causes for uncertainty in high emission regions will greatly aid future sampling campaigns, as is discussed in the following sections.

3. Methane in marine environments

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In the surface waters of tropical and temperate oceans, the low supersaturation of CH_4 is driven by aerobic production arising from the decomposition of methyl phosphonate in phosphorus-depleted waters (Karl et al. 2008, Sosa et al., 2020), the degradation of methylated sulfur compounds by phytoplankton (Klintzsch et al., 2019), and other processes (Schmale et al., 2018). Deep within the ocean's pelagic interior, CH_4 is weakly undersaturated reflecting depletion via microbial oxidation (Reeburgh 2007; Weber et al., 2019). Towards the coastline, CH_4 supersaturation increases by orders of magnitude (Figure 5b), reflecting terrestrial inputs (e.g. river and groundwater) and CH_4 diffusion and ebullition from shallow anoxic methane rich sediments (Zhang et al., 2008; Borges et al., 2016; Upstill-Goddard and Barnes, 2016). Supersaturation of CH_4 occurs frequently in the Arctic Ocean and its relatively shallow marginal seas with the most extreme values observed in the Eurasian Arctic (e.g. Shakhova et al., 2010; Damm et al., 2015; Kosmach et al., 2015; Thornton et al, 2016a; Fenwick et al., 2017). Terrestrial and subsea permafrost are potential CH_4 sources to shelf waters in addition to CH_4 hydrates that are found in marginal shelves globally (Ruppel and Kessler, 2017). Large point source CH_4 emissions, such as seafloor gas seeps can be large sources to the atmosphere in small localized areas (e.g. Thornton et al., 2020), but these sites remain particularly difficult to parameterize in models. This reflects limited observations and a poor understanding of their spatial distributions, the driving mechanisms, and the wider context within the carbon cycle. For example, the upwelling of cold, nutrient-rich water that accompanies CH_4 ascending the water column stimulates CO_2 consumption by photosynthesizing phytoplankton, rendering such CH_4 seeps an overall net sink for climate-forcing gases (Pohlman et al., 2017). Recent work using thermal infrared satellite retrievals indicates increased high-latitude oceanic CH_4 release in late autumn, coincident with pycnocline breakdown and a deepening of the ocean mixed layer depth thereby bringing deep CH_4 to the surface (Yurganov et al., 2019). This is especially notable in the Kara and Barents Seas, but the remote observations have not yet been confirmed by surface ocean measurements which are difficult and therefore rare, except during the Arctic summer.

Seabed CH_4 emissions are hypothesized to increase in a warming ocean through the decomposition of gas hydrates, the degradation of subsea permafrost under some high-latitude seas, and the increased biodegradation of sediment carbon (Romanovskii et al., 2005; Biastoch et al., 2011; Ruppel and Kessler, 2017; Borges et al., 2019). Effort is thus focused on quantifying the fraction of CH_4 generated in or released from marine sediments that ultimately enters the

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atmosphere, particularly on shallow continental shelves and in coastal ecosystems. Natural stable isotopes have been used to inform spatial and temporal changes in dissolved CH_4 concentrations (e.g. Pack et al., 2011; Mau et al., 2012; Weinstein et al., 2016; Leonte et al., 2017; Chan et al., 2019) and incubation experiments with added stable isotopes and radiotracers have helped elucidate how oxidation (anaerobically in sediments and aerobically in the water column), ebullition (where CH_4 pore water partial pressure exceeds sediment hydrostatic pressure), and subsequent bubble dissolution in the water column interact to mitigate CH_4 emissions to air (Steinle et al., 2015; Jordan et al., 2020). The information deriving from these various approaches is inherently different but complementary. Isotope tracer incubations provide snapshots of rates specific to the methanotrophic community and CH_4 concentration at the time of sampling, whereas concentrations and isotopic gradients are used to infer *in situ* rates integrated over space and time. A recent study deployed a remotely operated vehicle to examine the isotopic fractionation of CH_4 during bubble ascent and used this to constrain the extent of bubble dissolution (Leonte et al., 2018). This work demonstrated an experimental approach established for broadly constraining water column CH_4 cycling directly from a surface research vessel.

Despite the range of analytical and experimental approaches available, determining whether the origin of the emitted CH_4 is seafloor release or aerobic production in the upper water column remains problematic. To date there is no straightforward way to routinely distinguish between seafloor derived and water column generated CH_4 for all locations. Even so, stable carbon and hydrogen isotope measurements (i.e. $\delta^{13}C\text{-}CH_4$ and $\delta^{2}H\text{-}CH_4$) combined with ancillary data may provide valuable source information. For example, combining these measurements with the ratio of CH_4 to higher order hydrocarbons (e.g. ethene (C_2H_4) and ethane (C_2H_6)) can be used to infer for example, whether the origin of the CH_4 is thermogenic, sub-seafloor, or biogenic within the water column (Whiticar, 1999; Pohlman et al., 2009; Lan et al., 2019). Continuous shipboard measurement of CH_4 isotopes in surface water (e.g. Pohlman et al., 2017) and in the atmospheric boundary layer (Pankratova et al., 2019; Berchet et al., 2020) are now possible and they have been used in combination with atmospheric inversion models to characterize and discriminate marine-emitted CH_4 from other sources (Berchet et al., 2020). Application of this method to land-based monitoring stations appears promising for apportioning CH_4 emissions from various marine regions and sources (Thonat et al., 2019). Additionally, in regions where aerobic CH_4

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oxidation is substantial, the resulting isotopic fractionation generates measurable vertical and/or horizontal seawater gradients that can also be used to identify contrasting biogenic CH_4 sources (Leonte et al., 2020). However, the general overlap in isotope compositions of sediment CH_4 (e.g. Thornton et al., 2016b; Sapart et al., 2017) can complicate purely isotope-based determinations of sources.

Measurements of the natural radiocarbon content of dissolved oceanic CH_4, while being highly specialized and requiring substantial amounts of ship time and processing (Kessler and Reeburgh, 2005; Sparrow and Kessler, 2017), provide valuable source information because the ^{14}C-CH_4 measurements are normalized to the same $\delta^{13}C$ value and are unaffected by the extent of oxidation. The bubbles sampled from hydrate and active seafloor seeps are largely devoid of radiocarbon (Pohlman et al., 2009; Kessler et al., 2008; Douglas et al., 2016). However, CH_4 in sediments can also be derived from more modern or recently deposited organic material and an exact determination of individual contributions is hard to achieve (Kessler et al., 2008; Sparrow et al., 2018). The powerful insights made by radiocarbon-CH_4 investigations would be further strengthened by concurrent sampling of other analytes that offer CH_4 source information, such as clumped isotopes. Isotope clumping, the co-occurrence of two or more of the less abundant isotopes in a molecule (e.g. ^{13}C and ^{2}H or ^{1}H and ^{2}H), provides unique information on marine CH_4 sources (Stolper et al., 2014; Wang et al, 2015; Douglas et al., 2017; Young et al., 2017; Giunta et al. 2019). In this approach, the isotopic deviations in samples from their random probability distributions can give insight into formation temperature and the extent of biochemical disequilibrium. However, the sample size required for a clumped isotope analysis in the oceanic environment away from areas of seafloor emission is large and exceeds the already demanding volume requirements for ^{14}C analyses by 1–2 orders of magnitude (Douglas et al., 2017). While the requirement of large sample size and lengthy measurement time currently preclude their more widespread application, clumped isotope measurements offer future promise in refining our understanding of the processes of marine CH_4 production and consumption.

4. Nitrous oxide in marine environments

The large-scale spatial distribution of N_2O in the global ocean is reasonably well-established. The highest open ocean N_2O values are in upwelling environments, where concentrations extend

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up to micromolar levels (Arévalo-Martínez et al., 2015) and production rates can be as high as 120 nM d^{-1} (Frey et al., 2020). The highly elevated N_2O concentrations can be proximal to regions with some of the lowest recorded N_2O concentrations, in the cores of O_2 deficient zones. This coexistence of the highest and lowest observed N_2O concentrations over vertical distances of tens of meters make upwelling regions a focal point for N_2O research, particularly since O_2 deficient ocean zones are increasing in size (Stramma et al., 2011). In contrast, in the surface waters of the expansive oligotrophic ocean gyres, N_2O is weakly supersaturated (103-105%) with respect to atmospheric equilibrium (Weiss et al., 1992; Wilson et al., 2017, Charpentier et al., 2010). Nitrous oxide becomes more highly saturated in the surface waters of equatorial upwelling regions due to the upward advection of N_2O-rich waters (Arévalo-Martínez et al., 2017). For the Arctic Ocean, the data indicate low net N_2O emissions, with some areas acting as net N_2O sources and others as N_2O sinks (Fenwick et al., 2017, Zhang et al., 2015).

Several parameters control net N_2O emissions from the ocean, including temperature, salinity, dissolved O_2, apparent oxygen utilization (AOU), nutrients, and microbial community abundance and composition. A recent modeling study trained with just three of these variables (chlorophyll, O_2, and AOU) accounted for 60% of the observed variability in oceanic N_2O concentrations (Yang et al., 2020), highlighting the importance of N_2O in productive upwelling systems. Correlations between N_2O and environmental variables provide some insight into the factors controlling its distribution, but they provide no information about the microorganisms or metabolic pathways involved. Microbial production of N_2O occurs during the metabolic processes of nitrification and denitrification (Stein and Yung, 2003). To determine which process dominates N_2O production at any given location requires the application of multiple methodological approaches, ideally in parallel.

One of the most commonly used approaches is the incubation of discrete water samples under *in situ* conditions with stable isotope (^{15}N) addition such as ^{15}N enriched NH_4^+, NO_2^- or NO_2^-/ NO_3^- to measure N_2O production rates from nitrification and denitrification, respectively (e.g. Ji et al., 2017). These approaches also provide insight into the microorganisms involved. For example, N_2O resulting from archaeal NH_4^+ oxidation is mostly formed from a combination of NH_4^+ and another N compound (e.g. NO_2^-) whereas bacteria produce N_2O from NH_4^+ alone (Santoro et al., 2011, Stieglmeier et al., 2014; Carini et al. 2018; Lancaster et al., 2018; Frey et al. 2020). Unfortunately, as with all incubation-based approaches ^{15}N techniques are subject to

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bottle artifacts, and the strong dependence of N_2O production and consumption on ambient O_2 increases the potential for contamination during the collection and manipulation of anoxic deep seawaters. Incubation based rate measurements are also compromised by abiotic N_2O production via chemodenitrification, specifically the reduction of NO_2^- coupled to Fe^{2+} oxidation, as observed in high Fe environments (Ostrom et al., 2016; Buchwald et al., 2016; Wankel et al., 2017). These issues highlight the need for incubation techniques that mitigate the effect of experimental artifacts (Stewart et al., 2012).

In addition to isotope addition and incubation, natural abundance water-column measurements of N_2O concentrations, isotopes, and isotopomers yield valuable rate and process information. These measurements are free from experimental artifacts and can be used to integrate over appropriate temporal and spatial scales. For example, nitrification in sunlit waters has been inferred from N_2O distributions (Dore and Karl, 1996), and N_2O production close to the ocean surface is a large contributor to the uncertainty in oceanic N_2O emissions (Ward et al., 1982; Zamora and Oeschlies, 2014). Isotopomers are isomers having the same number of each isotope of each element but differing in their structural positions. Nitrous oxide isotopomers are increasingly used, sometimes in combination with box models, to estimate the rates of different N_2O production pathways, in the upwelling systems off southern Africa (Frame et al., 2014) and Peru (Bourbonnais et al., 2017). There is however some disagreement about whether isotopomer signatures are robust indicators of the formation pathway (Yoshida and Toyoda, 2000; Sutka et al., 2006) or whether there is fractionation during production (Schmidt et al., 2004; Casciotti et al., 2018). Greater clarity is therefore required in the use of N_2O isotopes and isotopomers to infer metabolic pathways of N_2O formation. Notwithstanding this issue, field measurements of N_2O isotopes and/or isotopomers have the potential to greatly increase current experimental capabilities and robustness (Yu et al., 2020). However, the development of spectroscopic gas analysis systems that have been so advantageous to CH_4 research has been slower for N_2O. This is due to the higher costs and the increased complexity of the laser systems, although progress is being made to improve instrumental precision, and to decrease matrix effects and spectral interferences (e.g. Harris et al., 2019).

A better understanding of the microorganisms responsible for N_2O production and consumption is fundamental to deriving more accurate estimates of process rates. For example, the metabolic activity of ammonia oxidizing archaea can exceed that of ammonia oxidizing

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bacteria in the ocean (Santoro et al., 2010; Löscher et al., 2012; Fuchsman et al., 2017). The differing sensitivities of these archaea and bacteria to dissolved O_2 (Stahl and de la Torre, 2012; Hink et al., 2017) are a critical factor in evaluating the microbial response to changing environmental conditions, as shown for the terrestrial environment (Prosser at al., 2020). Therefore, to understand the impact of deoxygenation on oceanic N_2O emission requires a better understanding of both archaeal and bacterial metabolisms and their environmental niches. Field-based sequencing not only characterizes the community but can highlight potential metabolic pathways when they might not otherwise be inferred. For example, transcripts encoding for N_2O consumption (nosZ) have repeatedly been identified in the oxic water column, despite denitrification being an anaerobic metabolic process (Wyman et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2017). The transcription of nosZ has been also located in highly dynamic O_2 permeable coastal sediments (Marchant et al., 2017). Denitrification under aerobic conditions is attributed to fluctuations in O_2, NO_3^-, organic matter and other parameters that affect the availability of electron donors and acceptors which ultimately influences whether a coastal environment is a net source or sink of N_2O, as discussed in the next section.

5. CH_4 and N_2O in shallow marine environments

Coastal and other shallow (<50 m) marine systems are globally relevant CH_4 and N_2O source regions. However, their emission rates to the atmosphere are weakly constrained in comparison with the open ocean. Several factors contribute to the uncertainty, including the high diversity of coastal and shallow marine ecosystems and lack of consistency in adequately defining them, locally heterogeneous conditions causing strong spatial and temporal concentration gradients, highly uncertain spatial distribution of CH_4 seeps, a bias towards studies in the northern hemisphere, and incomplete or sometimes inappropriate sampling strategies (Al-Haj and Fulweiler, 2020). Until these issues are resolved it will remain difficult to adequately define the contribution from shallow marine systems to global CH_4 and N_2O budgets. An important illustration of this is reflected in the prevailing view that large geological sources (e.g. seeps, mud volcanoes, and hydrates) are the main contributors to marine CH_4 emissions (Ciais et al., 2013). The most recent modeled estimate of global marine CH_4 emissions (6–12 Tg CH_4 yr^{-1}) reported that near-shore environments (depths of 0–50 m) contribute a large and highly uncertain diffusive flux (Weber et al., 2019). A study of coastal ecosystems, in this case defined as shelf,

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estuarine, and tidally influenced rivers, estimated them to contribute 7 Tg CH_4 yr^{-1} (Anderson et al., 2010) while another estimated 1–7 Tg CH_4 yr^{-1} for estuaries alone (Borges and Abril, 2011). Similar uncertainties exist for N_2O. Estimates of coastal N_2O emissions (which include coastal, estuarine, and riverine sources) range from 0.1–2.9 Tg N yr^{-1} (Ciais et al., 2013), although a recent review of N_2O production across a range of estuarine habitats placed N_2O fluxes at the lower end of these estimates (0.17–0.95 Tg N yr^{-1}) (Murray et al., 2015). Based on these data, coastal systems account for around one third of total marine N_2O emissions (Yang et al., 2020).

The direct quantification of CH_4 and N_2O emissions from shallow coastal ecosystems has historically involved using gas concentrations measured in discrete water and air samples combined with a gas transfer velocity (k_w). For the coastal and open ocean, the dominant driver of gas exchange is wind speed (e.g. Nightingale et al., 2000; Wanninkhof, 2014) whereas in nearshore, shallow water environments the interaction of water, depth, and tidal current speeds may be a major contributor to near surface turbulence. Several k_w parameterizations are now in use for coastal waters (e.g. Raymond and Cole 2001; Kremer et al., 2003; Zappa et al., 2003; Borges and Abril, 2011; Ho et al. 2011; Rosentreter et al., 2017; Jeffrey et al., 2018) which increases the uncertainties associated with CH_4 and N_2O emissions. For example, a fivefold variation in CH_4 emissions from a single system occurred when applying different parameterizations to the measured gradients in CH_4 (Ferrón et al., 2007).

In order to constrain emissions over small areas continuous air-sea fluxes can be measured using free-floating chambers (e.g. Bahlmann et al., 2015; Rosentreter et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018; Murray et al., 2020), but issues related to turbulence modification may still generate flux artifacts (Upstill-Goddard, 2006). To overcome these problems in the future, a greater reliance on direct and robust continuous techniques for air-sea flux measurement, such as eddy covariance (e.g. Podgrajsek et al., 2016) that avoids any need for k_w, will be necessary. Combining this with new analytical techniques such as cavity enhanced absorption spectroscopy (CEAS) and non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) should continue to improve the quality of such estimates (McDermitt et al., 2011; Nemitz et al., 2018; Maher et al., 2019). Indeed, eddy flux towers aboard ships (Thornton et al., 2020) and in coastal locations (Yang et al., 2016; Gutiérrez-Loza et al., 2019) are now being equipped with CH_4 instrumentation that enables the integration of CH_4 fluxes over large areas. There are fewer N_2O flux estimates made with CEAS and NDIR and the implementation of N_2O sensors on eddy flux towers remains limited. Recently, N_2O

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emissions from three major Eastern Boundary Upwelling Systems were quantified using atmospheric measurements from coastal monitoring stations highlighting their ability to attain multi-year time-series measurements (Ganesan et al., 2020).

Flux towers at fixed locations provide a stable instrument platform and facilitate the collection of ancillary data such as water-column depth, tidal motions (Rosentreter et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2019; Pfeiffer-Hebert et al., 2019), and other information relating to diel processes (Maher et al., 2016). Such data are important because for example, the magnitude of CH_4 and N_2O fluxes vary over a diel period depending on the redox environment as a result of tidal effects and changes in inorganic N and O_2 availability (Seitzinger and Kroeze, 1998; Call et al., 2015; Vieillard and Fulweiler, 2014; Maher et al., 2015; Murray et al., 2015; Foster and Fulweiler, 2019). The magnitude of CH_4 and N_2O fluxes also varies over longer temporal scales (seasonally to yearly) due to additional factors such as groundwater inputs, adjacent land-use, dissolved O_2, organic matter content and quality, and macrofaunal distributions (Barnes and Upstill-Goddard, 2011; Upstill-Goddard and Barnes, 2016; Gelesh et al., 2016; Bonaglia et al., 2017; Borges et al., 2018; Wells et al., 2018; Ray et al., 2019; Al-Haj and Fulweiler, 2020; Reading et al., 2020). To determine the contributing factors and resolve the spatial distributions, mobile sampling platforms such as small vessels (Müller et al., 2016; Brase et al., 2017; Tait et al., 2017), and autonomous vehicles (Manning et al., 2019) are essential. Recent improvements in gas sensors and in technology such as sonar and ebullition sensors will further increase our ability to measure dynamic fluxes (Maher et al., 2019; Lohrberg et al., 2020). Improvements to the quality and quantity of CH_4 and N_2O measurements in coastal systems will enable the development of iterative forecast models, further improving estimates of global coastal CH_4 and N_2O fluxes.

6. Leveraging culture studies to further our ecosystem understanding

A more complete understanding of marine CH_4 and N_2O necessitates closer integration between biogeochemistry, model requirements, and targeted microbiological studies involving both single microorganism isolates and enrichment cultures. Marine CH_4 and N_2O budgets deriving from both ‘bottom-up’ (e.g. emissions inventories, ocean and terrestrial process models) and ‘top-down’ (e.g. inverse analyses of atmospheric trace-gas measurements) approaches would greatly benefit from more highly constrained metabolic processes. Specifically, this includes rates of

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435 CH_4 or N_2O production and consumption for key model microorganisms, and the kinetic
436 parameters associated with these metabolic rates. Reliable inventories of key microbially
437 mediated process rates will improve the robustness of Earth System models used for predicting
438 climate-mediated changes to marine CH_4 and N_2O emissions.
439 For N_2O, laboratory studies quantifying microbial process rates, such as for nitrification and
440 denitrification, are relatively few (e.g. Frame and Casciotti 2010; Santoro et al. 2011; Löscher et
441 al. 2012; Ji et al. 2015; Qin et al., 2017). Consequently, models largely continue to use process
442 rates optimized using water column concentrations of N_2O, O_2, and related nitrogen cycle
443 quantities (e.g. Battaglia and Joos, 2018; Buitenhuis et al., 2018; Landolfi et al., 2017). Future
444 model parameterizations for N_2O will require information on the variability of microbial process
445 yields derived from culture studies with controlled varying conditions of O_2 (Goreau et al. 1980,
446 Frame and Casciotti 2010, Löscher et al. 2012; Ji et al., 2018), pH (Breider et al., 2019; Hopkins
447 et al. 2020), temperature, and nutrients. Automated incubation systems have measured N_2O
448 production kinetics and yield as functions of the concentrations of O_2 and total ammonia nitrogen
449 (Molstad et al., 2007; Hink et al., 2017). Quantifying the physiology of relevant microorganisms
450 and connecting them to environmental characteristics will provide insights into why, for
451 example, some shallow marine habitats act as N_2O sinks while others are N_2O sources, or how
452 N_2O is produced in well oxygenated open-ocean waters, as compared to oxygen deficient zones.
453 For CH_4, a key requirement to relate *in situ* CH_4 production with transport to atmospheric
454 emissions is our ability to accurately determine rates of CH_4 oxidation. Fundamental issues
455 include the challenges of cultivating methanotrophs and of replicating environmental conditions
456 such as pressure and the chemistry of CH_4 gas bubbles. The increased emphasis on CH_4
457 dynamics in shallow water environments highlighted in Section 5, must be supported by culture-
458 based measurements of CH_4 oxidation that control for temperature, O_2 and other important
459 variables. In comparison to CH_4 oxidation, culture-based studies are used increasingly to
460 identify organisms capable of aerobic CH_4 production and their underlying metabolic pathways
461 (Carini et al., 2014; Klintzsch et al; 2019; Bižić et al., 2020).
462 Specific cellular yields and consumption rates of CH_4 and N_2O are not the sole objective of
463 culturing experiments. Cultivation of microorganisms involved in CH_4 and N_2O production and
464 consumption provides vital information into the physiology, metabolism, and interactions of
465 environmentally relevant clades. When combined with genomic approaches, insights can

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466 therefore be gained into the diversity and global distribution of organisms involved in CH_4 and
467 N_2O cycling. For CH_4 some unexpected physiologies have been revealed (Ettwig et al., 2010;
468 Haroon et al., 2013; Ettwig et al., 2016), which has directed research into sources and sinks of
469 CH_4 in the natural environment. Similarly, our understanding of how and when ammonia
470 oxidizers produce N_2O has been facilitated by studies of cultured nitrifiers and detailed analysis
471 of their biochemistry (Stahl and de la Torre, 2012; Caranto and Lancaster, 2017). Recent
472 combinations of cultivation studies with environmental genomics, albeit largely for terrestrial
473 systems, have revealed a variety of denitrifiers, many of which are only involved in specific
474 denitrification steps (Ganesh et al., 2014; Lycus et al, 2017; Hallin et al, 2018; Marchant et al.,
475 2018; Conthe et al, 2019).
476
477 **7. Outlook and priorities for marine CH_4 and N_2O measurements**
478 This perspectives article has assessed the collective ability of the scientific community to
479 determine the spatial variability of marine CH_4 and N_2O distributions, the underlying
480 mechanisms that determine this variability, and the resulting sea-to-air emissions. Shallow
481 marine environments and oxygen deficient zones are widely recognized as deserving of greater
482 attention because they have high CH_4 and N_2O concentrations with inherently high uncertainties
483 that complicate any assessment of their emissions to air (Bange et al., 1994; Bange et al., 1996;
484 Bakker et al., 2014; James et al., 2016; Borges et al., 2016; Tian et al., 2020). Fortunately, recent
485 technological advances that have increased our ability to conduct high-resolution measurements
486 allow an optimistic outlook for making substantial progress in quantifying the CH_4 and N_2O
487 budgets of these ecosystems. Even so, the inherent complexity of shallow marine environments
488 clearly warrants a strategically coordinated approach to optimize the value of future studies.
489 Issues to consider include identifying the locations of complementary sampling sites,
490 standardizing sampling strategies and techniques, and agreeing the use of common ancillary
491 measurements that set the broad biogeochemical context (Bange et al., 2019). In contrast to the
492 open ocean, measurement campaigns in shallow water environments are amenable to the use of
493 eddy covariance flux towers, and they have the potential to lever resources from existing
494 observation networks, which in North America include the Long-Term Ecological Research
495 network (LTER) and the National Estuarine Research Reserve (NERR) System (Novick et al.,
496 2018). Indeed, such activities are already underway; an increasing number of flux towers are

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being equipped for CH_4 measurements (Torn et al., 2019) and future efforts should focus on the inclusion of N_2O (see Section 5).

We are encouraged that the Global Carbon Project with its objective of developing a complete picture of the global carbon cycle including interactions and feedbacks has expanded to include CH_4 (Saunois et al., 2020) and is now incorporating N_2O (Tian et al., 2020). These Projects compile the most recent data from peer-reviewed analyses of the sources and sinks of atmospheric CH_4 and N_2O from both natural and human activities. For example, the aquatic components of the recent Global Carbon Project N_2O budget reported emissions from the open ocean, inland waters, estuaries and coastal zones. Low-oxygen oceanic regions associated with eastern-boundary upwelling zones, and the coastal ocean were identified as key regions with significant N_2O variability requiring more detailed assessment via measurement campaigns and model analyses (Tian et al., 2020). Coordinating with global initiatives such as the Global Carbon Project and identifying other areas of synergistic CH_4 and N_2O research of mutual benefit to oceanographers and scientists studying other biomes serve to strengthen the scientific achievements of all involved (Ganesan et al., 2019). Furthermore, as highlighted in Section 6, field observations alone are insufficient to improve the robustness of Earth System models and leveraging laboratory-based microbial process studies is highly recommended.

The success of any coordinated CH_4 and N_2O research program relies heavily on having uniformly high confidence in the various resulting datasets and their interoperability, and we identify three key initiatives that are paramount to ensuring this:

(i) The first is to develop and adopt Standard Operating Protocols (SOPs) to help obtain intercomparable CH_4 and N_2O datasets of the highest possible accuracy and precision. In our recent marine CH_4 and N_2O inter comparison exercise we concluded that the diversity of analytical procedures employed by the participants was a major cause of high variability between the reported concentrations, highlighting an urgent requirement for CH_4 and N_2O SOPs (Wilson et al., 2018). Consequently, these SOPs are now being compiled, and they will be freely available via the Ocean Best Practices System.

(ii) The second is the regular, routine inter comparison of measurements, by periodically distributing to the community "consensus material", i.e. water samples in which CH_4 and N_2O concentrations are known with high confidence, obtained by pooling analyses from several laboratories with demonstrated analytical capability. These will allow us to routinely monitor

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data inter comparability and accuracy, particularly in the case of highly elevated concentrations of CH_4 and N_2O, i.e. those exceeding atmospheric equilibrium concentrations by at least an order of magnitude.

(iii) The third activity is increased use and support for MEMENTO. Until now the main function of MEMENTO has been as a data repository. In this regard, it has been very valuable in supporting the modeling components of CH_4 and N_2O research (see Section 3). We encourage a much more widespread, routine, use of this data facility, with submitted data produced according to the SOPs and inter comparison procedures. To maintain its relevance, MEMENTO must continue to build its activities and develop into an 'ocean CH_4 and N_2O Atlas'. The international marine carbon science community has widely embraced such an approach for CO_2, by submitting data to the Surface Ocean CO_2 Atlas (SOCAT), which was initiated in response to the need for a quality controlled, publicly available, global surface CO_2 dataset (e.g. Bakker et al., 2016). We believe establishing a similar data product for marine CH_4 and N_2O to be essential for supporting future global modeling efforts and to enhance and reward community engagement.

The benefits of pursuing the three activities described above have already been clearly demonstrated for carbon system measurements in the ocean. The intercomparability and high accuracy and precision of carbon system measurements was achieved by streamlining methodological approaches, universally adopting agreed SOPs, production of reference material, and following community-driven quality control procedures (Dickson et al., 2007, Dickson et al, 2010). It is encouraging to see the marine CH_4 and N_2O community beginning to move in a similar direction.

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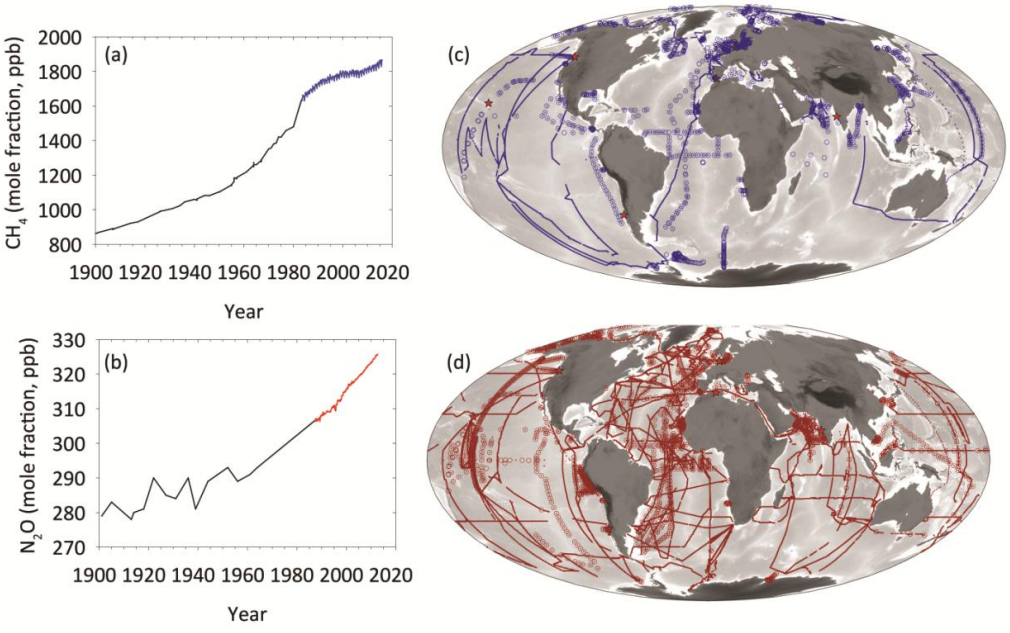

Figure 1. Atmospheric values of (a) CH_4 and (b) N_2O with the black lines reconstructed from ice-core measurements (Etheridge et al., 1998; Machida et al., 1995) and the colored lines from Mauna Loa Observatory (https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/dv/data/). Global maps of marine (c) CH_4 and (d) N_2O measurements available from the MEMENTO database (https://memento.geomar.de/). The 2018 workshop focused on the marine contribution to atmospheric CH_4 and N_2O and the underlying microbial and biogeochemical control mechanisms.

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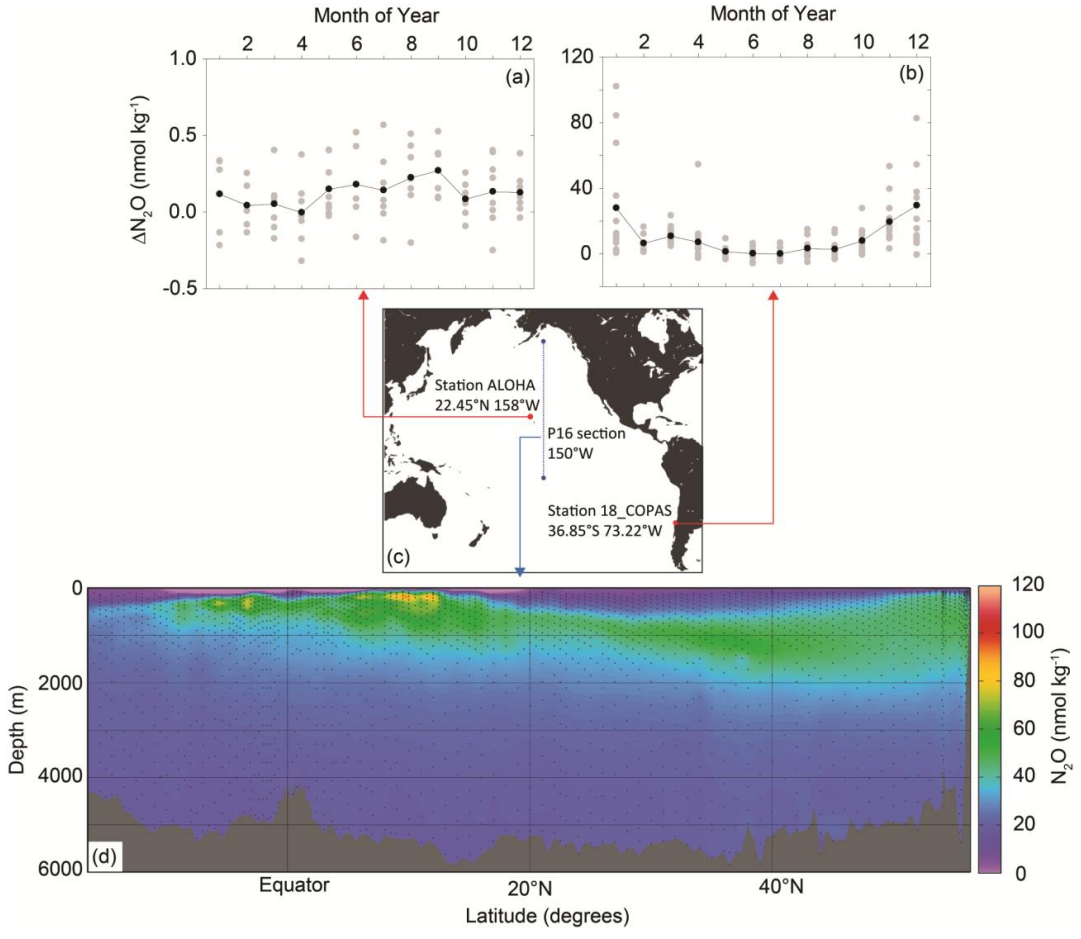

Figure 2. Repeat oceanic observations include both (a, b) fixed location time-series monitoring observations and (c,d) hydrographic surveys. Together, such field observation programs helps resolve temporal variability ranging from months to years and spatial variability at the ocean basin scale (see Fig. 3). The Station ALOHA data derive from Wilson et al. (2018), the Station 18 data derive from Farías et al. (2015), and the P16 transect was conducted in 2015 by the NOAA PMEL Tracer Group as part of the GO-SHIP program. The data shown in the plots are N_2O concentrations, either as ΔN_2O (i.e. deviation from equilibrium value) or absolute values.

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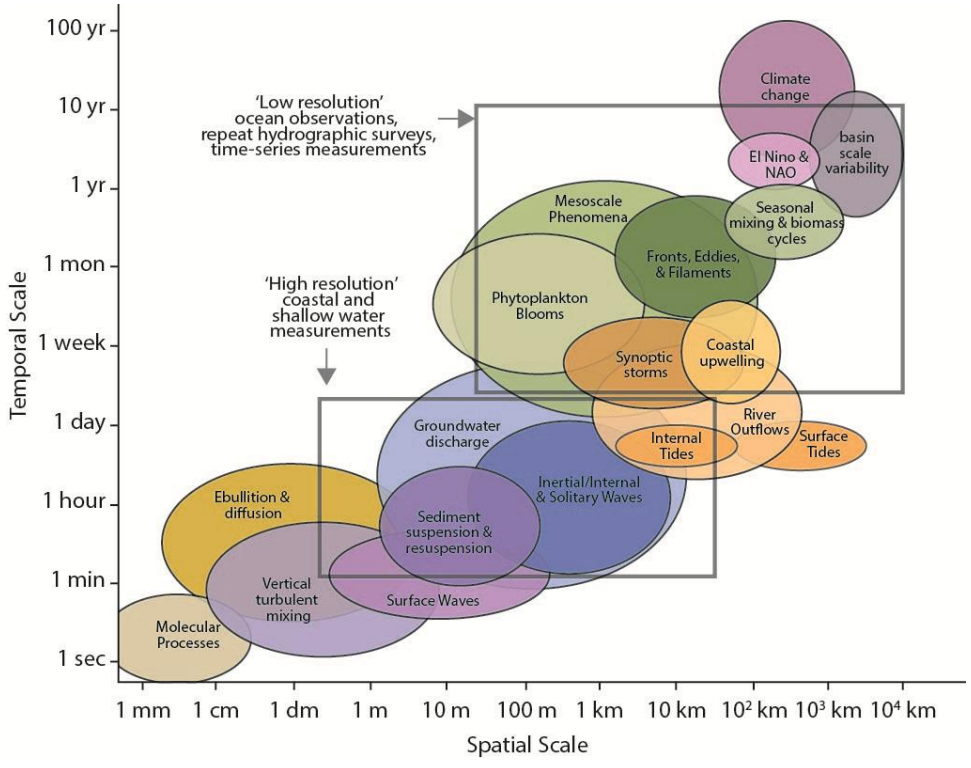

Figure 3. Time-space scale diagram illustrating various physical, biological, and climatological processes relevant to marine CH_4 and N_2O (adapted from Dickey, 2003). To date, the majority of marine CH_4 and N_2O measurements resolve variability at the mesoscale level or higher. Recent technological developments and the need to resolve concentrations and fluxes in shallow water environments will increase the number of measurements conducted at the sub mesoscale.

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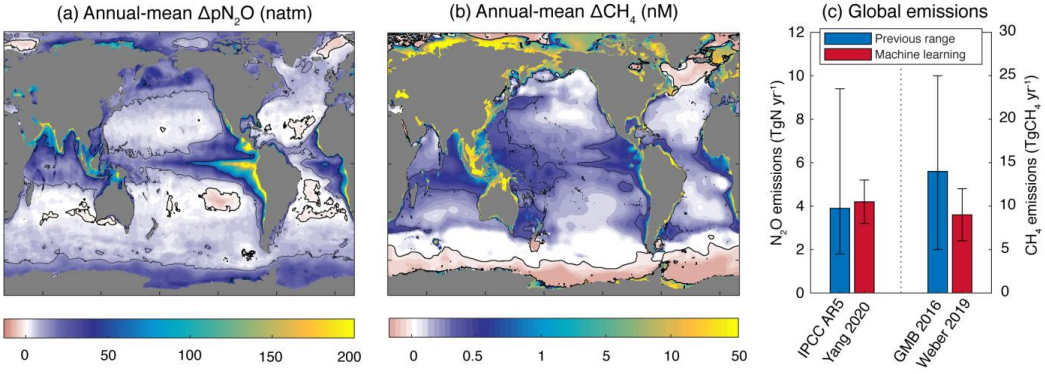

Figure 4. Distributions and emissions of marine CH_4 and N_2O, (a) Air-sea N_2O disequilibrium mapped using a Regression Forest model (adapted from Yang et al., 2020), (b) Air-sea CH_4 disequilibrium mapped using an Artificial Neural Network model (adapted from Weber et al., 2019). For consistency with the original publications, the air-sea disequilibrium is shown in different units for N_2O (partial pressure) and CH_4 (concentration). (c) A summary of global ocean CH_4 and N_2O emissions estimated by Yang et al. (2020) and Weber et al. (2019), compared to the estimates of the IPCC 5th Annual Report (IPCC AR5) and the Global Methane Budget (Saunois et al., 2016).

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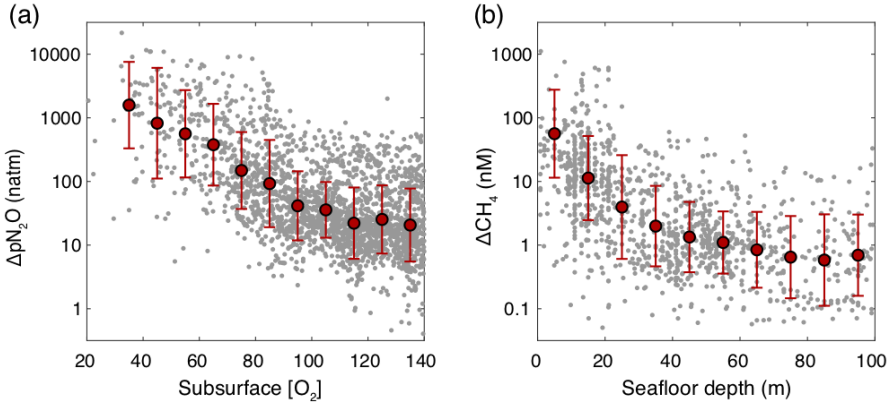

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1220 Figure 5. Key environmental predictors of surface ocean CH_4 and N_2O gradients. (a) Excess air-
1221 sea N_2O is best predicted by O_2 concentrations in the subsurface water-column (base of the
1222 mixed layer to a depth of 100 m) (adapted from Yang et al., 2020). (b) Excess CH_4 is best
1223 predicted by seafloor depth, reflecting the supply from anoxic sediments (adapted from Weber et
1224 al., 2019). The grey dots represent individual data points and the red dots with error bars
1225 represent mean ±1s.d. of binned data, using O_2 bins of 10 µM width and seafloor depth bins of
1226 10 m width.

1227