

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Geochemistry of Negombo Lagoon sediments in Sri Lanka: implications for environmental monitoring

UMP Wijesinghe¹, AS Ratnayake^{1*} and NP Ratnayake^{2,3}

¹ Department of Applied Earth Sciences, Faculty of Applied Sciences, Uva Wellassa University, Badulla.

² Department of Earth Resources Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, University of Moratuwa, Katubedda.

³ Ocean University of Sri Lanka, Crow Island, Mattakuliya.

Submitted: 27 March 2020; Revised: 29 August 2020; Accepted: 23 October 2020

Abstract: Negombo Lagoon is one of the largest lagoons in Sri Lanka. This study focused on the geochemical evaluation of poorly understood tropical subtidal sediments of the western coast, Sri Lanka. Geochemical characteristics of sediments were examined using $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ stable isotopes, X-ray diffraction (XRD), and Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) analyses. The chronology was determined using accelerated mass spectrometry (AMS) ^{14}C dates for undamaged two shells. Stratigraphic observations suggested grey to blackish fine-grained muddy clay sediments in the subtidal mudflat. The calculated organic matter and carbonate contents decrease slightly from bottom to surface sediments. Bulk C/N ratios and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values suggested terrestrial organic matter dominant sediments such as from mangrove swamps mixed with marine dissolved organic carbon. XRD identified the crystalline phases present in sediments and thereby chemical composition was identified by the software as illite, montmorillonite, and quartz. It indicates the deposition of limited chemical weathering materials from near distance sources. FTIR identified several functional groups such as carboxylic, polysaccharide, carboxylate ions, and aliphatic substances in the lagoon sediments. The variations of carboxylic groups/carboxylate ions indicate a slow rate of decomposition of organic matter during early diagenesis. Humification and decomposition proxies also indicate slow rates of decomposition under the anoxic condition. However, Negombo Lagoon still acts as a healthy ecosystem under the minor influence of sewage/agricultural nutrient contamination.

Keywords: Decomposition, diagenesis, humification, subtidal mudflat, tropical lagoon sediments.

INTRODUCTION

Tropical brackish ecosystems such as mangrove swamps, intertidal/subtidal mudflats, and coastal peatlands play an important role in the global biogeochemical cycles (Yu *et al.*, 2010; Page *et al.*, 2011; Gallego-Sala *et al.*, 2018). Tropical coastal aquatic systems are natural depositional archives for terrestrial materials over short to longer timescales (Kumaran *et al.*, 2013; Ratnayake *et al.*, 2017; Dubois *et al.*, 2018). Limnological studies provide proxy information to reconstruct the delivery and decomposition changes in the burial of sedimentary organic matter during early diagenesis. However, tropical subtidal sediments have received little attention in limnological studies on the modern time scale compared to mid- to high-latitude intertidal and subtidal sediments. The present study thus focuses to understand carbon sink potential, depositional, and decomposition characteristics of tropical subtidal sediments in Negombo Lagoon of Sri Lanka (Figure 1).

The island of Sri Lanka consists of about 1770 km long coastal tract with diverse geomorphological features such as lagoons, bays, lakes, wetlands, and peatlands. The formation of coastal lagoons has resulted in late Quaternary marine transgression (Katupotha, 1988; Katupotha & Fujiwara, 1988). Negombo Lagoon is one of the largest estuarine lagoons in Sri Lanka. The

* Corresponding author (as_ratnayake@uwu.ac.lk;  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7871-2401>)



This article is published under the Creative Commons CC-BY-ND License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nd/4.0/>). This license permits use, distribution and reproduction, commercial and non-commercial, provided that the original work is properly cited and is not changed in anyway.

Muthurajawela peatland is the southern extension of Negombo Lagoon (Figure 1). Geochemical characteristics of Negombo Lagoon sediments can be influenced by the materials derived from the Muthurajawela peatland. Therefore, the lake sediments can be used to understand the sedimentary geochemistry as a function of erosion, transport, deposition, burial, and decomposition of organic matter during early diagenesis that is highly sensitive to environmental changes. However, geochemical characteristics of lagoon sediments have rarely been focused in Sri Lanka (Ratnayake *et al.*, 2017, 2018). In addition, understanding of geochemistry in lagoon sediments can be applied with aspects of environmental monitoring assessments and prediction of aquatic health (Owca *et al.*, 2020; Zerizghi *et al.*, 2020).

The objective of the current study is to provide reference data for quality assessment of Negombo Lagoon sediments. In this study, the authors investigated the geochemistry of Negombo Lagoon sediments using Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), X-Ray diffraction (XRD), stable isotope ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) analyses, along with accelerated mass spectrometry (AMS) ^{14}C dating. This study provides comprehensive coverage of geochemical characteristics of Negombo Lagoon sediments over the modern period of the Anthropocene.

METHODOLOGY

Study area and sampling locations

Negombo Lagoon and its southern extension of Muthurajawela peatland are located on the west coast of Sri Lanka (Figure 1). Negombo Lagoon covers an area of 32 km² with an average water depth of 1.2 m. The maximum length and width of the lagoon are about 12.0 km and 3.8 km, respectively. The northern part of the study area opens to the Indian Ocean through narrow channels due to having several islands at the estuary mouth.

The southward part of the study area is connected to the Muthurajawela peatlands which covers an area of approximately 21 km² with an average thickness of 3.7 m over the lateritic soil (Dissanayake *et al.*, 1982). This Quaternary formation is the largest peat deposit in Sri Lanka with having high sulfur content ranging from 3.0 to 5.5 % (Dissanayake *et al.*, 1982). The intertidal area of Negombo Lagoon is mainly composed of tropical wetland species such as fringe mangroves and mangrove associates. The study area can be recognised as the biodiversity-rich ecosystem. For example, Negombo

Lagoon comprises 89 species of benthic invertebrates, 29 mangrove species, 7 seagrass species, and 140 species of fish (Dahanayake *et al.*, 2008).

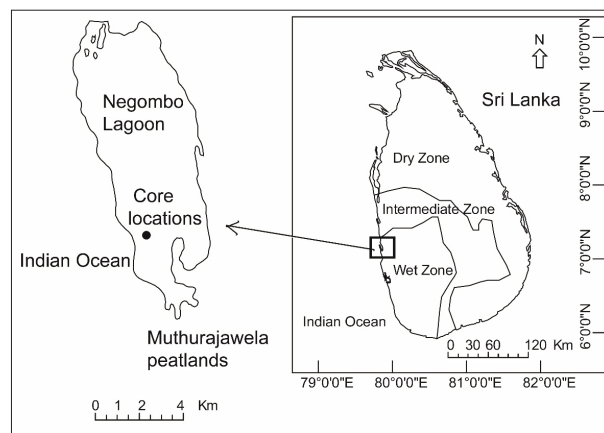


Figure 1: Sri Lanka map showing Negombo Lagoon and sampling locations.

The sampling sites were selected from the southern part of Negombo Lagoon which has greater vulnerability for the accumulation of tropical peaty organic matter in sediments. Two nearby sediment cores [(NLC 1, Global Positioning System (GPS) Coordinates: 7.07190 N, 79.50460 E and NLC2, GPS Coordinates: 7.122054 N, 79.846077 E)] were collected from the southern part of Negombo Lagoon using a hand auger sampler (Figure 1). The elevations of these coring sites are less than the mean sea-level. NCL 1 and NCL 2 show similar lithological variations. Therefore, NLC 1 (64 cm in depth) sediment core was used for geochemical analyses.

Methods

Moisture content and loss on ignition

Core logs were prepared in the field using visual inspection. Sediment core samples were sealed and placed in cooling boxes during transportation to the laboratory. After that, samples were stored in a refrigerator at 4 °C until further treatments. The core samples were sliced into 2 cm intervals. Moisture, organic matter, and carbonate contents were determined for 32 sediment samples.

First, 2 cm-interval sediment samples were ground into a fine powder (less than silt size) using agate mortar and pestle. The wet weight of powder samples was measured, and placed in the convection oven at 110 °C

for 24 h to measure dry weight. Moisture content was expressed as a percentage of the difference between initial wet weight and dry weight (110 °C) to the initial wet weight [(American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM) reference no: D2216 – 19)]. Loss on ignition (LOI) test (LOI_{550°C} and LOI_{950°C}) was carried out for every 2 cm-interval sub samples to determine organic matter and carbonate contents, respectively (Dean, 1974; Byers *et al.*, 1978; Heiri *et al.*, 2001). Approximately 5.0 g of the same samples were reheated up to 550 °C for 6 h in a Muffle furnace to calculate organic matter content. Similarly, carbonate content was calculated using the weight of a baked sample up to 950 °C in a Muffle furnace for an additional 2 h.

Stable isotopic composition

Powder samples were flash combusted at roughly 1800 °C to produce various carbon and nitrogen compounds. These compounds were carried by a continuous flow of helium (90 mL/min) and then passed through a series of catalysts to convert the remaining CO to CO₂. A reduction column consisted of elemental copper for reducing NO and NO₂ to elemental nitrogen (N₂). Nitrogen and carbon dioxide gasses were separated from the sample through a gas chromatography (GC) column and were then analysed for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ using a Thermo Fisher Scientific Delta V Advantage Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS) coupled with a Carlo Erba NC 2500 elemental analyser at Illinois State Geological Survey, USA.

Ammonium sulfate standards USGS-25 and USGS-26, L-Glutamic Acid USGS-40, as well as IAEA-600 Sucrose, and an internally calibrated amino acid (L-Serine) were analysed as nitrogen standards in duplicate and a calibration curve was generated. Samples were then calibrated and reported as $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ vs. Air. Atropine, IAEA-600 Caffeine, USGS-40, and Amino Acid L-Serine were analysed as carbon standards and a calibration curve was generated. Samples were then calibrated and reported as $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB). The calibration curves produced by the above-mentioned standards typically yields an R² value of 0.9995 or better. The compiled results show the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ to be better than $\pm 0.22\%$, and the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ to be better than $\pm 0.11\%$.

XRD analysis

The X-ray diffraction powder patterns were recorded for seven smooth and well-packed sediment samples

at room temperature using Rigaku Ultima (IV) X-ray diffractometer (XRD) with a source of CuK α radiation and NaI scintillation counter detector. The narrow silt of 0.1 mm was used during the recording of diffractograms with a scanning speed of 0.02°/second. Diffraction data were collected in the Bragg-Brentano θ -2 θ geometry with CuK α radiation. The estimated error in the lattice parameter is the order of 0.0005 Å.

FTIR analysis

Sediment samples were finely powdered, and mixed with potassium bromide (KBr) at 1:10. In this study, potassium bromide (KBr) pellet method was used to prepare samples. FTIR grade (assay $\geq 99\%$) dried KBr was used as alkali halide. Approximately 0.10% powdered sample was well mixed with KBr powder using a clean dry agate mortar and pestle. A pellet of 1 mm in thickness and 7 mm in diameter was prepared using hand press pelletizer and 7 mm die. KBr/powder mixture was loaded into the die chamber and upper anvil was placed in the press. Then, hand pressure was applied to the lever to form clear KBr/powder disks. The die collar with the formed pellets was removed from the press and it was placed directly in the beam of the spectrometer for analysis. This procedure was followed for the preparation of every pellet. Before performing the measurements, the background was measured with a pellet of KBr that contains no sample.

FTIR analysis was carried out for 32 sediment samples using a Bruker Alpha spectrophotometer. The functional groups were identified over the range of 400–4000 cm⁻¹ (the instrument resolution of 4cm⁻¹ over 64 scans) after correction for the absorption of atmospheric water and CO₂. In this study, FTIR spectral data were used to determine the degree of humification and decomposition according to the literature (Broder *et al.*, 2012; Krumins *et al.*, 2012; Biester *et al.*, 2014).

Age dating

The ¹⁴C radiometric dating was measured at the International Chemical Analysis Inc. Laboratory, USA for two undamaged shell samples at depths of 44–46 cm and 56–58 cm. The radiocarbon dates were calibrated into calendar ages using the Marine13 radiocarbon age calibration curves 0–50,000 year cal BP (Reimer *et al.*, 2013) and the calibration software Calib 7.10. Conventional ages are given in BP (1950 AD), and have been corrected for fractionation using the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Lithology and geomorphology

The core observations indicate that the sedimentary succession is mainly composed of grey to blackish fine-grained muddy clay (Figure 2). Negombo Lagoon sediments record mollusk shells, wood fragments, and black carbon. This observation suggests that sedimentary organic matter can mainly derive from allochthonous

sources. Field investigations indicated the herbaceous plants (e.g. grasses) in muddy sediment of the shallow area of Negombo Lagoon. However, the bottom of the lagoon mouth (Figure 1) is mainly composed of sandy sediments that are transported by longshore currents along the western coast of Sri Lanka (Amalan *et al.*, 2018; Ratnayake *et al.*, 2019b). Table 1 shows the results of the accelerated mass spectrometry (AMS) ^{14}C analysis. According to radiometric dating, the undamaged shells at 45 cm and 57 cm in depths were deposited after 1950, known as modern (Table 1).

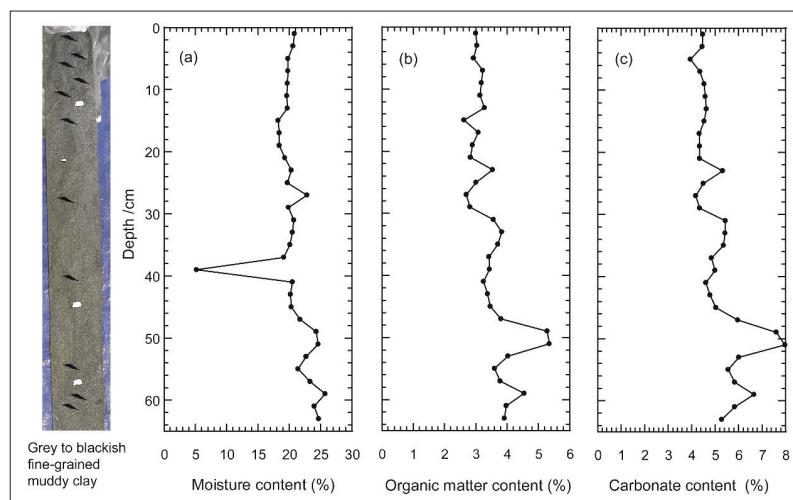


Figure 2: Vertical distributions of moisture, organic matter, and carbonate contents in Negombo Lagoon sediments, and simplified stratigraphic column of the sedimentary succession.

Table 1: AMS ^{14}C radiometric dating.

Depth/ cm	Type	Conventional ^{14}C BP	Calendar age BP $\pm 2\sigma$	Method	Reference no.
44-46	Shell	1.1920 \pm 0.0056 F14C	Modern	AMS	18S/1108
56-58	Shell	1.0810 \pm 0.0031 F14C	Modern	AMS	18S/1109

Moisture content and loss on ignition

The moisture content decreases from bottom to surface sediments (range from 18.2 to 25.7 %) with some outliers of 5.2 % at depth of 38–40 cm (Figure 2a). Figure 2b shows that sequential loss on ignition of $\text{LOI}_{550^\circ\text{C}}$ also decreases towards surface sediments ranging from 2.6 to 5.3%. Sequential loss on ignition of $\text{LOI}_{550^\circ\text{C}}$ is a widely used method to estimate organic matter content of

sediments, as organic matters oxidise to carbon dioxide and ash at $500\text{--}550^\circ\text{C}$ (Dean, 1974; Heiri *et al.*, 2001). In this regard, the reduction of organic matter accumulation/production or enhancement of bottom-water oxygenation can be expected from bottom to surface sediments in Negombo Lagoon. Therefore, it suggests that deterioration conditions of Negombo Lagoon gradually decrease compared to its past environment.

Carbonate content also decreases from bottom to surface sediments ranging from 4.0 to 8.0 % (Figure 2c). Sequential loss on ignition of $\text{LOI}_{950^\circ\text{C}}$ is used to estimate carbonate content of sediments, as carbon dioxide releases from carbonate at 900–1000 °C (e.g. Dean, 1974; Heiri *et al.*, 2001). In this study, organic matter distribution shows strong positive correlation ($r > 0.9$) with the calculated carbonate distribution of sediments (not illustrated). Therefore, in this sedimentary succession, the similar trends of organic and carbonate (inorganic) carbon distributions (Figure 2) indicate minor influence for the anthropogenic/sewage contamination (Emerson & Hedges, 1988; Hartnett *et al.*, 1998; Stein & Fahl, 2000).

Stable isotopic compositions

Table 2 and Figure 3 show $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ isotopic composition and bulk C/N ratio of Negombo Lagoon sediments. Bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ stable isotopic composition is useful to distinguish between marine and continental plant sources, and to distinguish organic matter from different sources of land plants (e.g. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of C_3 plants = ca. -28‰ : range from -32 to -21‰ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of C_4 plants = ca. -14‰ : range from -17 to -9‰). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ isotopic composition of plant biomass is thus primarily a function of the photosynthetic pathway (Bender, 1971; Lamb *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, stable isotope analyses of bulk lake sediments allow an estimation of the relative contributions from marine and C_3/C_4 plant sources (Meyers, 1997, 2003). Besides, C/N ratios of algae and land plants are between 4 and 10 and greater than 12, respectively (Meyers, 1997, 2003; Ratnayake *et al.*, 2019a). Therefore, in this study, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and C/N values (range from 12.9 to 21.4) indicate the mixing of C_3 land plants and marine sources as marine dissolved

organic carbon (Table 2 and Figure 3). Similarly, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values can be generally used to distinguish marine and continental organic matter (Peters *et al.*, 1978; Lamb *et al.*, 2006), and aspects of nitrogen biogeochemical cycling during the environmental changes. For example, the increases in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values indicate the accumulation of isotopically heavy nitrate ($\delta^{15}\text{N} = 10\text{--}25\text{‰}$) from agricultural runoff and human sewage (Teranes & Bernasconi, 2000; Meyers, 2003). Therefore, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (range from 3.61 to 8.01‰ in Table 2) suggest that agricultural runoff and sewage contamination is low in Negombo Lagoon sediments.

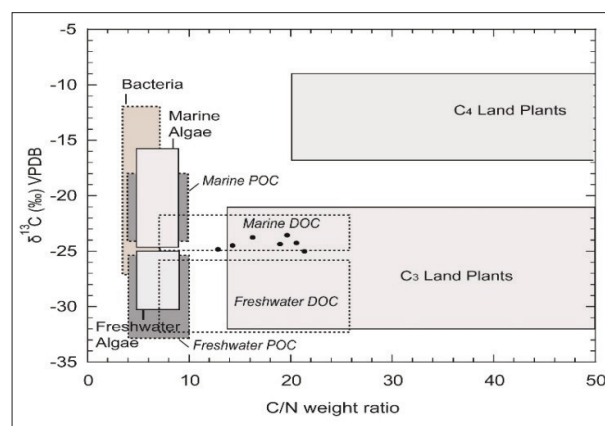


Figure 3: Generalised isotopic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and elemental atomic C/N ratio shows different sources of organic matter in the lake sediments (where, VPDB: Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite, POM: particulate organic matter and DOC: dissolved organic carbon, modified after Meyers 2003 and Lamb *et al.*, 2006).

Table 2: Bulk organic geochemical and stable isotopic compositions (VPDB: Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite).

Sample Name	Depth range/cm	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value	Organic C%	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ value	N %	C/N ratio
NLC1 1	0-10	-24.41	0.32	4.59	0.02	19.0
NLC1 2	10-16	-24.53	0.27	4.10	0.02	14.3
NLC1 3	20-26	-24.30	0.46	3.61	0.02	20.6
NLC1 4	30-34	-23.78	0.46	4.19	0.03	16.3
NLC1 5	40-44	-25.05	0.73	4.53	0.03	21.4
NLC1 6	50-56	-23.60	0.75	3.66	0.04	19.7
NLC1 7	56-64	-24.87	0.71	4.63	0.06	12.9

XRD observations

Figure 4 shows clay minerals such as montmorillonite (two theta/2 θ values = 36.66°, 75.76°) and illite (two theta/2 θ values = 20.10°, 39.58°, 67.82°) with different intensities, based on crystalline phases and discovered chemical composition by software. Non-clay minerals such as quartz (two theta/2 θ values = 20.94°, 26.72°, 42.38°, 50.24°, 54.98°) were also observed in X-ray diffractograms with different peak intensities (Figure 4).

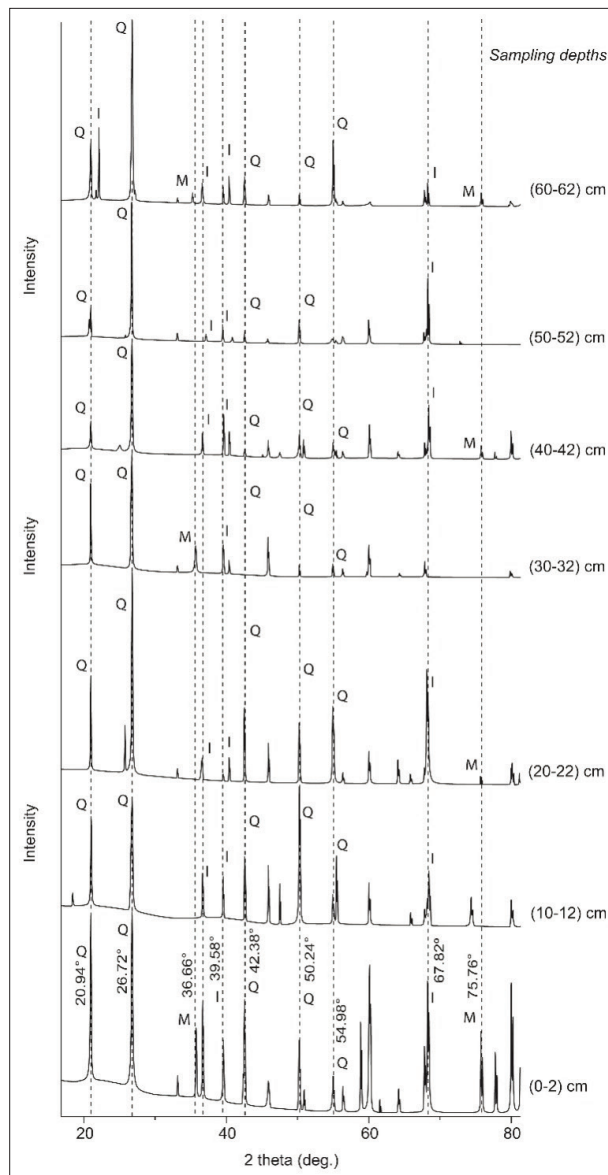


Figure 4: Characteristic XRD patterns of sediment samples in Negombo Lagoon (M: montmorillonite, I: illite and Q: quartz).

Clay minerals can be used as paleoclimatic indicators (Singer, 1980, 1984; Sedov *et al.*, 2003; Tabor & Myers, 2015). For example, montmorillonite and illite clay minerals assemblage can be considered as indicators for warm/dry paleoclimate and/or derived from near distance sources (e.g. Singer, 1980, 1984; Andrzejewski & Tabor, 2020). Therefore, an abundance of illite, montmorillonite, and quartz peaks (Figure 4) indicate the deposition of immature sediments (i.e. limited chemical weathering materials) from near distance sources.

FTIR observation

Figure 5 shows the representative FTIR spectrum of surface sediment samples (0–2 cm in depth) in Negombo Lagoon. FTIR spectrum in Figure 5 indicates main functional groups such as (a) C-O stretching of polysaccharide (1040-1090 cm^{-1}), (b) carboxylate ions (1720 cm^{-1}), (c) aliphatic substances (2850-2950 cm^{-1}), and (d) H bonded OH groups/amines (3200-3600 cm^{-1}). Consequently, the above-mentioned functional groups indicate a breakdown of complex sedimentary organic matter into long chains of hydrocarbon molecules (Meyers, 2003; Ratnayake *et al.*, 2019a). Similar functional groups (e.g. carboxylic groups, carboxylate ions, polysaccharide) can be identified in sediment core samples, but with different intensities (Figure 6). For example, the absorbance of carboxylic groups (about 0.1 absorbance units) and carboxylate ions (about 0.02 absorbance units) decrease with depth due to early diagenesis (Meyers & Ishiwatari, 1993; Sampei *et al.*, 1997; Chen *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, carboxylic groups/

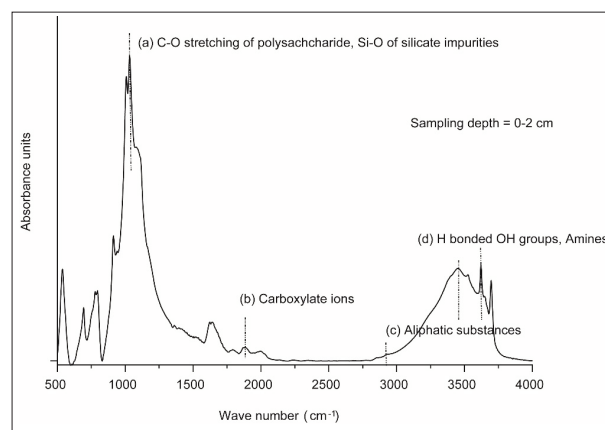


Figure 5: Representative FTIR spectrum of surface sediment samples (0–2 cm in depth) in Negombo Lagoon.

carboxylate ions can be decomposed preferentially compared to polysaccharide (Kruminset *al.*, 2012). In contrast, the lower sedimentary succession shows drastic enhancement of the absorbance of carboxylic groups/

carboxylate ions between 48 cm to 50 cm in depth, may be due to sudden accumulation of highly decomposed organic matter from the terrestrial sources (Meyers, 1997, 2003).

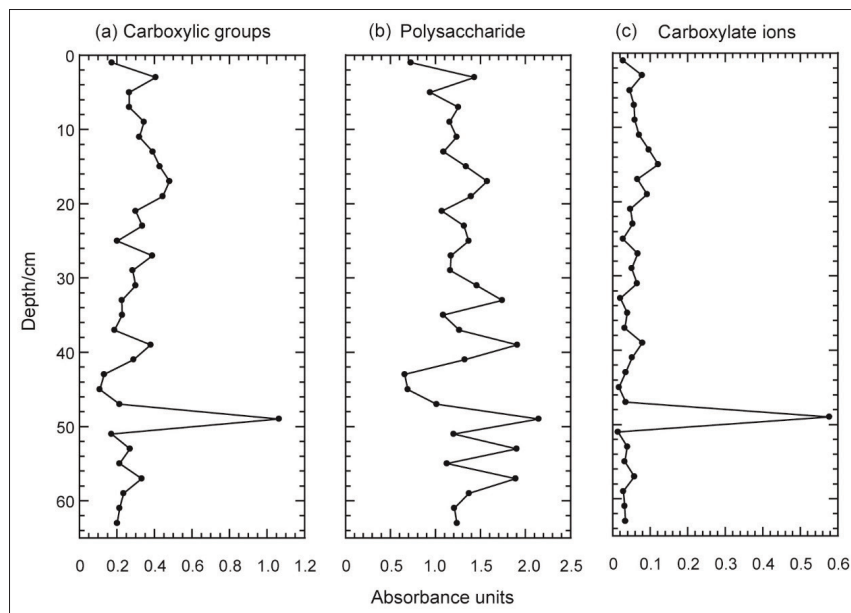


Figure 6: Vertical variations in absorbance of different functional groups based on FTIR spectra.

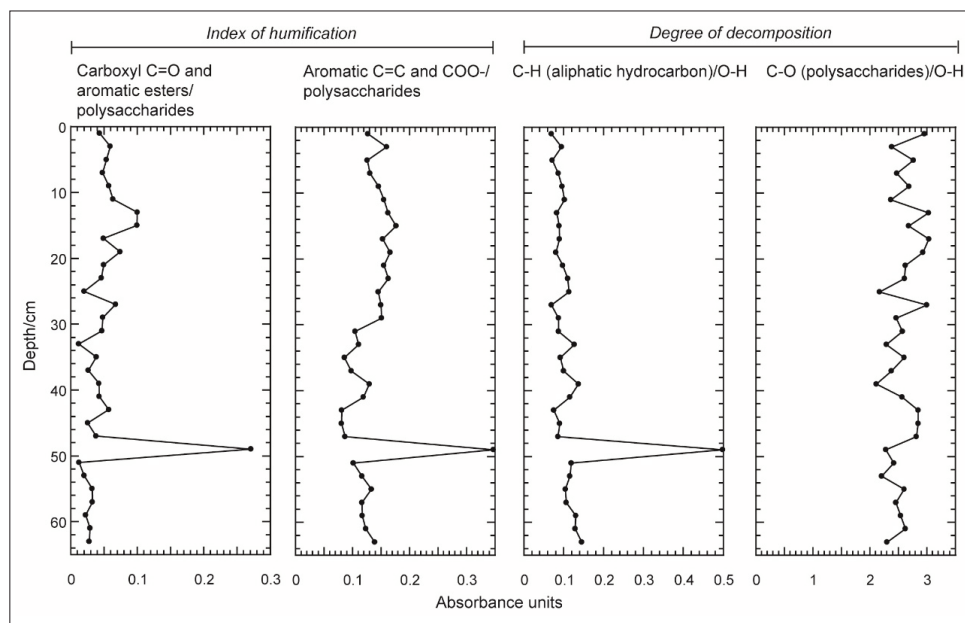


Figure 7: Humification index and degree of the decomposition based on FTIR results.

Degree of humification and decomposition

Figure 7 shows the ratio of $1630\text{ cm}^{-1}/1053\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (aromatic C=C and asymmetric COO-/polysaccharides) in Negombo Lagoon sediment. This ratio can be used as a humification index (i.e. the formation of humic acids) in sediments (Biester *et al.*, 2014 and references therein). Besides, the humification index is decreased slightly (about 0.04 absorbance units) with the depth suggesting a slow rate of transformation of complex organic matter into simple carbon substances. In this study, the ratios of $1720\text{ cm}^{-1}/1053\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (carboxyl C=O and aromatic ester group/polysaccharides) also indicate a parallel trend with the humification index (Figure 7), and thus can be proposed as possible novel humification index along with traditional proxies. According to the literature, several geochemical methods have been used to understand the degree of humification and decomposition of organic matter. For example, leachate's colour intensity based on UV absorption measurements (Bahnson, 1968), colourimetric method (Chambers *et al.*, 2011), Rock-Eval pyrolysis (Outridge & Sanei, 2010), C/N ratios (Kuhry & Vitt, 1996), stable isotopes (Jones *et al.*, 2010), and FTIR spectroscopy (Niemeyer *et al.*, 1992; Broder *et al.*, 2012) have been used to estimate the degree of humification and decomposition.

The ratios of $2850\text{--}2950\text{ cm}^{-1}/3200\text{--}3600\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (C-H/O-H: asymmetrical aliphatic hydrocarbon/O-H stretching of alcohols) and $1040\text{--}1090\text{ cm}^{-1}/3200\text{--}3600\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (C-O/O-H: C-O polysaccharides/O-H stretching of alcohols) can be used as indicators for the degree of decomposition (Krumins *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, Figure 7 suggests weak decomposition rates during the early diagenesis. However, decomposition and humification rates are drastically increased at 48–50 cm in depth (Figure 7), suggesting rapid accumulation of highly decomposed organic matter by short-lived anthropogenic or natural process (Meyers, 1997, 2003).

CONCLUSIONS

Negombo Lagoon is less susceptible to aquatic deterioration due to minor impacts of sewage/agricultural nutrient contamination based on $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ stable isotope composition and organic- and carbonate-carbon distributions. Negombo Lagoon sediments are characterised by the deposition of C_3 terrestrial plant dominant sources and marine sources as marine dissolved organic carbon. In addition, a mineral assemblage containing illite, montmorillonite, and quartz peaks can be interpreted as limited chemical weathering materials from near distance sources. This sedimentary succession

indicated weak and nearly constant decomposition rates (i.e. weak microbial decomposition) under the anoxic/reducing depositional condition. In this study, the ratio of $1720\text{ cm}^{-1}/1053\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (i.e. carboxyl C=O and aromatic ester group vibrations to polysaccharides) was proposed as a novel humification index along with traditional proxy in the literature.

Acknowledgement

This research was supported by the Accelerating Higher Education Expansion and Development (AHEAD) Operation of the Ministry of Higher Education funded by the World Bank. We thank Nimila Dushshantha, Shanaka Weththasinghe, Panchala Weerakoon, Anthony Fernando, Ranjani Amarasinghe, Sadun Silva, M.D. Nilantha, Sandun Wijerama and Pradeep Ranathunga for assistance.

REFERENCES

- Amalan K., Ratnayake A.S., Ratnayake N.P., Weththasinghe S.M., Dushyantha N., Lakmali N. & Premasiri R. (2018). Influence of nearshore sediment dynamics on the distribution of heavy mineral placer deposits in Sri Lanka. *Environmental Earth Sciences* **77**(21): 737. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-018-7914-4>
- Andrzejewski K. & Tabor N.J. (2020). Paleoenvironmental and paleoclimatic reconstruction of Cretaceous (Aptian-Cenomanian) terrestrial formations of Texas and Oklahoma using phyllosilicates. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* **543**: 109491. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.palaeo.2019.109491>
- Bahnson H. (1968). Colorimetric determination of humification for bog peat from Fuglso Mire in Jutland. *Bulletin of the Geological Society of Denmark* **18**(01): 55–63.
- Bender M.M. (1971). Variations in the $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ratios of plants in relation to the pathway of photosynthetic carbon dioxide fixation. *Phytochemistry* **10**(06): 1239–1244. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0031-9422\(00\)84324-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0031-9422(00)84324-1)
- Biester H., Knorr K.H., Schellekens J., Basler A. & Hermanns Y.M. (2014). Comparison of different methods to determine the degree of peat decomposition in peat bogs. *Biogeosciences* **11**(10): 2691–2707. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-11-2691-2014>
- Broder T., Blodau C., Biester H. & Knorr K.H. (2012). Peat decomposition records in three pristine ombrotrophic bogs in southern Patagonia. *Biogeosciences* **9**(04): 1479–1491. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-9-1479-2012>
- Byers S.C., Mills E.L. & Stewart P.L. (1978). A comparison of methods of determining organic carbon in marine sediments, with suggestions for a standard method. *Hydrobiologia* **58**(01): 43–47. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00018894>
- Chambers F.M., Beilman D.W. & Yu Z. (2011). Methods for determining peat humification and for quantifying peat

- bulk density, organic matter and carbon content for palaeo studies of climate and peatland carbon dynamics. *Mires and Peat* **7**(01): 1–10.
- Chen X., Andersen T.J., Morono Y., Inagaki F., Jørgensen B.B. & Lever M.A. (2017). Bioturbation as a key driver behind the dominance of Bacteria over Archaea in near-surface sediment. *Scientific Reports* **7**(01): 2400.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-02295-x>
- Dahanayake D.D.G.L., Jayamanne S.C. & Wijeyaratne M.J.S. (2008). Benthic invertebrates of a tropical estuary in the western coast of Sri Lanka. *International Conference on Environmental Research and Technology*, Universiti Sains Malaysia.
- Dean W.E. (1974). Determination of carbonate and organic matter in calcareous sediments and sedimentary rocks by loss on ignition; comparison with other methods. *Journal of Sedimentary Research* **44**(01): 242–248.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1306/74D729D2-2B21-11D7-8648000102C1865D>
- Dissanayake C.B., Senaratne A. & Gunatilaka A.L. (1982). Organic geochemical studies of the Muthurajawela peat deposit of Sri Lanka. *Organic Geochemistry* **4**(01): 19–26.
DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-2361\(84\)90213-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-2361(84)90213-8)
- Dubois N., Saulnier-Talbot É., Mills K., Gell P., Battarbee R., Bennion H. & Gomes D.F. (2018). First human impacts and responses of aquatic systems: A review of palaeolimnological records from around the world. *The Anthropocene Review* **5**(01): 28–68.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1177/2053019617740365>
- Emerson S. & Hedges J.I. (1988). Processes controlling the organic carbon content of open ocean sediments. *Paleoceanography* **3**(05): 621–634.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1029/PA003i005p00621>
- Gallego-Sala A.V., Charman D.J., Brewer S., Page S.E., Prentice I.C., Friedlingstein P. & Blyakharchuk T. (2018). Latitudinal limits to the predicted increase of the peatland carbon sink with warming. *Nature Climate Change* **8**(10): 907–913.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-018-0271-1>
- Hartnett H.E., Keil R.G., Hedges J.I. & Devol A.H. (1998). Influence of oxygen exposure time on organic carbon preservation in continental margin sediments. *Nature* **391**(6667): 572–575.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1038/35351>
- Heiri O., Lotter A.F. & Lemcke G. (2001). Loss on ignition as a method for estimating organic and carbonate content in sediments: reproducibility and comparability of results. *Journal of Paleolimnology* **25**(01): 101–110.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1008119611481>
- Jones M.C., Peteet D.M. & Sambrotto R. (2010). Late-glacial and Holocene $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ variation from a Kenai Peninsula, Alaska peatland. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* **293**(01-02): 132–143.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.palaeo.2010.05.007>
- Katupotha J. (1988). Evidence of high sea level during the mid-Holocene on the southwest coast of Sri Lanka. *Boreas* **17**(02): 209–213.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1502-3885.1988.tb00548.x>
- Katupotha J. & Fujiwara K. (1988). Holocene sea level change on the southwest and south coasts of Sri Lanka. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* **68**(01): 189–203.
DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0031-0182\(88\)90039-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/0031-0182(88)90039-9)
- Krumins J., Klavins M., Seglins V. & Kaup E. (2012). Comparative study of peat composition by using FT-IR spectroscopy. *Material Science and Applied Chemistry* **26**(01): 106–114.
- Kuhry P. & Vitt D.H. (1996). Fossil carbon/nitrogen ratios as a measure of peat decomposition. *Ecology* **77**(01): 271–275.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.2307/2265676>
- Kumaran K.P.N., Limaye R.B., Punekar S.A., Rajaguru S.N., Joshi S.V. & Karlekar S.N. (2013). Vegetation response to South Asian Monsoon variations in Konkan, western India during the Late Quaternary: Evidence from fluvio-lacustrine archives. *Quaternary International* **286**(01): 3–18.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quaint.2012.03.010>
- Lamb A.L., Wilson G.P. & Leng M.J. (2006). A review of coastal palaeoclimate and relative sea-level reconstructions using $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and C/N ratios in organic material. *Earth-Science Reviews* **75**(01-04): 29–57.
DOI: <http://doi:10.1016/j.earscirev.2005.10.003>
- Meyers P.A. (1997). Organic geochemical proxies of paleoceanographic, paleolimnologic, and paleoclimatic processes. *Organic Geochemistry* **27**(5-6): 213–250.
DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0146-6380\(97\)00049-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0146-6380(97)00049-1)
- Meyers P.A. (2003). Applications of organic geochemistry to paleolimnological reconstructions: a summary of examples from the Laurentian Great Lakes. *Organic Geochemistry* **34**(02): 261–289.
DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0146-6380\(02\)00168-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0146-6380(02)00168-7)
- Meyers P.A. & Ishiwatari R. (1993). Lacustrine organic geochemistry - an overview of indicators of organic matter sources and diagenesis in lake sediments. *Organic Geochemistry* **20**(07): 867–900.
DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0146-6380\(93\)90100-P](https://doi.org/10.1016/0146-6380(93)90100-P)
- Niemeyer J., Chen Y. & Bollag J.M. (1992). Characterization of humic acids, composts, and peat by diffuse reflectance Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy. *Soil Science Society of America Journal* **56**(01): 135–140.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj1992.03615995005600010021x>
- Outridge P.M. & Sanei H. (2010). Does organic matter degradation affect the reconstruction of pre-industrial atmospheric mercury deposition rates from peat cores? A test of the hypothesis using a permafrost peat deposit in northern Canada. *International Journal of Coal Geology* **83**(01): 73–81.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coal.2010.04.004>
- Owca T.J., Kay M.L., Faber J., Remmer C.R., Zabel N., Wiklund J.A. & Hall R.I. (2020). Use of pre-industrial baselines to monitor anthropogenic enrichment of metals concentrations in recently deposited sediment of floodplain lakes in the Peace-Athabasca Delta (Alberta, Canada). *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment* **192**(02): 106.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-020-8067-y>

- Page S.E., Rieley J.O. & Banks C.J. (2011). Global and regional importance of the tropical peatland carbon pool. *Global Change Biology* **17**(02): 798–818.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2486.2010.02279.x>
- Peters K.E., Sweeney R.E. & Kaplan I.R. (1978). Correlation of carbon and nitrogen stable isotope ratios in sedimentary organic matter. *Limnology and Oceanography* **23**(04): 598–604.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.1978.23.4.0598>
- Ratnayake A.S., Ratnayake N.P., Sampei Y., Vijitha A.V.P. & Jayamali S.D. (2018). Seasonal and tidal influence for water quality changes in coastal Bolgoda Lake system, Sri Lanka. *Journal of Coastal Conservation* **22**(06): 1191–1199.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11852-018-0628-7>
- Ratnayake A.S., Sampei Y., Ratnayake N.P. & Roser B.P. (2017). Middle to late Holocene environmental changes in the depositional system of tropical brackish Bolgoda Lake, coastal southwest Sri Lanka. *Palaeogeography Palaeoclimatology Palaeoecology* **465**(01): 122–137.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.palaeo.2016.10.024>
- Ratnayake A.S., Sampei Y. & Ratnayake N. (2019a). Molecular indicators of early stage diagenesis in the tropical coastal Bolgoda Lake, Sri Lanka. *Journal of The National Science Foundation of Sri Lanka* **47**(01): 69–77.
DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4038/jnsfsr.v47i1.8927>
- Ratnayake N.P., Ratnayake A.S., Azoor R.M., Weththasinghe S.M., Seneviratne I.D.J., Senarathne N. & Dushyantha N. (2019b). Erosion processes driven by monsoon events after a beach nourishment and breakwater construction at Uswetakeiyawa beach, Sri Lanka. *SN Applied Sciences* **1**(01): 52.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42452-018-0050-7>
- Reimer P.J. et al. (30 authors), (2013). IntCal13 and Marine13 radiocarbon age calibration curves 0–50,000 year's cal BP. *Radiocarbon* **55**(04): 1869–1887.
DOI: https://doi.org/10.2458/azu_js_rc.55.16947
- Sampei Y., Matsumoto E., Kamei T. & Tokuoka T. (1997). Sulfur and organic carbon relationship in sediments from coastal brackish lakes in the Shimane peninsula district, southwest Japan. *Geochemical Journal* **31**(04): 245–262.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.2343/geochemj.31.245>
- Sedov S., Solleiro-Rebolledo E., Morales-Puente P., Arias-Herreia A., Vallejo-Gomez E. & Jasso-Castaneda C. (2003). Mineral and organic components of the buried paleosols of the Nevado de Toluca, Central Mexico as indicators of paleoenvironments and soil evolution. *Quaternary International* **106**(01): 169–184.
DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1040-6182\(02\)00171-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1040-6182(02)00171-4)
- Singer A. (1980). The paleoclimatic interpretation of clay minerals in soil and weathering profiles. *Earth-Science Reviews* **15**(04): 303–326.
DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0012-8252\(80\)90113-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/0012-8252(80)90113-0)
- Singer A. (1984). The paleoclimatic interpretation of clay minerals in sediments: a review. *Earth Science Reviews* **21**(04): 251–293.
DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0012-8252\(84\)90055-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0012-8252(84)90055-2)
- Stein R. & Fahl K. (2000). Holocene accumulation of organic carbon at the Laptev Sea continental margin (Arctic Ocean): sources, pathways, and sinks. *Geo-Marine Letters* **20**(01): 27–36.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s003670000028>
- Tabor N.J. & Myers T.S. (2015). Paleosols as indicators of paleoenvironment and paleoclimate. *Annual Review of Earth and Planetary Sciences* **43**(01): 333–361.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-earth-060614-105355>
- Teranes J.L. & Bernasconi S.M. (2000). The record of nitrate utilization and productivity limitation provided by d¹⁵N values in lake organic matter—a study of sediment trap and core sediments from Baldeggersee, Switzerland. *Limnology and Oceanography* **45**(04): 801–813.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.2000.45.4.0801>
- Yu Z., Loisel J., Brosseau D.P., Beilman D.W. & Hunt S.J. (2010). Global peatland dynamics since the Last Glacial Maximum. *Geophysical Research Letters* **37**(13): 402.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1029/2010GL043584>
- Zerizghi T., Yang Y., Wang W., Zhou Y., Zhang J. & Yi Y. (2020). Ecological risk assessment of heavy metal concentrations in sediment and fish of a shallow lake: a case study of Baiyangdian Lake, North China. *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment* **192**(02): 154.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-020-8078-8>