Sources and export of particle-borne organic matter during a monsoon flood in a catchment of northern Laos

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19 Abstract:

20 Tropical rivers of Southeast Asia are characterized by high specific carbon yields and supplies 21 to the ocean. The origin and dynamics of particulate organic matter were studied in the Houay 22 Xon River catchment located in northern Laos during the first erosive flood of the rainy season in May 2012. The partly cultivated catchment is equipped with three successive 23 24 gauging stations draining areas ranging between 0.2 and 11.6 km² on the main stem of the 25 permanent stream, and two additional stations draining 0.6 ha hillslopes. In addition, the 26 sequential monitoring of rainwater, overland flow and suspended organic matter compositions 27 was realized at 1-m² plot scale during a single storm. The composition of particulate organic matter (total organic carbon and total nitrogen concentrations, δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N) was determined 28 for suspended sediment, soil surface (first 2 cm) and soil subsurface (gullies and riverbanks) 29 30 samples collected in the catchment (n = 57, 65 and 11 respectively). Hydrograph separation of

event water was conducted using water electric conductivity and $\delta^{18}O$ measurements for 1 2 rainfall, overland flow and river water base flow (n = 9, 30 and 57, respectively). The 3 composition of particulate organic matter indicates that upstream suspended sediments were 4 mainly derived from cultivated soils labelled by their C₃ vegetation cover (upland rice, fallow vegetation and teak plantations) but that collapsed riverbanks, characterized by C₄ vegetation 5 occurrence (Napier grass), significantly contributed to sediment yields in particular during 6 water level rise. The highest runoff coefficient (11.7%), sediment specific yield (433 kg ha⁻¹), 7 total organic carbon specific yield (8.3 kgC ha⁻¹) and overland flow contribution (78-100%) 8 9 were found for the reforested areas covered by teak plantations. Swampy areas located along 10 the main stream that acted as sediment filter upstream and sediment sources downstream also controlled the composition of suspended organic matter. Despite the low magnitude of the 11 12 flood, total organic carbon specific yields were high as this event was the first erosive of the 13 rainy season, following the period of slash and burn in the catchment.

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15 **1 Introduction**

16 Soil is the largest terrestrial reservoir of carbon, exceeding biosphere and atmosphere storage 17 capacities (e.g., Sarmiento and Gruber, 2002). Although tropical soils account for ca. 30% of the total carbon storage (e.g., Dixon et al., 1994; Zech et al., 1997), high intensity storms 18 19 (e.g., Goldsmith et al., 2008, Thothong et al., 2011) as well as deforestation and land use 20 change are responsible for high soil carbon losses and deliveries by rivers. For example Houghton (1991) estimated that deforestation in Laos, the sixth most affected tropical country 21 according to the FAO / UNEP (1981), released ca. 85 x 10^{12} gC yr⁻¹ to the atmosphere from 22 1979 to 1989. Degens et al. (1991) identified the Asian tropical rivers (e.g., Mekong, 23 Indus/Ganges/Brahmaputra) as the main contributors of dissolved (*ca.* 94 x 10^{12} gC yr⁻¹) and 24 particulate (ca. 128 x 10¹² gC yr⁻¹) organic matter to world oceans, accounting for more than 25 50% of global organic carbon inputs (about 335 x 10^{12} gC yr⁻¹ excluding Australia). More 26 recently, Huang et al. (2012) estimated that tropical rivers of Asia have the highest specific 27 28 total, inorganic and organic, dissolved and particulate carbon yield in which ca. 25% of the 29 delivery is made of particulate organic matter (POM). This latter component does not vary 30 linearly with total suspended sediment load (Ludwig et al., 1996), indicating that particulate 31 organic matter is associated with higher concentrations of mineral matter in high TSS loads 32 that are supplied to the rivers through erosion and sediment remobilization processes taking 33 place along the river courses. Small mountainous headwater catchments play a key role in the delivery pattern because they are characterized by high specific discharges and sediment loads
 (Milliman and Syvitski, 1992). In this context, processes that control organic matter export
 from tropical catchments should be better understood and constrained, as they account for a
 significant component in the drawdown or emission of carbon dioxide (Lal, 2003).

5 Tropical storms may also result in the supply of large quantities of suspended sediment to 6 streams (Descroix et al., 2008; Evrard et al., 2010) and lead to numerous problems 7 downstream (Syvitski et al., 2005). Sediments can accumulate behind dams, which results in 8 the siltation of water reservoirs (Downing et al., 2008; Thothong et al., 2011). Suspended 9 organic matter also contributes to water quality degradation (Tanik et al., 1999) and plays a 10 major role in nutrient biogeochemical cycles (Quinton et al., 2010). It also constitutes a 11 potential vector for various contaminants such as metals, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons or 12 faecal bacteria (Ribolzi et al., 2010; Gateuille et al., 2014). In order to reduce the extent of 13 these negative impacts, sediment delivery by rivers needs to be monitored and controlled. The 14 design and implementation of appropriate management procedures require the identification 15 of the processes that mobilise organic matter from soils and export suspended organic matter to rivers. To this end, total organic carbon (TOC) concentration measurements as well as 16 natural 15 N/ 14 N (e.g., Mariotti et al. 1983; Kao and Liu, 2000, Huon et al., 2006) and 13 C/ 12 C 17 18 (e.g., Masiello and Druffel, 2001; Hilton et al., 2010; Smith et al., 2013) stable isotope 19 fingerprinting methods may be used on particulate material collected from hillslopes to rivers, either independantly or in combination with fallout radionuclides to document variations in 20 21 sediment sources and pathways across catchments (e.g., Ritchie and McCarty, 2003; Ellis et 22 al., 2012; Schindler Wildhaber et al., 2012; Ben Slimane et al., 2013; Koiter et al., 2013). In 23 addition, complementary information on sediment conveyed to the river by runoff and overland flow can also be inferred from water tracers such as ¹⁸O natural abundance (for a 24 25 review see Klaus and McDonnell, 2013).

26 In this study, rainwater, stream water, overland flow and suspended sediment loads were 27 sampled in the partly cultivated headwater catchment of the Houay Xon river, a small 28 tributary of the Mekong River in Laos, during an erosive flood event that took place at the beginning of the 2012 rainy season. The aim was to: (1) estimate the overland flow 29 30 contribution to stream water and investigate its role for soil organic matter export, and (2) 31 discriminate the respective contributions of soil and stream channel sediment supplies in order 32 to identify the main processes responsible for particulate organic matter delivery at different 33 nested spatial scales. This study is complementary to a previous one dedicated to the 34 quantification of sediment dynamics during the same erosive flood event from fallout radionuclide measurements (Gourdin et al., 2014), that highlighted the binary contribution of
soil and stream channel sediment sources during the same erosive flood event.

3

4 2 Study site

5 The Houay Pano catchment, part of the MSEC (Monitoring Soil Erosion Consortium)
6 network since 1998 (Valentin et al., 2008), is located 10 km south of Luang Prabang in
7 northern Laos (19.84°N - 102.14°E; Fig. 1).

8 [Fig. 1]

9 The tropical monsoon climate of the region is characterized by the succession of dry and wet seasons. Almost 80% of annual rainfall (1960-2013 average: 1302 ± 364 mm yr⁻¹) occurs 10 during the rainy season, from May to October (Ribolzi et al., 2008). The Houay Pano 11 permanent stream has an average base flow of 0.4 ± 0.1 L s⁻¹ and is equipped with 5 gauging 12 stations that subdivide the catchment into nested sub-catchments. Two of these stations, S1 13 14 and S4, draining 20 ha and 60 ha respectively, are located along the main stem of the stream. 15 Two additional stations (S7 and S8) draining two hillslopes (0.6 ha each) connected to the 16 main stream between S1 and S4 were also monitored. Between S1 and S4, water flows 17 through a natural swamp (0.19 ha), fed by a permanent groundwater table (Fig. 1). Only temporary foot slope and flood deposits can be found along the narrow section of the stream 18 19 and the swamp represents the main sediment accumulation zone in the upper catchment. The 20 Houay Pano stream flows into the Houay Xon River (22.4 km² catchment) and crosses 21 another swampy area (ca. 3 ha), partly occupied by fishponds (ca. 0.6 ha) at the outlet of the village. Its discharge is continuously monitored at S10 (draining a 11.6 km² sub-catchment), 22 23 located 2.8 km downstream of S4. The Houay Xon River catchment is larger but its channel is 24 not steeper than for the Houay Pano sub-catchment. Its slope is gentler and the connectivity of 25 hillslopes with the main stream is lower. The drainage basin that includes the highest 26 elevations of the catchment is covered with old protected forests but no major tributary flows 27 into the Houay Xon River. Sediments generated by erosion in the drainage area can settle before reaching the main stream due to a decline of topography above the left bank of the 28 29 river (Fig. 1). The intermittent streams located upstream of S10 did not flow during the 23 May 2012 flood. The Houay Xon is a tributary of the Nam Dong River, flowing into the 30 31 Mekong River within the city of Luang Prabang (Ribolzi et al., 2010).

The geological basement of the Houay Pano upper catchment is mainly composed of pelites, 1 2 sandstones and greywackes (not sampled), overlaid in its uppermost NE part by 3 Carboniferous - Permian limestone cliffs (not sampled) that only cover a very small area in 4 the catchment. Except for the limestone cliffs and some sections of the narrow streambed, 5 soils or flooded soils cover the entire catchment. They consist of deep (>2 m) and moderately deep (>0.5 m) Alfisols (UNESCO, 1974), except along crests and ridges where Inceptisols 6 7 can be found (Chaplot et al., 2009). The soils have low pH ranging between 4.4 and 5.5 8 (Chaplot et al., 2009) indicating that carbonate precipitation is not favoured in soils, even in 9 the upper part of the catchment and, accordingly, cannot supply particulate inorganic carbon 10 to suspended sediment loads. Native vegetation consisted of lowland forest dominated by 11 bamboos that were first cleared to implement shifting cultivation of upland rice at the end of 12 the 1960s (Huon et al., 2013). Elevation across the Houay Xon catchment ranges between 272 13 and 1300 m a.s.l. As cultivation takes place on steep slopes ranging between 2 and 57°, land 14 use evolution in the catchment is prone to soil erosion (Chaplot et al., 2005; Ribolzi et al., 15 2011). Due to the decline of soil productivity triggered by soil erosion over the years (Patin et 16 al., 2012) and to an increasing labour need to control weed invasion (Dupin et al., 2009), 17 farmers progressively replaced rice fields by teak plantations in the catchment (Fig. 1). In 18 2012 the Houay Pano catchment was covered by teaks (36%), rotating cropping lands under 19 fallow (35%), Job's tears (10%), bananas (4%), upland rice (3%) and secondary forest (<9%). 20 The vegetation cover was different in the larger area drained by the Houay Xon River, with 56% of forests, 15% under teak plantations and 23% croplands. 21

22

23 **3** Materials and methods

24 **3.1** Sample and data collection

25 Rainfall, stream and overland flow waters were sampled during the 23 May flood in 2012. Rainfall intensity (I) was monitored with an automatic weather station (elevation: 536 m a.s.l.; 26 27 Fig. 1) and stream discharge was calculated from water level continuous recording and rating 28 curves. Estimates of event water discharge (EWD), defined here as the total water volume 29 exported from each sub-catchment during the event minus the base flow discharge, were 30 calculated by adding sequential water volumes corresponding to the average discharge 31 between two water level measurements. Specific runoff (SR, in mm) was obtained by 32 dividing EWD by the corresponding sub-catchment area (Chow et al., 1988).

Rainfall was sampled with three cumulative collectors located: in the village near the 1 2 confluence between the Houay Pano and Houay Xon streams, near a teak plantation on the 3 hillslopes located just upstream of the village and within the Houay Pano catchment (Fig. 1). 4 The runoff coefficient (RC) corresponds to the fraction of total rainfall that was exported from the catchment during the event. Overland flow was collected at the outlet of $1-m^2$ 5 experimental plots (OF_{1m^2}) designed for runoff studies (Patin et al., 2012). For one of them 6 7 (Fig. 2) the evolution of rainwater, overland flow and suspended organic matter composition 8 was monitored during a rainfall event (June 1, 2012), simultaneously at its outlet and for a *ca*. 9 8-m² rain-collector set-up located a few meters apart. The experiment was conducted on a soil 10 with 18° slope and ca. 60% fallow vegetation cover (ca. 10 cm high; Fig. 2a). The rain 11 collector was installed at 1.8 m above soil surface to avoid splash contamination. Four 12 samples were collected in the first 3 cm of a soil profile (0-5 mm; 6-10 mm; 11-20 mm; 21-30 13 mm) within a *ca*. 400-cm² area adjacent to the experimental plot to estimate the composition 14 of organic matter in the topsoil layer (Fig. 2b).

15 [**Fig. 2**]

16 River water was collected in 0.65 L polyethylene bottles for each 20-mm water level change by automatic samplers installed at each gauging station. Sixty-nine total suspended sediment 17 (TSS) samples were collected for five stations, S1, S4 and S10 on the main stem and S7 - S8 18 19 for hillslopes drained by temporary tributaries (Fig. 1). Shortly after collection all samples 20 were dried in 1 L aluminium trays in a gas oven (ca. 60-80°C) for 12-48 h. Preliminary 21 studies carried out in 2002-2007 showed that dissolved organic carbon concentrations in the Houay Pano stream water are commonly low, 1.8 ± 0.4 mg L⁻¹ (n = 74) and 2.0 ± 0.7 mg L⁻¹ 22 (n = 65), at base flow and discharge peak, respectively. With high-suspended sediment loads 23 (see further in the Results section), a 3 mgC L^{-1} content for dissolved organic carbon would 24 25 represent 1-10 wt% of the total (dissolved and particulate) organic carbon load. In average 97 26 \pm 3 % of the total organic matter recovered is made of particulate organic matter, 90-95% during the water rising stage and 95-99% for the other water levels. We are confident that all 27 28 measurements account for particulate organic matter with negligible dissolved loads and that the dynamics of organic compounds during the flood refers to particulate matter. To complete 29 30 the topsoil data set available for the catchment (Huon et al., 2013), additional soil cores were 31 collected on hillslopes connected to the Houay Pano stream and the Houay Xon River (Fig. 1) 32 in May and December 2012. Sampling was further completed with several gully (n = 5) and 33 riverbank (n = 6) samples in December 2012 to document the characteristics of the potential

subsurface sources of sediment to the river. No soil sample was collected in the south-eastern
 part of the catchment of S10.

3 Cumulated suspended sediment yields (SSY) were calculated at each station by adding the 4 total suspended sediment (TSS) masses exported between two successive samples. The TSS 5 concentration was considered to vary linearly between successive measurements. Specific 6 sediment yields (S_Y) were calculated by dividing the cumulated SSY by the corresponding 7 drainage area.

8 **3.2** Particulate organic matter composition measurements

9 All samples were finely grounded with an agate mortar, weighed and packed into tin capsules 10 (5 x 9 mm) for analysis. Total organic carbon (TOC) and total nitrogen (TN) concentrations, and ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ and ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ stable isotopes were measured using the Elementar[®] VarioPvro cube 11 analyzer on line with a Micromass[®] Isoprime Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS) 12 facility (IEES, Paris). Analytical precision was better than $\pm 0.2 - 0.3\%$ vs. PDB-AIR 13 standards (Coplen et al., 1983) and 0.1 mg g⁻¹ (equivalent to 0.01 wt.%) for δ^{13} C- δ^{15} N and 14 TOC-TN, respectively. Data reproducibility was checked by replicate analyses of a 99% pure 15 tyrosine laboratory standard (Girardin and Mariotti, 1991) using 18 tyrosines per batch of 50 16 17 samples. Selected sample measurements were also repeated during the course of the study. 18 The possible occurrence of carbonate minerals (or carbonate rock fragments) in TSS samples, 19 collected at different stages of the flood at stations S1 and S4, was checked by pouring drops 20 of a 30% HCl solution on dry sample aliquots. No CO₂-bubbling, typical for carbonate 21 dissolution, was observed. Therefore, common carbonate minerals such as calcite do not 22 represent a detectable fraction of the suspended sediment loads and could be neglected. No 23 additional treatment was applied. For the entire flood, total particulate organic carbon yields 24 (C_{SSY}) were calculated by summing the successive TOC contents associated with suspended 25 sediments (SSY multiplied by TOC concentration). The TOC concentration of particulate 26 organic matter was assumed to vary linearly between successive samples. Specific TOC 27 yields (C_Y) were calculated by dividing the cumulated C_{SSY} by the corresponding drainage 28 area.

29 **3.3** Water δ^{18} O and electrical conductivity measurements

Water aliquots were recovered in 30-mL glass flasks from stream, overland flow and rain samples (see section 3.1 for details) and filtered using $<0.2 \mu m$ acetate filters. Stable ¹⁸O/¹⁶O

isotope measurements were carried out using the standard CO₂ equilibration method (Epstein 1 and Mayeda, 1953) and determined with a VG Optima[®] mass spectrometer (IEES, Thiverval-2 Grignon). Isotopic ratios are reported using the δ^{18} O notation, relative to the Vienna-Standard 3 Mean Ocean Water (V-SMOW: Gonfiantini, 1978) with an analytical precision better than \pm 4 5 0.1‰. Water electrical conductivity (EC) was monitored every 6-min at the inlet of each 6 gauging station using Schlumberger in situ CTD probes. Additional measurements were conducted using an YSI[®] 556 probe for manually collected samples. Hydrograph separation 7 8 was carried out with end-member mixing equations using water electrical conductivity and δ^{18} O measurements (Sklash and Farvolden, 1979; Ribolzi et al., 2000; Ladouche et al., 2001). 9

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11 **4 Results**

4.1 Composition of the potential sources of particulate organic matter in thecatchment

The mean organic matter characteristics are reported in **Table 1** for surface soils, gullies and stream banks collected in the catchment, together with ¹³⁷Cs activity determined on the same sample aliquots (Huon et al., 2013; Gourdin et al., 2014). In contrast to the high ¹³⁷Cs activities measured in surface soil samples, gully and riverbank sites are depleted in this radioisotope (**Table 1**).

19 [**Table 1**]

20 Surface (soils) and subsurface (stream banks and gullies) sources of particulate organic matter are best discriminated by their TOC content that is higher in surface soils. The dominance of 21 C_3 photosynthetic pathway plants across the catchment is reflected by low $\delta^{13}C$ values in soils 22 23 $(-25.5 \pm 1.4\%)$. However, soil-originating particles accumulated in sediments of the swamp provide 13 C-enriched compositions, up to *ca.* -15‰, that are explained by the input of organic 24 matter derived from C₄ photosynthetic pathway plant tissues. The latter are mainly Napier 25 grass growing in the swamp and along limited sections of the stream channel, and to a much 26 27 lower extent, Job's tears and maize cultivated on nearby hillslopes (Huon et al., 2013). Soil surface and subsurface sources can also be distinguished by their δ^{15} N values that are slightly 28 lower for the former (**Table 1**). The overall values reflect high ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ fractionation during 29 30 incorporation and mineralization of plant tissues in soils, typical for tropical environments 31 (e.g., Amundson et al., 2003).

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4.2 Monitoring water and particulate organic matter export at the microplot scale during a rainfall event

3 The distribution of organic matter composition with soil depth is displayed on Fig. 2b. The 4 TOC content decreases exponentially with depth together with TN (not plotted), leading to a nearly constant TOC : TN ratio of *ca.* 10 (**Fig. 2b**). Both δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N increase with soil 5 depth from -26.3 to -24.7‰ and from 6.6 to 8.6‰, respectively, reflecting the contribution of 6 fallow vegetation debris depleted in ¹³C and ¹⁵N with respect to soil organic matter (Balesdent 7 8 et al., 1993). Overland flow samples (OF) were collected continuously at the outlet of the experimental plot during the June 1^{st} storm that lasted for 45-min. Cumulated rainfall was *ca*. 9 11 mm and its intensity reached 30 mm h⁻¹ during 20 min. Suspended sediment concentration 10 increased to a maximum of 4.7 g L^{-1} (Fig. 2c-d). The estimated runoff coefficient was 77% 11 during the entire storm with an average infiltration rate of 3.3 mm h⁻¹, assuming no 12 evaporation during rainfall. As shown on Fig. 2c, suspended sediments exported from the 13 experimental plot were characterized by TOC, TOC/TN, δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values that match 14 topsoil organic matter composition (Fig. 2b), with a slight evolution towards the composition 15 of deeper superficial layers (1-3 cm) at the end of the event. The higher TOC and lower $\delta^{13}C$ 16 and δ^{15} N recorded at the beginning of the storm likely result from the preferential export of 17 fine soil organic matter. Similar behaviours were reported by Clark et al. (2013) in the 18 19 tropical Andes and interpreted as a greater contribution of non-fossil POC during the rising 20 stage and the peak discharge, and in the Swiss Alps by Smith et al. (2013) who interpreted the 21 initial decrease of POC during the rising stage as resulting from in-channel clearing. The evolution of rainwater and OF δ^{18} O is shown on **Fig. 2d**. At the beginning of the storm, both 22 displayed a similar decreasing δ^{18} O trend (from -3.8 to -5.5%) with increasing rainfall 23 24 intensity, concomitant to a rise of the suspended load. Overland flow EC averaged $20 \pm 6 \mu S$ cm^{-1} (range: 15 - 36 µS cm^{-1} , n = 17). The values are consistent with the ones of two other 25 cumulated OF samples, 21 and 43 µS cm⁻¹, collected in the Houay Pano catchment during the 26 27 23 May 2012 event (see section 4.3). Contrasted increasing trends were also observed for rain- and OF-¹⁸O contents (reaching -1.7‰ and -4.0‰, respectively) during the falling water 28 stage. They reflected the mixing of progressively ¹⁸O-enriched rainwater with former ¹⁸O-29 30 depleted rainwater temporarily stored in the topsoil. It is likely that OF that triggers soil 31 detachment and suspended sediment export will better reflect the contribution of event water 32 to the main stream than rainwater.

1 4.3 Hydro-sedimentary characteristics of the 23 May 2012 flood

This flood was triggered by a 48 min storm that brought 27 mm of cumulated rainfall between 11:36 am and 12:24 pm. According to Bricquet et al. (2003), this event has a return period of *ca.* 0.01 year (34.7 mm day⁻¹). It was the first significant erosive event of the 2012 rainy season and the first event with rainfall intensity exceeding 80 mm h⁻¹ (6-min time steps). The main hydro-sedimentary characteristics of the flood are reported for the three gauging stations in **Fig. 3 I-II-IIIa-b-c-d**.

8 [**Fig. 3**]

9 The lag time between stream discharge (Q) and rainfall intensity peaks differed at the 10 successive stations. Q increased 10 min after the rainfall peak and reached its maximum 10 11 min later at S1 (Fig. 3Ia), whereas both peaks were synchronous at S4 (Fig. 3IIa). 12 Downstream, the lag time between rainfall and O peaks increased to 70 min at S10 (Fig. **3IIIa**). The evolution of TSS concentration that peaked at 24-47 g L^{-1} (Fig. 3I-II-IIIb) 13 displayed counterclockwise hysteresis dynamics (Williams, 1989; Lenzi and Marchi, 2000) at 14 15 the three stations. Even though Q increased faster than TSS concentration at the beginning of 16 the flood, water EC decreased concomitantly at the three stations (Fig. 3I-II-IIIc). This 17 behaviour suggests the progressive mixing of pre-event water (i.e. groundwater) with a low 18 TSS load by weakly mineralized event water (i.e. overland flow) with high sediment loads, the proportion of the latter increasing with decreasing EC. Pre-event EC values measured in 19 the stream just before the flood were 394, 320 and 450 µS cm⁻¹ at S1, S4 and S10, 20 21 respectively (Fig. 3I-II-IIIc) in contrast with the low values determined for OF (see above). 22 As expected, the highest values were recorded at S10, which is located downstream of 23 riparian villages (Ribolzi et al., 2010) where high EC wastewaters are directly released into the river. In contrast, upstream of this village, stream waters exclusively originate from 24 cultivated lands. Pre-event water ¹⁸O content was estimated to -7.1‰ at station S4 with 25 26 samples collected before peak flow rise (Fig. 3IId). However, for S1 and S10, automatic 27 sampling only took place during the water rising stage and the composition of pre-event water had to be estimated. At S1, a δ^{18} O value of -8% corresponding to a maximum EC of 394 μ S 28 cm^{-1} was estimated by fitting the correlative trend (see section 5). Pre-event and event waters 29 could not be distinguished with δ^{18} O signatures at S10. Overall, despite the limited number of 30 samples collected, the composition of cumulated rainwater remained rather constant in the 31 32 catchment (-5.1, -5.5 and -5.6%), averaging -5.4 ± 0.3 %.

4.4 Particulate organic matter export at catchment scales during the 23 May 2012 flood

3 Important variations in suspended organic matter composition were recorded at S1 with TOC concentration (20-70 mgC g⁻¹, Fig. 3Ie), TOC/TN (8-31, Fig. 3If), δ^{13} C (-26 to -15%), Fig. 4 **3Ig**) and $\delta^{15}N$ (5.5-8.0%, **Fig. 3Ih**) measurements. They all indicate changes in the source 5 delivering suspended organic matter during the rising water stage. The δ^{13} C signature of 6 7 suspended organic matter reach the average composition (-25.5 \pm 1.4%; **Table 1**) of topsoil 8 organic matter in the catchment at peak flow and during the recession stage (Fig. 3I-IIg). Due to larger and more heterogeneous areas drained at S4 and S10, the temporal evolution of 9 TOC/TN, δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N in TSS (**Fig. 3II-III, e-f-g-h**) were less contrasted than at S1. At S10, 10 the mean TOC/TN was higher (17.0 ± 3.2) than at S1 (13.1 ± 5.9) and S4 (10.3 ± 0.9) , 11 12 reflecting a greater contribution of vegetation debris and / or weakly mineralized organic 13 matter downstream than in upper parts of the catchment (Table A1). Furthermore, the highest 14 TOC/TN (23; Fig. 3IIIf) was obtained during the water discharge peak at S10 whereas it was 15 recorded at the beginning of the rising stage at S1 (31: **Fig. 3If**).

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17 5 Interpretation and discussion

18 **5.1** Overland flow contribution to stream discharge

As overland flow is the main supply of eroded particulate organic matter to the streams during the flood, hydrograph separation in pre-event groundwater and event water contributions using end-members mixing equations should provide information on water dynamics and suspended sediment sources during the flood. However, several questions may arise regarding the relevance of using water mass tracers to constrain end-members signatures and provide reliable estimates of overland flow contribution.

25 **5.1.1** Evolution of water composition during the flood

Water electrical conductivity and δ^{18} O measurements conducted on rainwater, overland flow and stream water highlight in-channel mixing processes between base flow groundwater (preevent water) and event water characterized by contrasted signatures (**Fig. 4I**).

29 **[Fig. 4]**

At S1 (Fig. 4Ia), all samples are aligned between the PEW and OF_{1m^2} end-members during 1 2 both rising and recessing stages, suggesting that the composition of corresponding source 3 remained constant during the event. This condition is one of the assumptions underpinning 4 hydrograph separation procedures (e.g. Buttle, 1994; Ribolzi et al., 2000; Klaus and McDonnell, 2013). At S4 (Fig. 4Ib), the evolution of stream water composition during the 5 6 flood displays a more complex pattern, with the succession of three phases characterized by distinct behaviours. During the rising stage, a similar trend between PEW and OF_{1m^2} is 7 observed as for S1. Near peak flow, stream water EC and δ^{18} O concomitantly decrease 8 9 towards the signature of cumulated rainwater samples (Fig. 4Ib) until the dilution of PEW by 10 EW reaches its maximum. This behaviour likely reflects the progressive depletion of rainwater in ¹⁸O during the storm, as observed during the microplot experiment (Fig. 2d), 11 12 following a Rayleigh-type distillation process (Dansgaard, 1964). The decrease of EC in 13 stream water is also consistent with the supply of weakly mineralized overland flow water 14 mixing rainwater and pre-event soil water with low and high dissolved loads, respectively. A 15 remarkable point is that the water composition supplied by S7-S8 sub-catchments, referred to as $OF_{0.6ha}$ (Fig. 4Ib), closely matches the composition of stream water during this period. 16 17 Finally, during the third phase corresponding to the recession period, the composition of the 18 river water evolved towards the "initial" PEW signature along a third mixing line. At S10, stream water composition displayed large variations in EC but limited changes in $\delta^{18}O$ (range: 19 from -6.0 to -5.2‰, Fig. 4Ic). The EC values, decreasing from 450 to 155 μ S cm⁻¹ at the 20 21 beginning of the event (Fig. 3IIIc), suggest a high contribution of OF at this station.

22 **5.1.2** Catchment hydrological characteristics inferred from hydrograph separation

23 As highlighted by Klaus and McDonnell (2013), high-frequency analyses of rainfall-runoff 24 are necessary to record end-members intra-event signature variations and reduce uncertainties on hydrograph separation. The microplot experiment previously described recorded such 25 26 temporal variations during a single storm event (**Fig. 2d**). The OF signature displayed lower 27 variations (-5.5 to -3.7‰) than rainwater (-5.6 to -1.7‰) as a result of mixing between rain 28 and soil water. Although samples could not be taken during the 23 May 2012 flood, a similar intra-storm evolution magnitude of *ca*. 2‰ for OF- δ^{18} O was assumed. In order to estimate 29 30 event water contribution to total water discharge monitored at each station, this possible intrastorm variation of rainwater and overland flow signature must be taken into account, as 31 suggested by McDonnell et al. (1990). The very close δ^{18} O values of the three rainwater 32 samples collected on 23 May 2012 across the catchment remain consistent with the first 33

assumption formulated by Harris et al. (1995) regarding spatial uniformity of cumulated 1 2 rainwater isotopic signature. However, the behaviour of stream water during peak discharge at S4 (Fig. 3IId-4Ib) suggests the evolution of the OF end-member signature towards low δ^{18} O 3 (as recorded for $OF_{0.6ha}$ in **Fig. 4Ib**), consistent with a Rayleigh-type distillation of rainwater. 4 Pre-event soil water signature, likely enriched in ¹⁸O by evaporation at the onset of the rainy 5 season (e.g., Hsieh et al., 1998), could not be characterized. Its higher δ^{18} O range can be 6 assumed to be responsible for the higher δ^{18} O observed for OF_{1m²} during the 23 May 2012 7 flood (-3.9 to -2.5%; Fig. 4Ib). The higher EC values recorded for $OF_{0.6ha}$ compared to OF_{1m^2} 8 9 likely result from dissolved elements loading by runoff due to interactions between rainwater, 10 vegetation, and soil particles along slopes. As the temporal evolution of rainwater and of the resulting OF- δ^{18} O values could not be measured during the 23 May 2012 flood, we used EC 11 12 only to provide estimates of overland flow contribution, taking into account the potential variation of this end-member's signature, from 20 to 150 μ S cm⁻¹, during the event (**Fig. 4II**). 13

14 **[Table 2]**

Estimates of event water discharge (EWD), specific runoff (SR) and runoff coefficient (RC) 15 16 are summarized in **Table 2**. Runoff coefficients are rather low in most parts of the catchment (4.0 and 3.9% at S1 and S10, respectively), except at S4 which displayed a higher value of 17 11.7% (**Table 2**). Overall, those low runoff coefficients remained consistent with the high 18 infiltration rates reported by Patin et al. (2012) in the same area (>100 mm h^{-1}). Chaplot and 19 20 Poesen (2012) reported an annual runoff coefficient of ca. 13% for twelve 1-m² plots 21 monitored in this catchment. The values decrease both with hillslope downward position of 22 the experimental plots and for increasing drainage area, down to 6% for S4 and 1.5% for S10. 23 Estimates of the OF contribution to total water discharge, based on the evolution of water EC, 24 are displayed on Fig. 4II. At discharge peak, OF was lower at S1 (53-80%) than at S4 (78-100%) and S10 (67-95%). The highest value was obtained at S4 where the highest runoff 25 26 coefficient was also recorded. This behaviour likely results from a different soil cover in this sub-catchment. Indeed, teak plantations prone to soil erosion and low infiltrability conditions 27 28 (Patin et al., 2012) covered 32% of this sub-catchment area in 2012, whereas it had a two-fold 29 smaller extension in the drainage areas of S1 (14%) and S10 (15%). Moreover, the annual 30 runoff coefficients reported by Chaplot and Poesen (2012) at S4 and S10 were lower than 31 those reported in this study, but they were measured when teak plantations covered a much 32 lower part of the catchment (2002-2003, Chaplot et al., 2005). Overall, it is likely that teak

plantations will enhance overland flow and soil erosion at least during the years following
 land use conversion.

3 5.2 Particulate organic matter delivery during the 23 May 2012 flood

4 5.2.1 Sources of suspended organic matter in the catchment

5 Variations in the composition of particulate organic matter reflect changes in the source 6 supplying suspended sediment in the catchment during the flood. For S1 and S4, this evolution follows hyperbolic trends with suspended sediment loads for TOC, $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ 7 8 and tends to reach the mean composition of catchment surface soils during the main transport 9 phase (Fig. 5I-IIa-b). As reported by Bellanger et al. (2004) in the Venezuelan Andes, this 10 behaviour indicates that sheet erosion was likely the dominant process. Due to the absence of particulate inorganic carbon that could have biaised the measurements (see above in section 11 12 3.2), the composition of suspended sediments is consistent with the supply of carbonate free 13 soil-detached particles exported from catchment's soils.

14 **[Fig. 5]**

15 However, Meybeck (1993) outlined that hyperbolic trends may indicate that a significant 16 fraction of particulate organic matter exported from mountainous regions by rivers may be supplied by the direct erosion of sedimentary – metamorphic bedrocks (the so-called "fossil 17 18 carbon" pool) and pointed out that neglecting this source induces a bias in carbon budgets. 19 Fossil carbon may account for 90-100% of total particulate organic matter exported in rivers with average annual suspended loads exceeding 5 g L^{-1} (Meybeck, 2006), in the range 20 21 recorded for this study. In the Andes, Clark et al. (2013) identified fossil POC contributions associated with TSS concentrations above 1 g L^{-1} . In a Taiwanese river, Hilton et al. (2011) 22 reported suspended sediment concentrations up to *ca*. 30 g L^{-1} leading to fossil POC 23 concentrations up to ca. 0.1 g L^{-1} . The present study does not support the hypothesis of a 24 significant supply of rock-derived fossil carbon, often associated with important sediment 25 26 exports originating from gully systems (Duvert et al., 2010), landslides and mass movements 27 that were not observed in the Houay Pano catchment during this medium magnitude flood. 28 Bedrock outcrops are scares and not directly connected to the stream. Moreover the highest 29 δ^{15} N values rather reflect the occurrence of soil derived organic matter than fossil organic matter (e.g. Huon et al., 2006). The later should theoretically provide lower δ^{15} N than for soils 30 as preservation of organic matter in sedimentary and low metamorphic grade rocks takes 31 place at "high temperature" (low ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ fractionation with respect to vegetation) whereas 32

1 incorporation and stabilization of organic matter in soils should occur at "low temperature" (high ¹⁵N/¹⁴N fractionation). Fossil particulate organic carbon contributions have been 2 identified using ¹⁴C natural abundance and C-N stable isotope measurements in various 3 4 studies (e.g., Kao and Liu, 1997; Raymond and Bauer, 2001; Copard et al., 2007; Graz et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2013). For the Houay Xon catchment, the ¹³⁷Cs activity of suspended 5 sediments measured on the same sample aliquots are in the range of surface soil activities 6 (above 1 Bq kg⁻¹; **Table 1**; Gourdin et al., 2014). Paleozoic bedrocks could not be tagged by 7 fallout ¹³⁷Cs whose supply only took place in the 1960-1970's (Ritchie and McHenry, 1990). 8

9 5.2.2 Dynamics of suspended organic matter

At S1, the ¹³C-enriched compositions (Fig. 5IIa) first reflect the supply of organic matter 10 11 derived from C_4 photosynthetic pathway plants as observed in the field. With increasing water discharge, suspended sediments progressively incorporate ¹³C-depleted organic matter 12 originating from soils covered by C3 photosynthetic pathway plants that dominate in the 13 drainage area. Decreasing TOC/TN (increasing TN/TOC) and increasing δ^{15} N trends during 14 the flood are best explained by the re-suspension of weakly mineralized (low $\delta^{15}N$) C₄-plant 15 debris (high TOC/TN), followed by their mixing with soil organic matter exported from 16 cultivated fields and supplied by overland flow to the main stream (low TOC/TN, high δ^{15} N). 17 Plot of δ^{13} C vs. TN/TOC shows that the composition of suspended sediment loads matches 18 19 that of the main pools of particulate organic matter in the catchment, i.e., surface soils and 20 subsurface soils (gullies and river banks, Fig. 6). Mixing between the two end-members is 21 pictured by correlative behaviours for S1 and S10.

22 **[Fig. 6]**

23 It is worth noticing that bedrock source compositions available from literature for tropical catchments (i.e., Kao and Liu, 2000, Hilton et al., 2010) fall outside the observed mixing 24 25 trends. In addition, the occurrence of light density charcoal fragments produced by slash-and-26 burn cultivation might have slightly increased TOC/TN with respect to soil organic matter (Soto et al., 1995; Rumpel et al., 2006). Overland flow supply of particulate organic matter 27 28 exported from soils that are currently or were previously cultivated with upland rice is largely dominant at S4 compared to S1 (Fig. 5I-IIa-b). Fields cropped with C4-plants only cover 29 30 small areas in the catchment and their imprint on soil organic matter composition is therefore limited (Huon et al., 2013). The δ^{13} C recorded during and after the water discharge peak were 31 32 similar (-25.7%; Fig. 5IIa-b) to those of surface soils, reflecting the dominance of surface vs.

subsurface sources in Houay Pano catchment. At S8, located close to S4 (Fig. 1), $\delta^{15}N$ 1 increased noticeably from 6.5 to 8.3% during the storm, indicating that ¹⁵N-depleted organic 2 3 matter (i.e., vegetation debris) was first exported and that erosion progressively affected deeper ¹⁵N-enriched layers of the topsoil (**Table 1**). In contrast to the two other stations, the 4 5 maximum TOC/TN (23) recorded downstream at S10 occurred during the water discharge 6 peak (Figs. 3IIIf and 5Ic). Fresh organic matter characterized by high ratios is exported with 7 a time lag due to the remote location of its source (Gurnell, 2007). Suspended organic matter transported at the beginning of the flood (range: from -23 to -21%; Table A1, Fig. 5IIc) is 8 enriched in ¹³C and ¹⁵N compared to the mean surface soil and matches subsurface soil 9 10 signatures (stream banks and gullies, **Table 1**). This observation supports previous findings 11 showing the dominance of riverbank erosion characterized by the depletion in fallout radionuclides measured for sediments collected at this station (Gourdin et al., 2014). Positive 12 correlative trends between soil TOC and ¹³⁷Cs inventories suggest that a similar process, i.e. 13 erosion and erosion-induced carbon depletion, controlled their concomitant decrease since the 14 15 onset of cultivation in the 1960's (Huon et al., 2013). Smith and Blake (2014) reported similar 16 correlations for riverine sediments in parts of their study sites. No such relationships could be 17 put forward during the 23 May 2012 flood (data not shown).

18 Contribution of overland flow to stream water discharge derived from hydrograph separation 19 can be linked to the source of suspended organic matter (Fig. 5 III) as well as to the extent of 20 particulate organic matter transfer (Fig. 5 IV). In terms of water - sediment dynamics, high 21 OF contributions (above ca. 50%) supply large quantities of soil organic matter (fingerprinted by lower TOC contents and enriched isotopic compositions compared to fresh vegetation 22 23 debris) to the river. In contrast, low OF contributions may indicate the dominance of 24 riverbank erosion and remobilization of sediment deposited on the riverbed during previous 25 floods. Based on hydrograph separation, it is then possible to draw sediment and particulate 26 organic carbon budgets at the catchment's scale in areas where surface soil erosion dominates.

27

28 5.2.3 Suspended sediment and particulate organic carbon deliveries

Total suspended sediment exports are summarized in **Table 3** for S1, S4 and S10 subcatchments.

31 [Table 3]

Compared to the 2002-2003 annual sediment yield at S4 (2090 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and S10 (540 kg 1 2 ha⁻¹ vr⁻¹) reported by Chaplot and Poesen (2012), the 23 May 2012 flood represented *ca*. 21% of the total annual exports recorded for both stations. These deliveries are high for a single 3 4 event of moderate intensity. However, fallout radionuclide measurements (Gourdin et al., 5 2014) indicate that this flood was the first important erosive event of the 2012 rainy season and mainly consisted of remobilized river channel sediment (ca. 80%). The TSS yield (S_Y) of 6 ca. 433 kg ha⁻¹ (8.3 kgC ha⁻¹) at S4 is greater than at S1 and S10 (**Table 3**) and consistent 7 8 with higher specific runoff and runoff coefficient values (Table 2). With a low value at S1, 9 the succession of nested catchments was not related to a decrease in specific delivery when 10 drainage area increased. This unsual behaviour is best explained by the occurrence of swamp 11 areas along the main stream. In the upper part of the catchment, a natural swamp acts as a 12 filter for sediments conveyed during low to medium magnitude floods (Fig. 1). Napier grass, 13 the main aquatic plant forms dense masses of litter that reduce stream flow velocity during the 14 rainy season. Nearly 33 Mg of soil-derived organic carbon was thus accumulated since the early 1960's (Huon et al., 2013). This swamp played a key role with respect to downstream 15 export of suspended sediment during the 23 May 2012 flood. It also explains why the high 16 δ^{13} C values of TSS loads, observed during the rising water stage upstream of the swamp (at 17 18 S1), were only partly transmitted to S4. Soil-derived organic matter supplied by overland flow 19 replaced the major part of the TSS during the rising stage, downstream of the swamp. A 20 comparable picture can be drawn for the wetlands located at the outlet of the village. However 21 in contrast this swampy area where streambanks are also encroached by Napier grass contributed to a rise of the $\delta^{13}C$ values of suspended organic matter at the monitoring station 22 23 S10. This shift fingerprinted the extent of streambank sediment retention and mobilization 24 processes taking place downstream in accordance with radionuclide activity measurements 25 carried out for the same samples (Gourdin et al., 2014).

26

27 6 Concluding remarks

The composition of suspended organic matter and stream water, monitored during the first erosive – medium magnitude flood event of the 2012 rainy season in a cultivated catchment of northern Laos, provided an efficient way to quantify the evolution of particulate organic matter sources along a network of nested gauging stations.

32 In the upper part of the drainage basin (Houay Pano sub-catchment), the composition of 33 suspended organic matter exported shows that sediment mainly originated from in-channel and nearby sources during the rising stage and from cultivated surface soils at peak flow and
 during the recessing stage.

3 Downstream, the composition of suspended organic matter in the Houay Xon River reflected
4 the dominant supply of subsurface sources (riverbanks and gullies) and a subsequent dilution

5 of soil-derived organic matter delivery by channel - bank mixing and mobilization processes.

6 Wetlands and swampy areas played a key role in the process by trapping sediment upstream
7 in the steep part of the catchment and by remobilizing riverbank sediment downstream in the
8 floodplain as highlighted by changes in the composition of suspended organic matter.

9 The relationships between water flow and suspended sediment load as well as hydrograph 10 separation procedures can be better constrained using high-resolution monitoring of overland 11 flow than direct rainfall as shown in this study.

Finally, the sampling period, at the onset of the rainy season, following field clearing by slash and burn explains the important sediment delivery observed at the outlet of the catchment for a medium magnitude flood.

15

16 Acknowledgements

17 The authors would like to thank the Lao NAFRI (National Agriculture and Forestry Research 18 Institute in Vientiane) and the MSEC project (Multi-Scale Environment Changes) for their 19 support. They are also grateful to Keo Oudone Latsachack, Bounsamai Soulileuth and 20 Chanthamousone Thammahacksa for their help in the field, to Véronique Vaury (iEES-Paris) 21 for organic matter composition measurements, and to Patricia Richard (iEES-Thiverval Grignon) for δ^{18} O measurements of water samples. Elian Gourdin received a PhD fellowship 22 from Paris-Sud University, Orsay, France. This work received financial support from the 23 24 French CNRS EC2CO / BIOHEFECT program (Belcrue project).

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Table 1. Mean organic matter composition and ¹³⁷Cs activity (\pm 1 standard deviation) for surface soils (n=64), gullies (n=5) and stream bank (n=6) samples in the Houay Pano and Houay Xon catchments. For ¹³⁷Cs activity measurements, see Gourdin et al. (2014).

Location	TOC	TN	TOC/TN	$\delta^{13}C$	$\delta^{15}N$	¹³⁷ Cs
	$(mgC g^{-1})$	$(mgN g^{-1})$		(‰)	(‰)	$(Bq kg^{-1})$
Surface soils*	25 ± 5	2.1 ± 0.5	11.6 ± 2.0	-25.5 ± 1.4	6.7 ± 1.3	2.2 ± 0.9
Stream banks**	13 ± 6	1.1 ± 0.3	12.4 ± 7.7	-23.2 ± 4.4	8.6 ± 1.9	0.4 ± 0.3
Gullies**	14 ± 7	1.4 ± 0.6	9.6 ± 0.8	-22.7 ± 0.8	8.7 ± 2.1	0.4 ± 0.3

*Data from Huon et al. (2013) and this study (2012), **this study (2012).

Table 2. Estimates of event water discharge (EWD) and related specific runoff (SR) and runoff coefficient (RC) for the three stations during the 23 May 2012 flood.

_	-			
Station	Drainage area	EWD*	SR**	RC***
	(km²)	$(x \ 10^6 L)$	(mm)	(%)
S 1	0.2	0.215	1.1	4.0
S 4	0.6	1.88	3.2	11.7
S10	11.6	12.2	1.1	3.9

* EWD = total water discharge minus baseflow discharge

** SR = EWD / drainage area

*** RC = 100 x (SR / rainfall) assuming an homogeneous cumulativer rainfall of 27 mm

Station	SSY	$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{SSY}}$	S_Y^*	C_Y^{**}
	(Mg)	(kg)	(kg ha ⁻¹)	(kgC ha ⁻¹)
S 1	2.3	58	115	2.9
S4	26	496	433	8.3
S10	130	4346	112	3.7

Table 3. Total suspended sediment yield (SSY), total particulate organic carbon yield (C_{SSY}), specific total suspended sediment yield (S_Y) and specific total organic carbon yield (C_Y) for the 23 May 2012 flood.

* $S_y = 10 \times SSY$ / drainage area in Table 2 ** $C_Y = 10^{-2} \times C_{SSY}$ / drainage area in Table 2

	Time*	TSS*	Q*	EC*	$\delta^{18}O^{\ast}$	TOC*	TN*	TOC/TN*	δ ¹³ C* (‰ vs. PDB)	δ ¹⁵ N* (‰ vs. AIR)
	(hh:mm)	mm) (g L ⁻¹)	$(L s^{-1})$	$(\mu S \text{ cm}^{-1})$	(‰ vs. V- SMOW)	$(mgC g^{-1})$	$(mgN g^{-1})$			
Station S1										
LS0101	12:08	0.86	5	335	-7.2	42.0	2.0	20.5	-15.3	7.1
LS0102	12:09	0.56	7	317	-7.1	60.3	2.6	23.1	-19.0	5.5
LS0103	12:09	0.53	10	317	-7.0	-	-	-	-	-
LS0104	12:10	0.61	13	299	-6.8	66.2	2.1	31.0	-19.7	7.0
LS0105	12:10	-	16	299	-	-	-	-	-	-
LS0106	12:11	1.23	21	282	-6.9	32.2	2.3	14.0	-23.0	6.0
LS0107	12:13	1.70	27	262	-6.6	26.2	2.0	13.0	-23.7	6.6
LS0108	12:14	2.37	34	259	-6.2	25.0	2.0	12.7	-22.4	6.8
LS0109	12:19	3.65	40	241	-6.0	23.1	2.1	10.8	-24.4	7.2
LS0110	12:20	4.17	55	233	-6.1	23.4	2.2	10.7	-24.5	7.3
LS0111	12:21	4.65	76	224	-5.9	22.5	2.0	11.1	-24.1	7.5
LS0112	12:21	18.74	90	215	-5.8	27.4	2.0	11.1	-25.6	6.8
LS0113	12:30	29.98	68	184	-5.8	25.7	2.1	11.0	-25.8	6.8
LS0114	12:33	23.02	51	188	-5.5	25.8	2.2	10.7	-25.9	7.5
LS0115	12:37	24.05	38	194	-5.4	23.3	2.0	10.1	-25.8	7.5
LS0116	12:43	17.67	27	205	-5.6	20.8	2.5	9.8	-25.6	7.7
LS0117	12:50	16.38	18	218	-5.7	19.3	2.3	9.0	-25.3	7.8
LS0118	12:57	9.13	14	232	-5.8	18.7	2.4	9.0	-25.0	7.5
LS0119	12:58	14.37	13	233	-6.1	18.6	2.3	9.1	-25.1	7.2
LS0120	13:15	4.50	8	262	-6.2	19.3	2.1	9.6	-23.8	7.1
Station S4										
LS0403	11:57	1.53	15	297	-6.9	-	-	-	-	-
LS0404	11:58	1.21	24	306	-6.7	-	-	-	-	-
LS0403-4**	-	-	-	-	-	27.7	2.6	10.8	-23.8	7.1
LS0405	12:00	1.16	33	306	-6.5	29.9	2.9	10.4	-23.5	6.5
LS0406	12:01	2.71	42	262	-6.1	24.8	2.4	10.2	-24.4	7.2
LS0407	12:04	5.83	54	216	-5.5	22.6	2.2	10.5	-25.0	7.2
LS0408	12:05	6.83	76	205	-5.2	-	-	-	-	-
LS0409	12:06	7.25	114	198	-5.3	-	-	-	-	-
LS0408-9**	-	-	-	-	-	21.2	2.1	10.1	-25.0	7.5
LS0410	12:07	10.07	144	177	-4.7	22.1	2.1	10.7	-25.2	7.6
LS0411	12:07	11.89	185	161	-4.7	20.8	2.0	10.3	-25.2	7.6
LS0412	12:08	15.75	280	138	-4.5	19.2	1.9	9.9	-25.6	7.6
LS0413	12:09	20.05	309	121	-4.9	-	-	-	-	-
LS0414	12:10	31.56	358	99	-5.1	19.6	2.1	9.6	-25.4	8.0
LS0415	12:11	46.51	440	87	-5.2	21.1	2.1	10.0	-25.6	7.5

Appendix A: Table A1. Summary of data for stations S1, S4 and S10 during the 23 May 2012 flood.

Label	Time*	TSS*	Q*	EC*	$\delta^{18}O^{\ast}$	TOC*	TN*	TOC/TN*	$\delta^{13}C\ast$	$\delta^{15}N^{\ast}$
	(hh:mm)	(g L ⁻¹)	(L s ⁻¹)	$(\mu S \text{ cm}^{-1})$	(‰ vs. V- SMOW)	$(mgC g^{-1})$	(mgN g ⁻¹)		(‰ vs. PDB)	(‰ vs. AIR)
LS0416	12:20	28.40	335	103	-5.4	24.5	2.1	11.5	-26.0	7.1
LS0417	12:23	23.00	277	105	-5.4	24.7	2.2	11.4	-25.8	7.2
LS0418	12:26	17.76	228	117	-5.6	24.7	2.1	11.8	-26.0	7.4
LS0419	12:34	11.70	183	152	-5.6	-	-	-	-	-
LS0420	13:20	12.62	145	164	-5.6	-	-	-	-	-
LS0419-20**	-	-	-	-	-	22.5	2.0	11.0	-25.8	7.4
LS0421	13:32	7.71	112	192	-5.8	19.0	1.9	9.8	-25.6	7.7
LS0422	13:46	6.92	84	201	-6.1	19.6	2.0	9.8	-25.6	7.7
LS0423	14:05	6.93	59	203	-6.0	-	-	-	-	-
LS0424	14:43	5.89	39	214	-6.2	-	-	-	-	-
LS0425	15:46	3.37	23	230	-6.2	-	-	-	-	-
LS0423-25**	-	-	-	-	-	20.9	2.2	9.6	-25.5	7.3
Station S10										
LS1002	12:24	7.94	204	227	-5.5	-	-	-	-	-
LS1003	12:28	5.57	455	220	-5.5	-	-	-	-	-
LS1002-3**	-	-	-	-	-	39	2.0	19.8	-21.2	8.2
LS1004	12:31	8.77	623	215	-5.9	-	-	-	-	-
LS1005	13:03	11.10	943	167.5	-5.6	-	-	-	-	-
LS1004-5**	-	-	-	-	-	36	1.9	19.1	-22.6	7.4
LS1006	13:06	23.63	990	167	-5.7	44	1.9	23.1	-21.8	7.0
LS1007	13:27	17.02	1535	156	-5.4	44	2.0	22.2	-22.3	7.5
LS1008	13:33	24.43	1350	155.5	-5.7	29	1.8	16.2	-22.7	8.4
LS1009	13:39	24.00	1187	157	-5.6	31	1.8	17.2	-23.0	7.9
LS1010	13:46	15.74	1038	160	-5.6	25	1.8	13.7	-24.3	7.9
LS1011	13:55	21.47	886	167.5	-5.7	27	1.9	14.3	-23.4	7.3
LS1012	14:06	18.01	735	174	-5.6	29	1.9	15.0	-24.5	7.4
LS1013	14:20	15.35	597	184	-5.8	24	2.0	12.4	-24.5	7.1
LS1014	14:38	12.80	485	198	-5.7	-	-	-	-	-
LS1015	15:14	10.17	308	222	-5.9	-	-	-	-	-
LS1014-15**	-	-	-	-	-	30	1.9	15.5	-23.6	7.1

* = Time of collection, total suspended sediment load (TSS), stream discharge (Q), water electric conductivity (EC) and δ^{18} O, total organic carbon in TSS (TOC), total nitrogen in TSS (TN), δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N for TSS, ** = composite sample, - = no value.

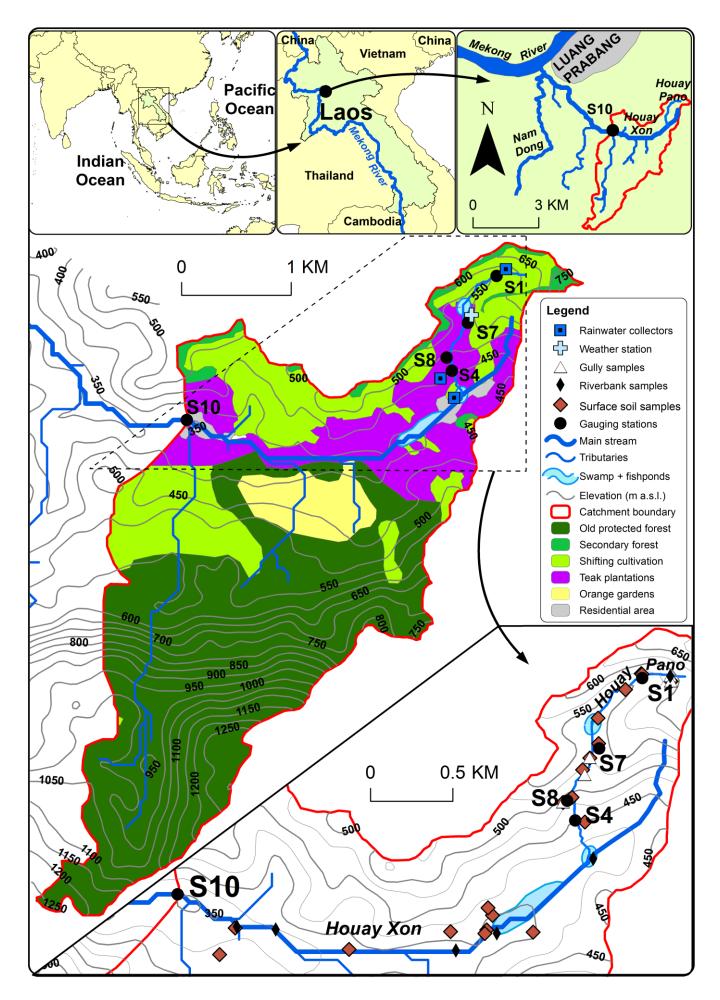


Fig. 1. Location of the Houay Xon River catchment in SE Asia (a). Topographic and land use map of the Houay Xon S10 sub-catchment in 2012 with location of the gauging stations (S1, S4, S7, S8, S10), rainwater collectors and automatic weather station (b), surface soil, gully and riverbank sampling locations (c).

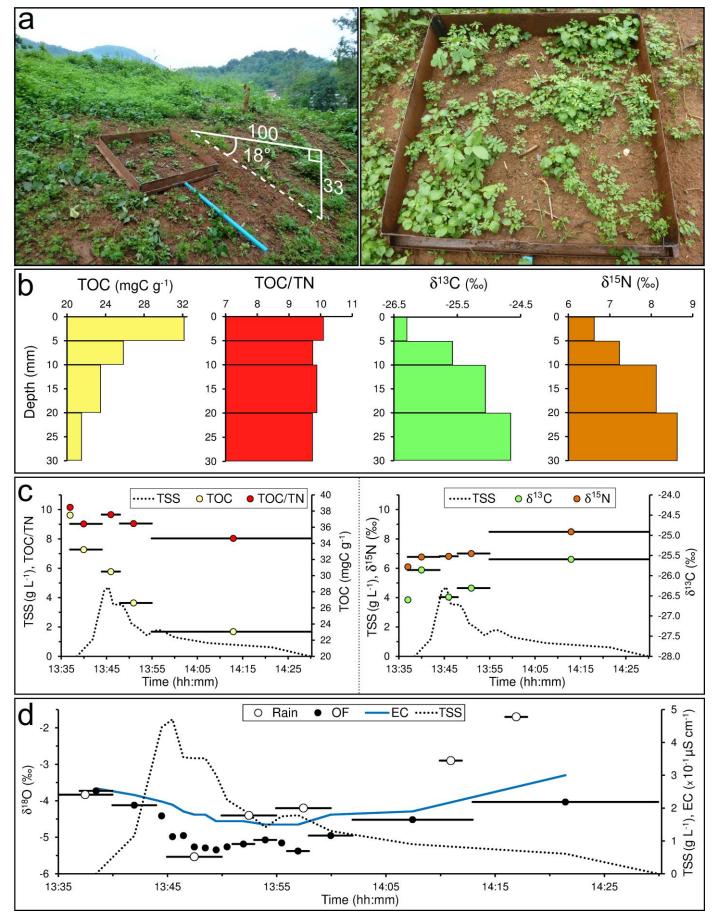


Fig. 2. Microplot experiment: (a) presentation of the 1-m² collecting system and its vegetation cover; (b) Distribution of topsoil total organic carbon (TOC) concentration, total organic carbon : total nitrogen ratio (TOC/TN), δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N with soil depth; (c) temporal evolution of the total suspended sediment load (TSS) plotted with TOC and TOC/TN in TSS (left) and with δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N in TSS (right) during the June 1st storm and (d) temporal evolution of the overland flow TSS load with rainwater- δ^{18} O (Rain), overland flow- δ^{18} O (OF) and overland flow electric conductivity (EC) during the June 1st storm.

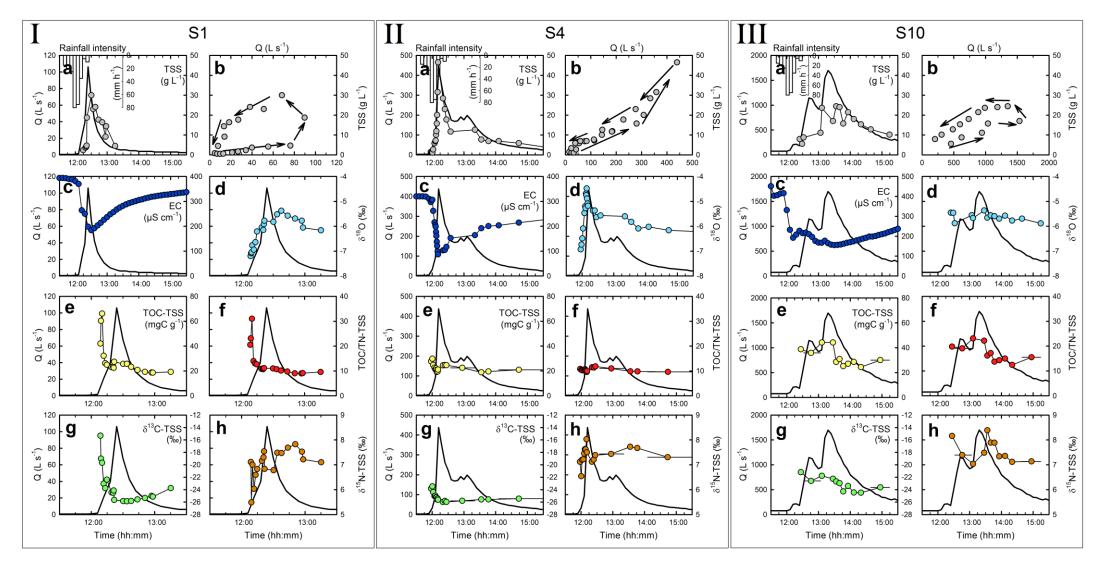


Fig. 3. Plots of the temporal evolution of (a) rainfall intensity, stream discharge (Q, thicker solid line), (b) total suspended sediment load (TSS), (c) water electric conductivity (EC), (d) streamwater- δ^{18} O, (e) total organic carbon concentration in the TSS (TOC-TSS), (f) total organic carbon : total nitrogen ratio in the TSS (TOC/TN-TSS), (g) δ^{13} C-TSS, (h) δ^{15} N-TSS for : (I) the upstream station S1, (II) the intermediate station S4, and (III) the downstream station S10, during the 23 May 2012 flood. Horizontal bars represent sampling period for composite samples.

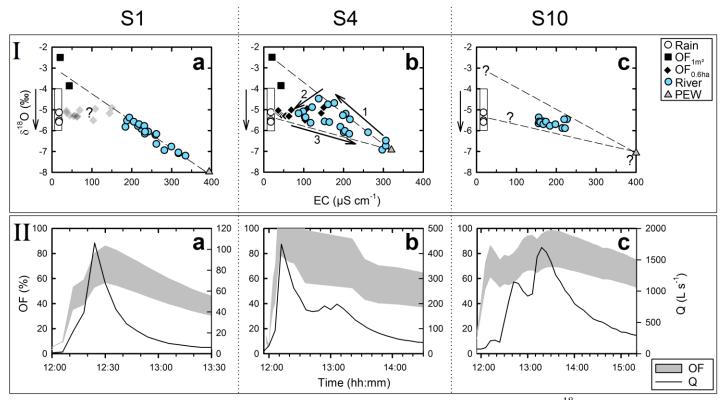


Fig. 4. Plots of: (I) relationships between water electric conductivity (EC) and water δ^{18} O, and (II) temporal evolution of stream water discharge (Q) with overland flow contribution estimates (OF) for (a) the upstream station S1, (b) the intermediate station S4, and (c) the downstream station S10, during the 23 May 2012 flood. In (I), open circles correspond to rainwater, filled squares to cumulative overland flow obtained with 1-m² plots (OF_{1m²}), filled diamonds to overland flow from S7 and S8 hillslopes (OF_{0.6ha}), filled colored circles to stream water, triangles to pre-event water (PEW). The rectangle areas and vertical arrows represent the potential temporal variability of rainwater- δ^{18} O during the storm. In (II), the shaded area corresponds to the variability range for the estimated overland flow contribution.

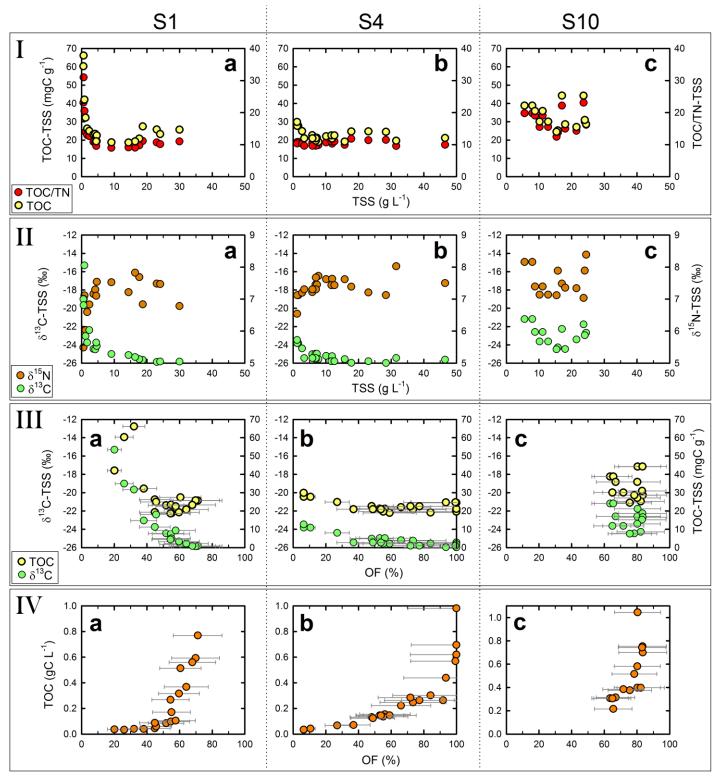


Fig. 5. Relationships between total suspended sediment load (TSS), total organic carbon concentration in the TSS (TOC-TSS), total organic carbon : total nitrogen ratio in the TSS (TOC/TN-TSS), δ^{13} C-TSS, δ^{15} N-TSS, total organic carbon load (TOC) and overland flow contribution estimates (OF): (a) at upstream station S1 (Houay Pano Stream), (b) at intermediate station S4, and (c) at downstream station S10, during the 23 May 2012 flood. In (III) and (IV), circles represent the median values of the variability range (horizontal bars) of estimated OF contribution.

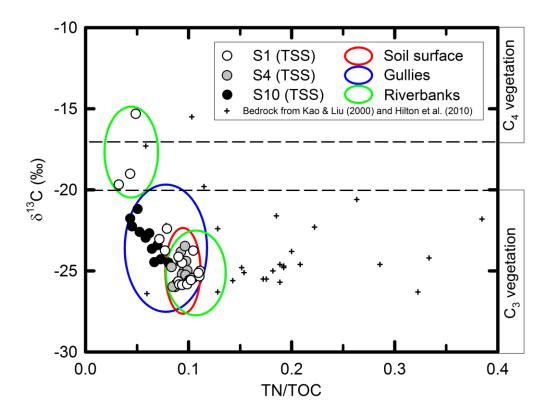


Fig. 6. Plot of δ^{13} C *vs.* TN/TOC for total suspended sediment loads (TSS) collected at S1 (open circles), S4 (grey circles) and S10 (closed circles) during the 23 May 2012 flood and for the potential sources of sediment (Soil surface: red area; Gullies: blue area; Riverbanks: green areas) determined in the catchment. Bedrock data (plus signs) are taken from literature (Kao and Liu, 2000; Hilton et al., 2010).