



1 **Carbon dioxide emissions from the flat bottom and shallow**  
2 **Nam Theun 2 Reservoir: drawdown area as a neglected**  
3 **pathway to the atmosphere**

4 **Chandrashekhhar Deshmukh<sup>1,2,3,a</sup>, Frédéric Guérin<sup>1,4,5</sup>, Axay Vongkhamsao<sup>6</sup>,**  
5 **Sylvie Pighini<sup>6,b</sup>, Phetdala Oudone<sup>6,c</sup>, Saysoulinthone Sopraseuth<sup>6</sup>, Aranud**  
6 **Godon<sup>6,d</sup>, Wanidoporn Rode<sup>6</sup>, Pierre Guédant<sup>6</sup>, Priscia Oliva<sup>1</sup>, Stéphane Audry<sup>1</sup>,**  
7 **Cyril Zouiten<sup>1</sup>, Corinne Galy-Lacaux<sup>2</sup>, Henri Robain<sup>7</sup>, Olivier Ribolzi<sup>1</sup>, Arun**  
8 **Kansal<sup>3</sup>, Vincent Chanudet<sup>8</sup>, Stéphane Descloux<sup>8</sup>, Dominique Serça<sup>2</sup>**

9 [1]{Géosciences Environnement Toulouse (GET), Université de Toulouse (UPS), 14 Avenue  
10 E. Belin, F-31400 Toulouse, France}

11 [2]{Laboratoire d'Aérodologie - Université de Toulouse - CNRS UMR 5560; 14 Av. Edouard  
12 Belin, F-31400, Toulouse, France}

13 [3]{Centre for Regulatory and Policy Research, TERI University, New Delhi, India}

14 [4]{IRD ; UR 234, GET ; 14 Avenue E. Belin, F-31400, Toulouse, France}

15 [5]{Departamento de Geoquímica, Universidade Federal Fluminense, Niteroi-RJ, Brasil}

16 [6]{Nam Theun 2 Power Company Limited (NTPC), Environment & Social Division – Water  
17 Quality and Biodiversity Dept.– Gnommalath Office, PO Box 5862, Vientiane, Lao PDR}

18 [7]{IRD, iEES-Paris, Centre IRD France-Nord, 32 avenue Henri Varagnat, 93143 Bondy  
19 Cedex, France}

20 [8]{Electricité de France, Hydro Engineering Centre, Sustainable Development Dpt, Savoie  
21 Technolac, F-73373 Le Bourget du Lac, France}

22 [a]{now at: Asia Pacific Resources International Limited (APRIL), Indonesia}

23 [b]{now at: Innsbruck University, Institute of Ecology, 15 Sternwartestrasse, A-6020  
24 Innsbruck, Austria and Foundation Edmund Mach, FOXLAB-FEM, Via E. Mach 1, IT-38010  
25 San Michele all'Adige, Italy}

26 [c]{now at: Department of Environmental Science, Faculty of Environmental Sciences,  
27 National University of Laos, Vientiane, Lao PDR}



28 [d]{now at: Arnaud Godon Company, 44 Route de Genas, Nomade Lyon, 69003 Lyon,  
29 France}

30 Correspondence to: F. Guérin (Frederic.guerin@ird.fr)

### 31 **Abstract**

32 Freshwater reservoirs are a significant source of CO<sub>2</sub> to the atmosphere. CO<sub>2</sub> is known to be  
33 emitted at the reservoir surface by diffusion at the air-water interface and downstream of  
34 dams or powerhouses by degassing and along the river course. In this study, we quantified  
35 total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the Nam Theun 2 Reservoir in the Mekong River watershed. The  
36 study started in May 2009, less than a year after flooding and just a few months after the  
37 maximum level was first reached and lasted until end of 2013. We tested the hypothesis that  
38 soils from the drawdown area would be a significant contributor to the total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

39 Total inorganic carbon, dissolved and particulate organic carbon and CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were  
40 measured in four rivers of the Nam Theun watershed at nine stations in the reservoir (vertical  
41 profiles) and at 16 stations downstream of the monomictic reservoir on a weekly to monthly  
42 basis. CO<sub>2</sub> bubbling was estimated during five field campaigns between 2009 and 2011 and  
43 on a weekly monitoring, covering water depths ranging from 0.4 to 16m and various types of  
44 flooded ecosystems in 2012-2013. Three field campaigns in 2010, 2011 and 2013 were  
45 dedicated to the soils description in 21 plots and the quantification of soil CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from  
46 the drawdown area. On this basis, we calculated total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the reservoir and  
47 carbon inputs from the tributaries. We confirm the importance of the flooded stock of organic  
48 matter as a source of C fuelling emissions and we show that the drawdown area contributes,  
49 depending on the year, from 50% to 75% of total annual gross emissions in this flat and  
50 shallow reservoir. This overlooked pathway in terms of gross emissions would require an in-  
51 depth evaluation for the soil OM and vegetation dynamics to evaluate the actual contribution  
52 of this area in terms of net modification of gas exchange in the footprint of the reservoir, and  
53 how it could evolve in the future.

### 54 **1 Introduction**

55 Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) emissions from inland waters were recently revisited and it appears that  
56 emissions from freshwater reservoirs contribute significantly despite the disproportionately  
57 small surface area of these systems (Barros et al., 2011; Raymond et al., 2013; Deemer et al.,  
58 2016). The CO<sub>2</sub> production and subsequent emissions in reservoirs result from the



59 degradation of the flooded organic matter (OM) and the OM originating from the watershed  
60 (Galy-Lacaux et al., 1997b; Abril et al., 2005; Guérin et al., 2008; Barros et al., 2011; Teodoru  
61 et al., 2011). As the amount of labile OM originating from the flooded soils and biomass  
62 decreases with time due to the progressive mineralisation of the carbon stock, emissions  
63 decrease progressively with reservoirs ageing (Abril et al., 2005; Barros et al., 2011). CO<sub>2</sub>  
64 emissions are higher in tropical reservoirs than in temperate and boreal ones, a latitudinal  
65 difference attributed to the enhancement of OM degradation with temperature (Barros et al.,  
66 2011; Marotta et al., 2014; Yvon-Durocher et al., 2014). Emissions occur through diffusion at  
67 the air-water interface of the reservoir and from rivers downstream of dams (Abril et al.,  
68 2005; Guérin et al., 2006; Kemenes et al., 2011). At the surface of reservoirs, it is well known  
69 that emissions vary significantly spatially and temporally. Spatial variations can be higher  
70 than temporal variations (Roland et al., 2010; Teodoru et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2013; Pacheco  
71 et al., 2015). Thus, the integration of both temporal and spatial variations is mandatory for the  
72 determination of accurate emission factors.

73 Recently, the importance of the drawdown emissions was pointed out as a significant source  
74 of CH<sub>4</sub> in the Three Gorges Dam (Chen et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2012) and a  
75 very minor source at Nam Theun 2 Reservoir (NT2R) (Serça et al., 2016). CO<sub>2</sub> emission from  
76 the drawdown area was only measured in agricultural plots of the drawdown area of the Three  
77 Gorges Dam (Li et al., 2016). However, the hypothesis of significant CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from  
78 those soils seasonally flooded and exposed to air was never tested in unmanaged drawdown  
79 area representative of tropical reservoirs with large water level variations. In the present  
80 study, we measured CO<sub>2</sub>, organic and inorganic carbon concentrations and physico-chemical  
81 parameters at 9 stations in the NT2R and 16 stations downstream of the dam and the  
82 powerhouse. This weekly to fortnightly sampling was conducted in order to estimate  
83 emissions from the reservoir surface and downstream emissions during 4.5 years of  
84 monitoring after impoundment. We also measured CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the large drawdown  
85 area of the NT2R that represented seasonally up to 65% of the maximum reservoir area  
86 during the study. The spatial, seasonal and interannual variation of emissions by all the above-  
87 listed pathways and their contribution to total gross CO<sub>2</sub> emissions will be discussed.



## 88 2 Material and Methods

### 89 2.1 Study site

90 The NT2R is located in Lao People Democratic Republic's (Lao PDR), it was impounded in  
91 April 2008 and was commissioned in April 2010. It floods 489 km<sup>2</sup> of very diverse types of  
92 ecosystems including forest, agricultural soils and wetlands (Descloux et al., 2011).  
93 Geological formations responsible for the soil development in the NT2R area are mainly  
94 composed by more or less consolidated sedimentary rocks (Lovatt Smith et al., 1996; Smith  
95 and Stokes, 1997). The parental rocks belong to the Khorat group and Phon Hong group  
96 formations (Cretaceous) with two main lithologies: (1) late cretaceous Maha Sarakham  
97 formation (i.e., evaporites and mudstones) and (2) aptian Khot Kruat formation (i.e., mainly  
98 fluvial formation of red siltstones and sandstones)

99 The NT2R, described in details in Descloux et al. (2016); Deshmukh et al. (2016); Guérin et al.  
100 (2016) is under the influence of a monsoon subtropical climate with three main seasons: the  
101 cold dry season (CD, from mid-Oct. to mid-Feb.), the warm dry season (WD, from mid-Feb.  
102 to mid-June) and the warm wet season (WW, from mid-June to mid-Oct.). Owing to the large  
103 seasonal variations of the river discharges in the region, the reservoir area decreased down to  
104 170 km<sup>2</sup> in the 2011 WD season during the course of the study. On the opposite, the surface  
105 of the drawdown area reached its maximum (320 km<sup>2</sup>) when the water level was the lowest.  
106 During the monitoring, the wettest years were 2011 and 2013 with an average water discharge  
107 in the reservoir of ~270 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-2</sup> whereas the driest year was 2012 with a discharge 230 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-2</sup>.  
108 In 2011, in this single year the reservoir had the largest water level variations with the largest  
109 surface area of the monitoring in the wet season (491 km<sup>2</sup>) and the smallest of the monitoring  
110 in the WD season (168 km<sup>2</sup>). The NT2R is a trans-basin reservoir with two downstream  
111 sections: one below the powerhouse and one below the Nakai Dam (Figure 1). Except during  
112 the occasional use of the spillways, only 2 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> of water are discharged downstream of the  
113 Nakai Dam in the Nam Theun River and around 240 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> are released to the powerhouse,  
114 the regulating pond and finally the artificial downstream channel before water reaches the Xe  
115 Bangfai River (Figure 1).



## 116 **2.2 Sampling strategy**

117 The CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> concentrations in water and the water temperature were determined in  
118 surface waters of six pristine rivers and three rivers under the influence of the reservoir (10  
119 stations) and in the artificial channel (5 stations) whereas it was done along vertical profiles in  
120 the reservoir (9 stations) and the regulation pond (1 station) (Figure 1). At all sites located  
121 downstream of the powerhouse, sampling was done weekly (from March 2010 to December  
122 2013) whereas it was done fortnightly in incoming pristine rivers and in the reservoir (from  
123 May 2009 to December 2013). The stations RES1-RES3 flooded dense forest, the stations  
124 RES4-RES6 flooded degraded forest, the station RES7 flood swamps and the station RES8  
125 flooded a rice field area (Descloux et al., 2011; Guérin et al., 2016). The station RES9 is  
126 located at the water intake, an area of continuous vertical mixing of the water column, where  
127 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions are enhanced (Guérin et al., 2016). Degassing of CO<sub>2</sub> was calculated below  
128 the Nakai Dam, just below the turbines at TRC1, below the regulating dam (RD on Figure 1)  
129 and at the aeration weir (AW on Figure 1). Bubbling of CO<sub>2</sub> was determined during five field  
130 campaigns covering different seasons and sites in 2009, 2010 and 2011, and during a weekly  
131 monitoring from March 2012 to August 2013 at seven stations. In the drawdown area, soil  
132 description was conducted in June 2010 at six sites and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions were repeatedly  
133 measured at 21 plots over those sites in June 2010, 2011 and 2013.

## 134 **2.3 In situ measurements and water analysis**

135 Vertical profiles of O<sub>2</sub>, pH and temperature were measured in situ at all sampling stations  
136 with a multi-parameter probe Quanta® (Hydrolab, Austin, Texas) since January 2009. In the  
137 reservoir, the vertical resolution was 0.5 m down to 5 m and and 1 m deeper. Surface and  
138 deep-water samples for CO<sub>2</sub>, dissolved organic carbon (DOC), particulate organic carbon  
139 (POC) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) concentrations were taken with a surface water  
140 sampler (Abril et al., 2007) and a UWITEC sampling bottle, respectively. Water samples for  
141 CO<sub>2</sub> determination were stored in serum glass vials, capped with butyl stoppers, sealed with  
142 aluminium crimps and preserved (Guérin and Abril, 2007). CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were  
143 determined by the headspace technique and using the solubility coefficient of Weiss (1974) as  
144 in Guérin et al. (2006). The CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure in headspace was determined by gas  
145 chromatography (GC) (SRI 8610C gas chromatograph, Torrance, CA, USA) equipped with a  
146 flame ionization detector and a methanizer (Chanudet et al., 2011). Commercial gas standards  
147 (400, 1000 and 3000 ppmv, Air Liquid "crystal" standards) were injected after every 10



148 samples for calibration. Detection limit was  $< 1$  ppmv in headspace and duplicate injection of  
149 samples showed reproducibility better than 5%. For TIC, DOC and POC, analyses were  
150 performed with a Shimadzu TOC-V<sub>CSH</sub> analyser. Filtered (0.45  $\mu\text{m}$ , Nylon) and unfiltered  
151 samples were analysed for TIC and TOC. POC was calculated by the difference between  
152 TOC and DOC concentrations in unfiltered and filtered samples. The detection limit was 8  
153  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  and uncertainty was 2.0  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  on TOC and DOC and 2.8  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  on POC.

#### 154 **2.4 Organic and inorganic carbon inputs from the watershed to the reservoir**

155 Carbon inputs were calculated on a monthly basis using monthly average of the river  
156 discharge of the four main tributaries of the NT2R. The Nam Theun River contributed 32% of  
157 the total discharge while Nam Xot, Nam On and Nam Noy (not monitored for  
158 biogeochemistry) contributed 24%, 23 and 22% respectively. For the Nam On River, the  
159 specific water discharge and POC, DOC, TIC and  $\text{CO}_2$  from this river were used. For the  
160 other rivers, the specific water discharge of each river was used together with the average  
161 DOC, POC, TIC and  $\text{CO}_2$  from Nam Theun, Nam Phao and Nam Xot Rivers all located in the  
162 Nam Theun watershed. Note that the Nam Phao reaches the Nam Theun River downstream of  
163 the Nakai Dam but we used this dataset together with the ones from other rivers to calculate  
164 the carbon inputs since the physico-chemical parameters and carbon concentrations are not  
165 different from other rivers in the watershed.

#### 166 **2.5 Diffusive fluxes and degassing**

167 Diffusive fluxes at the air-water interface of the reservoir were calculated from the surface  
168  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations, wind speed and rainfall rates using the gas transfer velocity formulations  
169 of Guérin et al. (2007) and MacIntyre et al. (2010) as already described for  $\text{CH}_4$  fluxes from  
170 this reservoir (Deshmukh et al., 2014; Guérin et al., 2016). Based on physical modelling and in  
171 situ measurements (Chanudet et al., 2012), we determined that the station RES9 located at the  
172 water intake is representative of an area of about 3  $\text{km}^2$  (i.e. 0.6 % of the reservoir water  
173 surface at full reservoir water supply), whatever the season (Guérin et al., 2016). This area  
174 was therefore used to extrapolate specific diffusive fluxes from this station. For other stations,  
175 diffusive fluxes are calculated with the daily meteorological parameters and reservoir water  
176 surface area from the capacity curve. Degassing downstream of the powerhouse, the  
177 regulating dam and the aeration weir, all located along the artificial channel and downstream  
178 of the Nakai Dam (Figure 1), were computed using the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration upstream and



179 downstream of these civil structures and the water discharge as in Deshmukh et al. (2016) for  
180 CH<sub>4</sub>. The diffusion from the rivers and artificial channel below the powerhouse and the dam  
181 was calculated using a constant gas transfer velocity of 10 cm h<sup>-1</sup> (Deshmukh et al., 2016).

## 182 **2.6 CO<sub>2</sub> bubbling**

183 Bubbling of CO<sub>2</sub> was determined with funnels (Deshmukh et al., 2014) during five field  
184 campaigns covering different seasons (between May 2009 and June 2011), and during a  
185 weekly monitoring from March 2012 to August 2013. During this monitoring, spatial  
186 variation was explored through measurements spread over six stations (Fig. 1) representative  
187 of the different types of flooded ecosystems (dense and medium forests, light and degraded  
188 forest and agricultural lands as determined by Descloux et al. (2011)), and with different  
189 depths (from 0.4 to 16 m) at each station. We stopped measuring bubbling at sites deeper than  
190 16m after no ebullition was observed during the first three campaigns. Bubble samples were  
191 taken with a 50 mL-syringe and the syringe was immediately connected to a N<sub>2</sub>-preflushed  
192 10-mL serum vial, leading to a dilution factor of 5/6 (Guérin et al., 2007). Gas samples were  
193 analysed with the GC described above.

## 194 **2.7 Soil descriptions and CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes from the drawdown area**

195 Since the drawdown area of the NT2R could represent up to 65% of the surface area of the  
196 reservoir at the end of the WD season, emissions from this major area under the influence of  
197 flooding were evaluated. Soils types were determined together with CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Soil  
198 description was carried out in June 2010 at 6 sites and soils from the station RES4S plot were  
199 characterized in details in June 2013 (Figure 1, Table 1). Four sites were selected in the Nam  
200 Theun River riparian's area (NMR, RES2S, RES4S, RES8S'), one site in the flooded primary  
201 forest (RES3S) and one site in the flooded agricultural area (RES8S). Soil study was  
202 conducted through soil catenae of 2 to 4 soils profiles from the pristine soils on top ("upland"  
203 samples) to the shoreline of the reservoir ("shoreline" samples). One or two other soils  
204 profiles were performed in between ("interm.up" and "interm.down" samples). Soil sampling  
205 was performed with an Edelman soil corer down to a depth of 1m, but only 0-20cm depth  
206 samples were considered in this study. Information on horizon depth, soil texture and  
207 structure (e.g., compactness, porosity), color (Munsell chart for soil color), soil fauna activity  
208 and pedological features (e.g., redoximorphic features, concretions) were provided through  
209 soil description in the field. Samples for C, N, and pH were selected following the horizons



210 apparition for each soil profile. They were manually decompacted and stored in plastic bags.  
211 Back in the laboratory, soil samples were dried out at room temperature under a laminar flow  
212 hood, sieved at 2 mm and properly split in two representative subsamples. One of the  
213 subsample was crushed with an agate mortar before chemical analysis. The non-crushed  
214 subsample was dedicated to soil pH and granulometric measurements. C and N analysis  
215 where performed with a Elementar Vario EL III C/N/S analyser and soil pH measurements  
216 were performed in ultrapure water (18.2 M $\Omega$ ) following ISO 11464 standard procedure.

217 At the 6 sites, fluxes were measured along the soil moisture gradient between the shoreline  
218 and the zone not impacted by the reservoir water level fluctuation. Three to four sites with  
219 contrasting moisture content were selected at each site. At those six sites, fluxes were  
220 measured at 21 plots in total and 40 CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes were gathered, mostly in duplicates (from 1 to  
221 4 replicates) (Table 2). CO<sub>2</sub> emissions were measured during 3 field campaigns in 2010, 2011  
222 and 2013 using stainless steel chamber (volume 12 L, 0.08 m<sup>2</sup>) described in Serça et al.  
223 (1994) and Serça et al. (2016). At each site, two chambers were deployed in parallel and the  
224 collars were installed at least 1 hour prior to measurement. Air samples were taken and stored  
225 with the same methodology as for bubbling samples every 15 minutes in each chamber before  
226 subsequent GC analysis. It has to be noted that soil studies and measurement of fluxes were  
227 restricted for safety reason due to the high density of unexploded ordnances (UXO) from the  
228 sixties and seventies in that area.

### 229 **3 Results**

#### 230 **3.1 Temperature, oxygen, organic and inorganic carbon in the Nam Theun** 231 **watershed and carbon inputs to the reservoir**

232 In the rivers of the Nam Theun watershed, the water temperature was 24.5±0.2°C ranging  
233 from 13.5 to 32.0°C and pH was 6.83±0.03 (4.75-8.95, n=405). The Nam On River was, on  
234 average, less oxygenated (77±2%) than the others. It is characterized by the highest DOC  
235 concentrations (222±11  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ , n=93), and amongst the highest CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (59±6  
236  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ , n=107) and the lowest TIC concentration (237±11  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ , n=107) (Figure 2). The  
237 Nam Phao and the Nam Theun Rivers are not significantly different in terms of POC, DOC,  
238 TIC and CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Figure 2). During the monitoring, the average DOC in the Nam  
239 Phao was 87±4  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  (n=82) and 108±4  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  (n=97) in the Nam Theun, that is more  
240 than two times lower than in the Nam On. TIC was 40% higher in the Nam Theun and Nam





241 Phao Rivers than in the Nam On (Nam Phao:  $380 \pm 12 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ,  $n=82$ ; Nam Theun:  $379 \pm 15$   
242  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ,  $n=97$ ) (Figure 2).  $\text{CO}_2$  in the Nam Theun River ( $54 \pm 5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ,  $n=105$ ) and in the  
243 Nam Phao ( $46 \pm 5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ,  $n=86$ ) contributed around 15% of TIC whereas it was almost 25%  
244 in the Nam On. The Nam Xot River had amongst the lowest DOC ( $90 \pm 3 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ,  $n=93$ ),  
245 TIC ( $272 \pm 12 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ,  $n=94$ ) and  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $45 \pm 3 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ,  $n=110$ ) concentrations (Figure 2).  
246 Comparing results from all rivers, we could not find any significant differences in POC  
247 concentration. In all rivers during this monitoring, the average POC was  $28 \pm 2 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$   
248 ( $n=200$ ) and contributed less than 20% of the total organic carbon (DOC+POC) in this  
249 watershed (Figure 2). We could not identify any clear seasonal pattern for POC, DOC TIC  
250 and  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations in the four rivers of the Nam Theun watershed (Figure 2).

251 As reported in Descloux et al. (2016), the average total water discharge in the reservoir is  $238$   
252  $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$  ranging from  $6 \text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$  during the WD seasons to  $2061 \text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$  during the WW seasons.  
253 Carbon input to the reservoir as DOC, POC and TIC ranged from  $32.2 \pm 1.3 \text{GgC yr}^{-1}$  in 2010  
254 to  $46.2 \pm 1.5 \text{GgC yr}^{-1}$  in the wet year 2011 (Figure 3). During the monitoring, TIC represented  
255 60 to 70% of the carbon inputs to the reservoir (Figure 3).

### 256 **3.2 Vertical profiles of temperature, $\text{O}_2$ , $\text{CO}_2$ and organic carbon in the** 257 **reservoir water column**

258 At the stations RES1-RES8, the typical vertical distributions of temperature,  $\text{O}_2$ , DOC, POC  
259 and  $\text{CO}_2$  for the three seasons at various sampling stations are shown in Figure 4. As already  
260 described in details in Guérin et al. (2016), during the four years of monitoring, the reservoir  
261 water column was thermally stratified during the warm seasons with thermocline at  $4.5 \pm 2.6$   
262 and  $5.8 \pm 4.8 \text{m}$  depths during the WD and WW seasons, respectively. As a consequence of  
263 thermal stratification, the warm epilimnic waters are well oxygenated ( $>80\%$  saturation)  
264 whereas the hypolimnion is anoxic (Figure 4). Occasionally, sporadic and local  
265 destratification occurred during high water inflow in the WW season. During the CD season,  
266 temperature and  $\text{O}_2$  decreased gradually with depth or  $\text{O}_2$  concentration was constant from the  
267 surface to the bottom of the water column (Figure 4). After the power plant commissioning,  
268 the water column located near the Turbine Intake (RES9) got totally mixed as revealed by the  
269 homogeneous temperature and  $\text{O}_2$  profiles from the surface to the bottom (Figure 4). pH  
270 always decreased from the surface to the bottom with, on average during the monitoring,



271 surface pH =  $6.66 \pm 0.02$  (5.21-8.76, n=1316) and hypolimnic pH =  $6.15 \pm 0.01$  (4.88-8.00,  
272 n=1488).

273 Over the monitoring period at the stations RES1-RES8, the average CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the  
274 water column was  $389 \pm 9$   $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  and ranged from 0.3 to 4770  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  (n=3698). It  
275 decreased from  $544 \pm 24$   $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in 2010 to  $154 \pm 9$   $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in 2013. During the WD and  
276 WW seasons, CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations increased with water depth and often showed a maximum  
277 gradient at or just below the thermocline (Figure 4). For the years 2010 to 2013, the average  
278 CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the water column during the WD and WW seasons were always 50%  
279 higher than in the CD season (Figure 4). DOC concentrations averaged  $181 \pm 1$   $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  and  
280 ranged from 12.5 to 569  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  (n=3068). For the years 2010, 2011 and 2012 we observed  
281 a significant decrease of DOC in the water column from year to year with average DOC  
282 concentrations  $208 \pm 3$   $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in 2010,  $190 \pm 3$   $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in 2011 and  $177 \pm 2$   $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in 2012.  
283 In 2013, the DOC was not significantly lower than in 2012 ( $175 \pm 2$   $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ). From 2010 to  
284 2013, DOC concentrations were about 25% higher in the WD and WW seasons than in the  
285 CD season. Whatever the year, the average epilimnic DOC concentration was 30% higher  
286 than in hypolimnic water. POC concentration was  $63 \pm 2$   $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  (n = 2488). POC in  
287 hypolimnic waters ( $92 \pm 3$   $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ) was almost twice higher than in the epilimnion ( $45 \pm 2$   
288  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ) ( $p < 0.0001$ , t-test). The POC in the epilimnion decreased significantly from  $41 \pm 4$   
289  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in 2010 to  $23 \pm 2$   $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in 2013 in the epilimnion ( $p < 0.0001$ ). POC in  
290 hypolimnic waters did not show any consistent trend with yearly average values being  $87 \pm 6$   
291  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in 2010,  $67 \pm 6$   $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in 2011,  $104 \pm 7$   $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in the wet year 2012 and  $83 \pm 5$   
292  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in 2013. No clear seasonal variation was observed.

293 At the station RES9 where the presence of the water intake enhances vertical mixing of the  
294 water column leading to the transport of bottom water to the surface, the water column is not  
295 thermally stratified and always oxygenated from the surface to the bottom after the reservoir  
296 was commissioned in April 2010 (Guérin et al., 2016) (Figure 4). Since commissioning, O<sub>2</sub>  
297 saturation was  $60 \pm 2$  % over the water column. The water column was significantly more  
298 oxygenated during the overturn in the CD ( $74 \pm 3\%$ ) than in the WW and WD season ( $56 \pm 2\%$ )  
299 ( $p < 0.0001$ , t-test) and significantly more oxygenated ( $p < 0.0001$ ) in the wet year 2011  
300 ( $70 \pm 3\%$ ) than in 2010 and 2012 ( $56 \pm 3\%$ ). In 2013, which was an average hydrological year,  
301 the the water column was well oxygenated with  $71 \pm 1\%$  suggesting of improvement of the



302 water quality. CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were almost constant from the surface to the bottom and  
303 averaged 216±13 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> over the whole monitoring period (n = 512) (Fig. 4). CO<sub>2</sub>  
304 concentration in the water column decreased from 311±32 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> in 2010 down to 28±2  
305 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> in 2013. Concentrations in the WW and WD seasons were similar 204±14 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>  
306 and more than two times higher than during the CD season (105±6 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>). POC  
307 concentration was 25±1 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> (n=431) and DOC was 157±2 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> (n=642) over the  
308 whole water column and both follow the same seasonal variations and temporal variations as  
309 described for the other stations.

### 310 3.3 Reservoir surface CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and diffusive fluxes

311 The reservoir surface CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (n=1067) ranged from 0.3 to 970 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> (Figure  
312 5a,b) and diffusive fluxes ranged from -40.4 up to 2694.9 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 5c,d). Most of  
313 the dataset (85% of all measurements) showed CO<sub>2</sub> supersaturation with respect to the  
314 atmosphere. In 2009 (from May to December), surface concentrations and diffusive fluxes  
315 from all nine sampling stations located in the reservoir were statistically similar (p > 0.05,  
316 ANOVA test). The average surface concentration was 68.2±47.9 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> and the diffusive  
317 flux was 101.6±137.7 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>.

318 From 2010 to 2013 at the stations RES1 to RES8, the yearly average surface CO<sub>2</sub>  
319 concentrations decreased significantly from 62.7±3.6 to 32.7±3.2 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> while diffusive  
320 fluxes decreased from 89.8±10 to 13.7±4.7 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> without any significant spatial  
321 variations (p > 0.05, ANOVA test). Over the 2010-2012 period, the highest concentration and  
322 fluxes were always observed in the WD season (70±3 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> and 90±9 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>), they  
323 decreased down to 51±3 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> and 65±8 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in the WW and reached their  
324 minima in the CD season (45±3 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> and 22±2 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) (Figure 5 a,c). In 2013, the  
325 reservoir was a net CO<sub>2</sub> sink from March to August (-11±2 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, n=96) and  
326 emissions in the CD season was 66±9 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (n=41) that is three times higher than  
327 usually observed for that season.

328 At the water intake (RES9) after the commissioning, surface concentrations and diffusive  
329 fluxes were statistically different from the other stations and were significantly higher as  
330 already observed for CH<sub>4</sub> (Guérin et al., 2016). The average surface CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations at  
331 RES9 were 287±350 and 184±234 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> for the year 2010 and 2011, respectively that is  
332 three-fivefold higher than the average at the other stations (Figure 5b). In 2012, surface CO<sub>2</sub>



333 concentrations at RES9 dropped down to  $65\pm 23 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ , still almost twice the concentration  
334 at the other stations. In 2013, surface concentration at RES9 was not statistically different  
335 than at the other station in the reservoir ( $33\pm 4 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in 2013). On an annual basis, the  
336 diffusive fluxes at RES9 decreased from an average of  $745\pm 195$  to  $18\pm 9 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$   
337 between 2010 and 2013 (Figure 5d). The same seasonality as described before was observed  
338 at RES9 with a exacerbated effect at the transition between the WD and WW seasons since  
339 diffusive fluxes were then up to 17-fold higher than the average fluxes at the other stations for  
340 that same period (Figure 5c,d).

341 Monthly emissions by diffusive fluxes varied by two orders of magnitude between 2009 and  
342 2012. Superimposed to the general decrease of emissions with time, we observed very  
343 significant seasonal variations with emissions peaking during the transition between the WD  
344 and WW seasons, even though the reservoir water surface was at its minimum (Figure 5e).  
345 The annual diffusive  $\text{CO}_2$  emission from the reservoir was  $730.0\pm 46.2 \text{ Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ year}^{-1}$  in 2009  
346 and dropped down by a factor of six in 2013 ( $118\pm 11.5 \text{ Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ year}^{-1}$ ) (Figure 5f).

#### 347 **3.4 $\text{O}_2$ , organic carbon and $\text{CO}_2$ downstream of the reservoir**

348 After the commissioning, immediately downstream of the power station (station TRC1), the  
349 average  $\text{O}_2$  concentration was  $174\pm 58 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ , that is,  $67\pm 20\%$  saturation ( $n=189$ ) and pH  
350 was  $6.55\pm 0.04$  ( $n=234$ ). Further downstream, the  $\text{O}_2$  concentration always increased and the  
351  $\text{O}_2$  saturation downstream of station DCH4 located 30 km from the turbines was always  
352 around 100% saturation in the artificial downstream channel (average 100.4%,  $n=146$ ). Just  
353 below the regulating dam, in the Nam Kathang River (NKT3), the average  $\text{O}_2$  concentration  
354 was  $237 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ , that is, 93% saturation ( $n=120$ ). There was no marked interannual change  
355 in the  $\text{O}_2$  concentration. At DCH4, pH increased to  $7.17\pm 0.04$  ( $n=186$ ).

356 On average at all the stations in between TRC1 and DCH4, DOC concentration was  $159\pm 2$   
357  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  ( $n=1366$ ) over all stations for all years between 2009 and 2013. DOC decreased  
358 from  $187\pm 2 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in 2010 ( $n=272$ ) to  $157\pm 2 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  in 2013 ( $n=303$ ). Average POC was  
359  $25\pm 1 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  ( $n=818$ ) for all years between 2009 and 2013, and followed interannual  
360 variations already observed for the reservoir, i.e. higher POC concentration in the WW season  
361 of 2012.



362 CO<sub>2</sub> concentration below the Powerhouse (TRC1), which receives water from the station  
363 RES9 in the reservoir after the water transiting through the turbines, varied by almost three  
364 orders of magnitude; ranging from 1.4 to 856 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> with an average of 153±14 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> (n  
365 =199). The CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations varied seasonally with maximum concentrations at the end of  
366 the WD season, and minimum at the end of the CD season. Below the powerhouse, along the  
367 longitudinal transects from TRC1 to DCH4, surface CO<sub>2</sub> concentration decreased by a factor  
368 of three within a distance of 30 km during the WD and WW seasons (from 267±34 to 90±10  
369 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> and from 235±28 to 70±8 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> respectively for WD and WW). In the CD  
370 season when CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were lower, the decrease in concentration with distance from  
371 the dam was only by a factor of two (from 49±8 to 30±4 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>). Between 2010 and 2013  
372 for all stations in the downstream channel (TRC1 to DCH4), annual average CO<sub>2</sub>  
373 concentrations decreased by a factor of 7 from 182±9 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> to 24±2 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>. On average,  
374 CO<sub>2</sub> concentration reached down to 56±5 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> at DCH4 which is in the same order of  
375 magnitude as the concentrations found in the pristine Xe Bangfai River (XBF1, 60±2 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>  
376 <sup>1</sup>, n=64), Nam Kathang Noy River (NKT1, 35±3 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>, n=47) and Nam Kathang Gnai  
377 River (NKT2, 82±10 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>, n=70).

378 Immediately downstream of the Nakai Dam (NTH3) after the commissioning, the average O<sub>2</sub>  
379 concentration was 224 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>, that is 87% saturation (n=73), and the concentration  
380 increased further downstream. pH was 6.84±0.06 (n=166). Average DOC concentration was  
381 166±2 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> (n=653) and decreased from 197±4 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> in 2010 (n=147) to 162±3 μmol  
382 L<sup>-1</sup> (n=127) in 2013. The average POC concentration was 50±5 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> (n=7) and CO<sub>2</sub>  
383 concentration was 67±9 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> (n=77). The CO<sub>2</sub> concentration decreased by a factor of two  
384 (40±5 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>, n=54) within the next 10 km below the dam (down to NTH4, Figure 1) where  
385 pH was 7.19±0.06 (n=97). At NTH4, the observed concentrations were in the same order of  
386 magnitude than the concentrations in the pristine rivers in the same watershed (53±6 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>  
387 at NPH1 in the Nam Phao River, n=59).

### 388 **3.5 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions downstream of the reservoir**

389 After the commissioning, the annual average diffusive fluxes downstream of the powerhouse  
390 decreased from 482±603 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in the year 2010 (-32-33762 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) to 32±8  
391 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (-39-216 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) in 2013 (not show). They followed the same seasonal  
392 dynamics as the CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and they decrease with the distance from the



393 powerhouse. Total emissions by diffusion from the downstream channel decreased from  
394  $14 \pm 12 \text{ Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ year}^{-1}$  in 2010 to  $1.3 \pm 0.5 \text{ Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ year}^{-1}$  in 2013 (Figure 6a). Degassing in  
395 the whole downstream channel (including degassing below the turbines, the regulating pond  
396 and the aeration weir) reached up to  $28.5 \text{ Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ month}^{-1}$  just after the commissioning of the  
397 reservoir when the water was released for the first time (Figure 6a). During the monitoring,  
398 60-90% of the annual degassing occurred within 3-4 months of transition between the WD  
399 and WW seasons corresponding to the seasons when the hypolimnic waters were the most  
400 enriched in  $\text{CO}_2$  (Figure 6a). Total degassing decreased from  $80 \pm 36 \text{ Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ year}^{-1}$  in 2010  
401 to  $8 \pm 4 \text{ Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ year}^{-1}$  in 2013 (Figure 6b).

402 Disregarding periods of spillway releases from April to June 2009 for water level regulation  
403 and in September-October 2011 during the flood, degassing downstream of the Nakai Dam  
404 (up to  $0.48 \text{ Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ month}^{-1}$ ) is usually 10 times lower than degassing in the downstream  
405 channel because of (1) the low continuous water discharge at the Nakai Dam ( $2 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and  
406 (2) the withdrawal of the water from the reservoir epilimnion (Deshmukh et al., 2016) (Figure  
407 6a). However, during the use of spillways for water level regulation in the reservoir,  
408 degassing reached up to  $26 \text{ Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ month}^{-1}$  in 2009 before the commissioning and 4 to 10  
409  $\text{Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ month}^{-1}$  during the occasional uses in October 2010 and September 2011 (Figure  
410 6a). As determined from the longitudinal profiles of  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations downstream of the  
411 dam, diffusive emissions from the Nam Theun River that are actually attributable to the  
412 NT2R occurred within the first 10 km below the dam as it was also the case for  $\text{CH}_4$   
413 (Deshmukh et al., 2016). The annual average diffusive  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes were  $126 \pm 137$  and  
414  $288 \pm 346 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in 2010 and 2011 respectively. The annual average diffusive  $\text{CO}_2$  flux  
415 was one order of magnitude lower in 2013 ( $24 \pm 68 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) (not show). The total  
416 emissions by diffusion and degassing resulting from these fluxes ranged between  $5.5 \pm 0.1$   
417  $\text{Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ year}^{-1}$  in 2010 and  $0.14 \pm 0.06 \text{ Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ year}^{-1}$  in 2013 (Figure 6b).

418 On a yearly basis, emissions downstream of NT2R decreased from  $99.7 \pm 25.3$  to  $15.0 \pm 6.5$   
419  $\text{Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ y}^{-1}$  between 2010 and 2013 (Figure 6d). Before the reservoir commissioning in  
420 2009, emissions were dominated by degassing due to spillway releases. After the  
421 commissioning, emissions were dominated by degassing in the downstream channel which  
422 contributed 80-90% of total downstream emissions.



### 423 **3.6 CO<sub>2</sub> bubbling**

424 The CO<sub>2</sub> content in the sampled bubbles was 0.29±0.37% (n=2334) and no bubbles was ever  
425 observed for depth higher than 16 m. On average, the CO<sub>2</sub> bubbling was 0.16 ± 0.24 mmol m<sup>-2</sup>  
426 d<sup>-1</sup> (0-2.8 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>). Considering the water surface variations, the monthly ebullitive  
427 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions ranged from 0.04±0.06 to 0.11±0.16 Gg(CO<sub>2</sub>) month<sup>-1</sup>. CO<sub>2</sub> bubbling was  
428 constant around 1.1±2.2 Gg(CO<sub>2</sub>) y<sup>-1</sup> throughout the monitoring.

### 429 **3.7 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the drawdown area**

430 Four types of pristine soils were identified in the six different studied catenae. Acrisols were  
431 the most represented soils and were found at three sites (RES4S, RES8S and RES8'S) (Table  
432 1). In the area with dense forest, soils were characterized as plinthosol (RES3S) and plinthic  
433 ferralsol (RES2S) and the pedological cover at MNR site belong to planosol type soil (Table  
434 1). At all sites, from upland pristine soils to the shoreline, stagnic properties were more and  
435 more pronounced. Average organic carbon content (%C), nitrogen (%N) and C:N ratio were  
436 1.84±0.10%, 0.14±0.01% and 12.83±0.30, in surface horizons, respectively. For those three  
437 parameters, no statistical differences were obtained according to soil type, topography or  
438 measurement site. Diffusive CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes ranged between 34±7 and 699±59 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>  
439 (Table 2). The fluxes were not significantly correlated with the surface moisture ranging from  
440 17.5 to 51.2% and temperature ranging from 18.1 to 34.2°C (Table 2). The fluxes neither  
441 varied significantly with soil types, topography, measurement sites, nitrogen content or C:N  
442 ratio (p > 0.05, ANOVA test). However, average fluxes at each site were significantly  
443 correlated with the average C content (p=0.452). Without significant spatial variations related  
444 to topography, humidity or temperature, we further consider the average of all fluxes that is  
445 279±27 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>.

446 After the commissioning of the reservoir, emissions varied by three orders of magnitude.  
447 Since a constant CO<sub>2</sub> emission is accounted for, the seasonal pattern of CO<sub>2</sub> emission from  
448 the drawdown mimics the variation of the surface of that area (Figure 7). Monthly CO<sub>2</sub>  
449 emissions could reach up to 110.8±10.7 Gg(CO<sub>2</sub>) month<sup>-1</sup> by the end of the WD season when  
450 drawdown area reaches its maximum whereas it decreased down to 0.6±0.1 Gg(CO<sub>2</sub>) month<sup>-1</sup>  
451 at the end of WW season when drawdown area reaches its minimum (Figure 7). Around 80-  
452 90% of the annual emissions occurred within 4-6 months of transition period between the WD  
453 and WW seasons (Figure 7). The lowest emissions from the drawdown area occurred during



454 the wet year 2011 ( $386 \pm 16 \text{ Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ year}^{-1}$ ) and the highest emissions during the dry year  
455 2012 ( $572 \pm 20 \text{ Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ year}^{-1}$ ). On average from 2009 to 2013, emissions from the drawdown  
456 area was  $431 \pm 42 \text{ Gg}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ year}^{-1}$ .

## 457 **4 Discussion**

### 458 **4.1 CO<sub>2</sub> dynamic in the NT2R water column and downstream rivers**

459 The dynamics of CO<sub>2</sub> in the NT2R is highly dependent on the hydrology and hydrodynamics  
460 of the reservoir as it has already been described for CH<sub>4</sub> (Guérin et al., 2016). During the  
461 warm seasons (WD and WW) when the water column is thermally stratified, the vertical  
462 profiles of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the water column are similar to profiles obtained in other  
463 tropical or subtropical reservoirs (Abril et al., 2005; Guérin et al., 2006; Kemenes et al.,  
464 2011; Chanudet et al., 2011) but also boreal reservoirs (Demarty et al., 2011). The high  
465 concentrations measured in the hypolimnion suggest that the main source of CO<sub>2</sub> is located at  
466 the bottom and very likely in the flooded soils, vegetation and sediments whereas the decrease  
467 of CO<sub>2</sub> toward the surface suggest both consumption by primary production and/or loss to the  
468 atmosphere (Galy-Lacaux et al., 1997b; St Louis et al., 2000; Abril et al., 2005; Guérin et al.,  
469 2008; De Junet et al., 2009; Teodoru et al., 2011; Barros et al., 2011; Chanudet et al., 2011). In  
470 the CD season, after the reservoir overturn, the average CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the reservoir  
471 water column decreases sharply (by 50% on average) and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration increases  
472 regularly from the surface to the bottom of the water column. However, no CO<sub>2</sub> burst was  
473 observed at the beginning of the CD season when the reservoir overturns. Therefore it is  
474 reasonable to assume that the reservoir overturn has only a moderate impact on CO<sub>2</sub>  
475 emissions. This assumption is reinforced by the fact that during the same sampling, hot  
476 moments of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were captured (Guérin et al., 2016). As observed in most tropical  
477 and subtropical reservoirs, the higher concentrations were observed during the warm seasons  
478 (Abril et al., 2005; Kemenes et al., 2011; Chanudet et al., 2011) whereas the lowest were found  
479 after reservoir overturn (Chanudet et al., 2011). A significant shift in the carbon  
480 biogeochemical cycling occurred in the reservoir in 2013 with the reservoir water surface  
481 becoming of CO<sub>2</sub> sink during the WD season and the beginning of the WW season (from  
482 March to August). Although no major change was observed nutrient concentrations, the  
483 number of phytoplanktonic cell was 50% higher in 2013 than 2012 (Unpublished, M Cottet  
484 personal com.) indicating that primary production was significantly enhanced in 2013.  
485 Despite the fact that the reservoir was a sink for the six months when CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are





486 usually the highest of the year, annual CO<sub>2</sub> emissions at the surface of the reservoir were only  
487 50% lower in 2013 than in 2012. In 2013, CO<sub>2</sub> was mainly emitted in the CD after the period  
488 of high biological productivity suggesting that the degradation of autochthonous OM fuel CO<sub>2</sub>  
489 emissions.

490 The maximum concentration and the highest CO<sub>2</sub> stock in the water column highly depend on  
491 the age of the reservoir. In the NT2R, average CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was three times higher in  
492 2010 than in 2013 and the maximum concentrations in 2010 was almost two times higher than  
493 in 2013 (4771 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> in 2010 vs. 2649 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> in 2013). Those high concentrations are  
494 slightly lower than the maximum concentration measured in the hypolimnion of the Petit Saut  
495 Reservoir less than a year after it was flooded (Galy-Lacaux et al., 1997a; Abril et al., 2005).  
496 Disregarding these high concentrations observed in the hypolimnion of the reservoir at the  
497 end of the WD season and beginning of the WW season in 2009 and 2010, the CO<sub>2</sub>  
498 concentration in the NT2R are in the same range as concentrations in other older reservoir in  
499 the tropics or the subtropics (Abril et al., 2005; Guérin et al., 2006; Chanudet et al.,  
500 2011; Kemenes et al., 2011). This decrease during the first four years after impoundment is  
501 very consistent with the decrease of the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration with the reservoir age as already  
502 observed at the Petit Saut Reservoir (Abril et al., 2005), at the Eastmain I Reservoir (Teodoru  
503 et al., 2012) or over multi-sites study (Barros et al., 2011).

504 Disregarding the station RES9 located at the water intake, no significant spatial variation of  
505 CO<sub>2</sub> surface concentrations was found despite very significant differences of hypolimnic  
506 concentration between stations located upstream of the Nakai Dam (RES1, 2 and 3) and  
507 station located in areas close to the three main tributaries (RES6, 7 and 8). The average  
508 hypolimnic concentrations at the stations RES1-3 were two times higher than at the stations  
509 RES6-8. This difference is attributed to both (1) the difference in carbon density at the bottom  
510 of the reservoir in those two contrasted areas in terms of submerged ecosystems (Descloux et  
511 al., 2011) (see section 4.3) and (2) the difference in terms of water residence time between  
512 those two zones (Guérin et al., 2016). Stations RES1-3 are located in areas with the longest  
513 water residence time in the reservoir since the water mostly enters the reservoir in the RES6-8  
514 area from the Nam Theun, Nam Noy and Nam On Rivers before being delivered to the water  
515 intake (close to RES9) on the opposite side of NT2R which has a narrow and elongated shape  
516 (Figure 1). Therefore, the water renewal in the RES6-9 area is high and CO<sub>2</sub> accumulates less



517 in the water column confirming the importance of the reservoir hydrology on the spatial  
518 variability of dissolved gases in reservoirs (Pacheco et al., 2015;Guérin et al., 2016).

519 As found for CH<sub>4</sub>, the main factor influencing the spatial variability of CO<sub>2</sub> in the water  
520 column is the vertical mixing of the water column induced by the water intake located close to  
521 RES9 (Deshmukh et al., 2016;Guérin et al., 2016). The design of the water intake enhances  
522 horizontal water current velocities and vertical mixing which lead to the transport of bottom  
523 waters to the surface. As a consequence, surface concentrations at RES9 were up to 30 times  
524 higher than at other stations in 2010 and 2011 (Figure 5b). With the significant decrease of  
525 concentrations in 2012 and 2013, the difference with other stations dropped to a factor of  
526 four. These maximum surface concentrations at RES9 are up to 10 times higher than  
527 concentrations found in other tropical reservoir in South America (Abril et al., 2005;Guérin et  
528 al., 2006;Kemenes et al., 2011) and Lao PDR (Chanudet et al., 2011) showing that, as for  
529 CH<sub>4</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> emissions can be enhanced upstream of water intake or dams.

530 Downstream of the reservoir in the Nam Theun River or the artificial channel, CO<sub>2</sub>  
531 concentrations follow the same seasonality as in the reservoir. Concentrations peak in June-  
532 July at the transition between the WD and the WW season, and reach their minima in the CD  
533 season. Downstream of the Nakai Dam, the concentrations are twice lower than downstream  
534 of the powerhouse since mostly epilimnic water from the RES1 station is transferred  
535 downstream of the dam. Within less than 10 km further downstream, concentrations are not  
536 significantly higher than in pristine rivers of the watershed. Downstream of the powerhouse,  
537 CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in 2010 were in the same order of magnitude as in 10-20 years-old  
538 reservoirs in South America flooding tropical forest (Abril et al., 2005;Guérin et al.,  
539 2006;Kemenes et al., 2011) whereas four years after impoundment CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were  
540 two times lower than in 20-30 years-old reservoirs in Lao PDR (Chanudet et al., 2011). We  
541 hypothesize that the low CO<sub>2</sub> concentration downstream of the NT2R result from a significant  
542 degassing of the water at the water intake before the water is transferred downstream as  
543 observed for CH<sub>4</sub> (Deshmukh et al., 2016;Guérin et al., 2016).

#### 544 **4.2 Total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the Nam Theun 2 Reservoir**

545 From 2009 to 2013, total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from NT2R show the same seasonal pattern (Figure  
546 8a). The lowest total emissions occur in the CD season while the highest emissions occur at  
547 the transition between the WD and the WW season when emissions by all individual



548 pathways reach their maximum. From 2010 to 2013, emissions at the transition between the  
549 WD and the WW season between April and July contributed 47 to 61% of total emissions  
550 suggesting that quantification of emissions based on two to four campaigns in a year might be  
551 subject to caution since seasonality of emissions significantly affects emissions factors.

552 CO<sub>2</sub> bubbling follows the same seasonal variations, being triggered by water level and  
553 concomitant hydrostatic decrease as for CH<sub>4</sub> (Chanton et al., 1989;Engle and Melack,  
554 2000;Smith et al., 2000;Boles et al., 2001;Deshmukh et al., 2014) but its contribution is  
555 negligible (<1%, Table 3). Low CO<sub>2</sub> emission by bubbling as also observed in temperate  
556 reservoirs (Bevelhimer et al., 2016) is attributed to the higher solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in water than  
557 CH<sub>4</sub> which lead to the solubilisation of the majority of CO<sub>2</sub> as free CO<sub>2</sub> or as DIC.

558 The relative contribution of emissions downstream of the reservoir by degassing and diffusion  
559 from rivers and channels at NT2R are low compare to most of the reservoirs that were studied  
560 (Abril et al., 2005;Guérin et al., 2006;Kemenes et al., 2011;Bevelhimer et al., 2016) but the  
561 contribution of this pathway is comparable to what was observed in boreal reservoirs (Roehm  
562 and Tremblay, 2006) or in monomictic reservoirs from Lao PDR (Chanudet et al., 2011). The  
563 downstream emissions contributed between 11% at the maximum in the wet 2011 year down  
564 to 3% at the minimum in 2013 (Table 3 and Figure 8a). As for CH<sub>4</sub> at NT2R (Deshmukh et  
565 al., 2016), the low downstream emissions are attributed to the significant degassing at the  
566 water intake (station RES9) before the water reach the turbines and to the flush of CO<sub>2</sub> due to  
567 the reservoir overturn in the CD season.

568 Emissions by diffusive fluxes at the surface of the reservoir increase by a factor of two by the  
569 end of the WD season (Figure 5a) compare to the CD season from 2009 to 2012. The average  
570 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2009 and 2010 and in a lesser extend 2011 are in the same range as  
571 emissions from the Petit Saut Reservoir during the first five years after impoundment (Abril et  
572 al., 2005) and in the upper range of average CO<sub>2</sub> diffusive fluxes measured in older tropical  
573 reservoirs (dos Santos et al., 2006;Kemenes et al., 2011;Yang et al., 2013) or in young boreal  
574 reservoirs (Teodoru et al., 2011;Tadonlécé et al., 2012). In 2012 and 2013, emissions from  
575 NT2R by diffusive fluxes are still higher than most of the older Asian reservoirs (Wang et al.,  
576 2011;Chanudet et al., 2011;Zhao et al., 2013;Xiao et al., 2013;Panneer Selvam et al., 2014)  
577 and other Brazilian reservoirs flooding savannah (Roland et al., 2010;Pacheco et al., 2015).  
578 The low emissions in the CD season from the first 3.5 years might mostly result from lower  
579 heterotrophic activity due to the low temperature (down to 7°C in air in March 2011). The



580 high emissions in the CD season of 2013 as compared to CD season in 2011 and 2012 likely  
581 originate from additional autochthonous OM. We hypothesise that the significantly higher  
582 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the WD season result from the increase of the water residence time that  
583 favour CO<sub>2</sub> accumulation in the water column (Abril et al., 2005) and the increase of  
584 temperature that enhance aerobic and anaerobic degradation of OM and the production of CO<sub>2</sub>  
585 (Sobek et al., 2005). Although the reservoir area during the WD season is the smallest of the  
586 year, emissions by diffusive fluxes are the highest (Figure 8a) highlighting the very  
587 significant increase of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from May to July every year, disregarding the year  
588 2013.

589 This first estimation of the CO<sub>2</sub> emission from the drawdown area to the total emission from a  
590 reservoir reveal that with a contribution ranging from 40 to more than 75%, it could be a  
591 major CO<sub>2</sub> pathway to the atmosphere. These results from the NT2R cannot be generalized to  
592 all reservoirs since its contribution is tightly link to the very high water level variations and  
593 large surface area of the drawdown area (up to 320 km<sup>2</sup>, Figure 7). However, areal fluxes  
594 from the drawdown area are on average 2.5 times higher than the diffusive fluxes from the  
595 reservoir water surface in 2009-2010 and six times higher than those fluxes in 2013 making  
596 the soils in the area of influence of the reservoir a hotspot for CO<sub>2</sub> emissions compare to the  
597 reservoir surface waters. The total emissions of reservoirs with contrasted hydrology  
598 characterized by marked wet and dry seasons and large water level variations of 30% of the  
599 total surface could have been significantly underestimated as it is the case for Petit Saut (~100  
600 km<sup>2</sup>), Samuel (~280 km<sup>2</sup>), Balbina (~220 km<sup>2</sup>) or Three Gorges Reservoir (~400 km<sup>2</sup>) for  
601 instance (Guérin et al., 2006;Kemenes et al., 2011;Li et al., 2016). This pathway is expected  
602 to be more significant in flat bottom reservoirs than in valley type reservoirs in mountainous  
603 regions and cannot be generalized on just the drawdown area without taking into account  
604 hydrological water management and the local topography. At Petit Saut and NT2R at least, no  
605 vegetation regrowth occurs in the drawdown areas. Soils at NT2R exhibit very clear  
606 modification related to the flooding (stagnic features) confirming soil modification as also  
607 observed in Canada (Furey et al., 2004) Australia (Watts, 2000) and France (Félix-Faure et  
608 al., 2017). The ecosystems of the seasonally flooded area are therefore significantly modified  
609 and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the drawdown must be accounted for in total gross emissions from  
610 reservoirs. Although drawdown emissions cannot be neglected in terms of gross CO<sub>2</sub>  
611 exchange, the emissions resulting from the soil respiration are currently comparable to  
612 pristine emissions (Table 2) and the impact of these area in terms of net emissions requires



613 further specific studies in these overlooked ecosystems. So far, we cannot predict future  
614 evolution of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in this area based on the available data. The consequence of the  
615 flooding on the respiration rate of these soils may lead to a decrease of emissions with time or  
616 a stabilization (see next section). Therefore, the net contribution of the drawdown zone to  
617 emissions from the reservoir remains unclear and specifically requires research on soil OM  
618 dynamics and would also require the inclusion of the vegetation dynamics when present.

619 This is the first comprehensive quantification of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from a reservoir where all  
620 known CO<sub>2</sub> pathways to the atmosphere were taken into account at one of the best spatial  
621 and temporal resolution reported in the literature. We showed that downstream emissions and  
622 emissions around the water intake are not negligible (~10% overall) and that the overlooked  
623 drawdown area in CO<sub>2</sub> studies could be the main emission pathway of CO<sub>2</sub> to the atmosphere.  
624 Overall, this study highlights that global estimate of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from reservoir  
625 are underestimated so far since relevant pathways like drawdown emissions in flat/shallow  
626 reservoirs with large water level variations and downstream emissions in thermally stratified  
627 reservoirs are missing in most site-specific studies used for extrapolations (Deemer et al.,  
628 2016; Barros et al., 2011).

### 629 **4.3 Source of organic matter fuelling the reservoir CO<sub>2</sub> emissions**

630 In tropical reservoirs, the decrease of the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the water column and  
631 subsequent emissions with the age of the reservoir (Figure 8b) is supposed to result from the  
632 decrease of the aerobic and anaerobic mineralisation rate due to the exhaustion of labile OM  
633 from the pool of soil and vegetation that was flooded during impoundment (Abril et al.,  
634 2005; Guérin et al., 2008). In boreal reservoirs, the decrease of benthic CO<sub>2</sub> production is  
635 sharp and after 3-5 years, most of the CO<sub>2</sub> production appears to be pelagic and is supposed  
636 not to result from the flooded organic matter (Teodoru et al., 2011; Brothers et al., 2012). The  
637 total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions were nine and three times higher than the carbon inputs from the  
638 watershed to the NT2R in 2010 (32 GgC yr<sup>-1</sup>) and 2013 (45 GgC yr<sup>-1</sup>), respectively (Figure 3  
639 and Table 3). It has to be noted that interannual variations of carbon inputs to the NT2R  
640 (Figure 3) are not correlated with the regular decrease of total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from year to  
641 year (Figure 8b). It is therefore unlikely that most of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions result from the  
642 mineralization of allochthonous OM but rather from the contribution of the flooded carbon  
643 pool (soil and vegetation) which amount is decreasing with time. This is consistent with the



644 fact that at Petit Saut, even 10 years after flooding, the majority of the OM in the water  
645 column has a terrestrial origin (De Junet et al., 2009). According to Abril et al. (2005) at Petit  
646 Saut, total emissions (disregarding drawdown emissions which were not measured) were 9 to  
647 6 times higher than carbon inputs from the watershed during the first 4 years for similar  
648 carbon inputs which indicates a faster decrease of emissions in NT2R than at Petit Saut. This  
649 sharp decrease of emissions at NT2R might be due to the fact that the flooded pool of OM and  
650 therefore the amount of labile OM in NT2R was twice smaller than the amount of OM  
651 flooded in the Petit Saut (Guérin et al., 2008; Descloux et al., 2011). We show here, as it was  
652 done at Petit Saut (Guérin et al., 2008; Abril et al., 2005), that external sources of carbon are  
653 not sufficient to fuel the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the NT2R and we attribute the decrease of  
654 emissions with time to the exhaustion of the most labile fraction of the flooded pool of OM  
655 which might be the main source of reactive carbon in the reservoir.

656 In the sub-tropical NT2R, CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are always higher at the bottom than in the  
657 epilimnic waters even during the CD season when the limited thermal stratification or its  
658 absence do not favour hypolimnic CO<sub>2</sub> accumulation. The CD season is probably the most  
659 favourable season to pelagic respiration as this process is enhanced by the re-oxygenation of  
660 the water column (Bastviken et al., 2004). Since CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the CD season is 50%  
661 lower than in the warm seasons, we suggest that CO<sub>2</sub> is mostly produced in the sediment and  
662 flooded soils and vegetation. Disregarding the station RES9 located at the water intake,  
663 significant spatial variation of CO<sub>2</sub> hypolimnic concentrations were found between stations  
664 located in the area of dense forest (RES1-3) versus stations located in areas close to the three  
665 main tributaries (RES6-8). Stations RES1-3 which have the highest average bottom  
666 concentrations are located in areas where the carbon density is 50% higher than the  
667 agricultural ecosystems that were flooded in the area of the stations RES6-8 (Descloux et al.,  
668 2011).

669 In the absence of significant vegetation regrowth in the drawdown area during the study  
670 period, the main source of carbon fuelling emissions from the drawdown area are not clearly  
671 identified. Immediately after flooding, the most labile part of the soil OM and the  
672 decomposing vegetation must have been the main sources of C fuelling the emissions. On the  
673 long haul, the atmospheric carbon sink associated with the pristine vegetation dynamics has  
674 been lost but as a consequence, the loss of this vegetation which might reduce labile OM  
675 inputs. In addition, the water level variations erode the soil and OM is transferred to the



676 reservoir and ultimately in the sediments or downstream (Félix-Faure et al., 2017). Those  
677 carbon losses should have resulted or should result in the future in a decrease of CO<sub>2</sub>  
678 emissions from the drawdown. The stability of emissions throughout our four-years surveys  
679 in the drawdown area suggests that new carbon source might have contributed to emissions.  
680 Development of micro-phytobenthos or microbial biofilms as often observed in estuaries on  
681 mudflats (de Brouwer and Stal, 2001) or along stream in logged riparian area (Sabater et al.,  
682 2000) could supply labile OM and the system and favour priming effect (Guenet et al., 2010).  
683 Through this effect, the inputs of labile OM stimulate the degradation/mineralization of  
684 recalcitrant/stabilized OM. This effect might be enhanced by the oxic/anoxic oscillation that  
685 would favour the mineralisation of different pool of OM than those that would have been  
686 degraded otherwise in stable conditions (Abril et al., 1999; Bastviken et al., 2004). Overall, we  
687 hypothesized that the oxic/anoxic variations and priming effect through the development of  
688 algae and bacteria might have contributed to the stability of CO<sub>2</sub> emission from these soils  
689 under the influence of the reservoir. So far we found no clear evidence of a significant carbon  
690 loss in the soils of the drawdown area by comparing surface SOM from pristine upland soils  
691 and from the shoreline (Table 1). A comprehensive study of carbon density down to the  
692 bedrock would be necessary since we found very clear evidence of inundation patterns down  
693 to 1 m (P. Oliva, unpublished). In addition to the full carbon stock, detailed OM  
694 characterisation might be needed for the identification of changes in the pool of soil OM.

695 The overall confirmation of the importance of the flooded pool of OM in the carbon cycling  
696 in a tropical reservoir highlights the differences in functioning with boreal reservoirs where  
697 the degradation of the flooded organic matter within a few year does not contribute  
698 significantly to emissions (Brothers et al., 2012). In addition to a strong temperature effect on  
699 mineralisation of OM (Gudasz et al., 2010), the probable low lability and good capacity for  
700 preservation of peat-dominated OM might explain the different origin of OM fuelling  
701 emissions between those two distinct climatic areas.

## 702 **5 Conclusions**

703 We presented the first comprehensive estimation of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from a tropical reservoir  
704 starting less than a year after reservoir impoundment and lasting 4.5 years. This estimation  
705 includes all pathways to the atmosphere: emissions from the reservoir surface, downstream  
706 emissions and emissions from the drawdown area.



707 More than 50% of total emissions occur within 3-4 months during the warmest period of the  
708 year at the transition between the dry and the wet season. Such a result suggests that  
709 quantification of emissions based on two to four campaigns in a year might significantly  
710 affect positively or negatively emissions factors and carbon budgets of ecosystems under  
711 study.

712 The smooth decrease of total emissions with time over the years coupled with the fact that the  
713 incoming flux of carbon from the watershed to the reservoir represent less than a third of the  
714 total emissions, are a strong indication that the flooded pool of organic matter is the main  
715 source of carbon fuelling emissions. The carbon density of flooded soil and biomass in  
716 reservoirs appears to be a key controlling factor of emissions and should be included for  
717 future estimation of greenhouse gas emissions from reservoirs.

718 We found that gross CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the drawdown area represented up to 75% of the  
719 total emissions from the NT2R and they occur within a few months during low water level  
720 seasons. The soil organic matter from these areas undergoes anaerobic degradation and fuels  
721 the reservoir water column in CO<sub>2</sub> during the wet season. In the dry season, the soil loss CO<sub>2</sub>  
722 directly to the atmosphere while undergoing both aerobic and anaerobic mineralisation  
723 depending on the soil moisture content. We hypothesize that both (1) the potential  
724 development of bacteria and micro-phytobenthos at the surface of these soils and (2) the  
725 oxic/anoxic variations contribute to the mineralisation of stabilized SOM leading to a  
726 sustained high soil respiration even after the pristine vegetation decayed. This overlooked  
727 pathway in terms of gross emissions would require an in-depth evaluation for the soil OM and  
728 vegetation dynamics and long-term monitoring of emissions to evaluate the real contribution  
729 of this area in terms of net modification of gas exchange in the footprint of the reservoir.

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Table 1 : Soil type and characteristics at the sampling station of the drawdown area of the Nam Theun 2 Reservoir (Lao PDR), KKK formation.

Catena	solum	%N	%C	C:N	pH	Soil name WRB FAO	Soil texture	lithology
MNR	MNR upland	0.11	1.47	13.69±1.73	4.33	planosol	sandy	Micaceous
	MNR interm. down	0.10	1.32	13.55±1.84		endogleyic planosol		quartzose
	MNR shoreline	0.13	1.89	14.78±1.60	4.23	gleysol		
RESS	RESS upland	0.18	2.38	13.21±0.63	4.18	plinthosol	clay	Red mudstone
	RESS interm.					elagnic plinthosol		
	RESS shoreline	0.17	1.95	11.21±0.56	4.88	plinthic stagnosol		
RESS2S	RESS2 upland	0.16	2.24	13.62±0.60		plinthic ferralsol	sandy clay	Micaceous
	RESS2 interm.	0.20	2.30	11.25±0.50		« stagnic » ferralsol		sandstone
	RESS2 shoreline	0.13	1.41	10.55±0.54		stagnosol		
RESS8S	RESS8 upland	0.08	1.76	23.47±3.95		acrisol	sandy clay	Quaternary deposits
	RESS8 interm. up	0.06	0.68	11.93±1.46		stagnic acrisol		
	RESS8 interm. down	0.09	1.31	13.99±1.99		stagnic acrisol		
	RESS8 shoreline	0.12	2.02	17.07±1.93		endogleyic stagnosol		
RESS8'S	RESS8' upland	0.05	0.77	16.15±2.30		acrisol	sandy clay	Quaternary deposits
	RESS8' shoreline	0.08	1.51	18.22±2.79		endogleyic stagnosol		
RESS4S	RESS4 upland	0.16	1.98	12.76±1.17	4.14	acrisol	sandy clay	Micaceous
	RESS4 interm. up	0.13	1.92	14.66±1.58		stagnic acrisol		sandstone
	RESS4 interm. down	0.12	1.67	14.33±1.71		stagnic acrisol		
	RESS4 shoreline	0.10	1.36	14.35±1.97	4.44	gleysol		



Table 2 Temperature (°C), relative humidity (%) and CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes (mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) from the soils of the drawdown area of the Nam Theun 2 Reservoir (Lao PDR).

Site	2010			2011			2013		
	Hum	Temp	CO <sub>2</sub> flux	Hum	Temp	CO <sub>2</sub> flux	Hum	Temp	CO <sub>2</sub> flux
MNR upland	17.5	25.7	265±37	18.3	24.4	328±43			
MNR intern. up				26.9	27.5	669±56			
MNR intern. down	19.6	32.3	201±19	23.7	29	251±99			
MNR shoreline	37	31.9	40	46.4	27.3	67±7			
RESS3S upland	22.3	26.8	231	23.6	25.6	366±14			
RESS3S intern.	49.5	27.4	184±50	30.2	26.1	186±57			
RESS3 Sshoreline	42.3	28.3	503±97	25.6	19.8	391±23			
RESS2S upland	19.9	26.4	183±1	24.5	25.2	531±41			
RESS2S intern.	34.6	29.2	138±21	30.2	26.1	339±52			
RESS2S shoreline	49.4	28.5	332±5	48.7	27.1	166±23			
RESS8S upland	27.7	28.2	86±0	26.9	27.0	468			
RESS8S intern. up	32.3	28.3	75±15	33.2	26.9	300±19			
RESS8S intern. down	32.9	29.1	110±10	32.3	27.8	239±44			
RESS8S shoreline	45.3	29.7	286±59	44.5	28.5	660±121			
RESS8S' upland	32.6	32.5	342±70						
RESS8S' intern.	35.9	31.9	143±24						
RESS8S'shoreline	42.7	31.9	34±7						
RES4S upland	26.7	28.6	326±20	21.7	29.5	526±35	18.1	31.1	232±50
RES4S intern. up							24.3	28.7	196±29
RES4S intern. down	26.0	34.2	168±28	21.8	32.7	619±39	35.1	29.8	443±67
RES4S shoreline	44.6	31.1	34±7	18.3	32.1	115	51.2	29.6	393±57



Table 3: CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (in GgCO<sub>2</sub>year<sup>-1</sup>) from the Nam Theun 2 Reservoir (Lao PDR) for the first five years after impoundment (2009, 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2013). Percentages between brackets represent the proportion of each component to the total annual emission.

Year	Ebullition	Diffusion (Reservoir)	Diffusion (Drawdown)	Degassing	Diffusion (Downstream)	Total
<b>2009</b>	1.2±0.5 (<1%)	730.0±46.2 (92%)	6.3±0.5 (1%)	52.7±14.9 (7%)	4.0±0.3 (<1%)	<b>794.1±48.5</b>
<b>2010</b>	1.04±0.5 (<1%)	538.57±28.6 (51%)	413.7±15.9 (39%)	85.37±17.4 (8%)	14.34±0.4 (1%)	<b>1053.0±37.0</b>
<b>2011</b>	1.06±0.5 (<1%)	345.88±24.3 (42%)	386.4±16.0 (47%)	84.03±10.7 (10%)	11.60±0.5 (1%)	<b>828.9±31.0</b>
<b>2012</b>	0.95±0.4 (<1%)	173.30±11.5 (23%)	572.3±19.9 (75%)	17.03±3.8 (2%)	2.23±0.2 (<1%)	<b>765.8±23.3</b>
<b>2013</b>	1.04±0.5 (<1%)	118.70±27.3 (21%)	419±15.0 (76%)	13.61±4.0 (2%)	1.43±0.2 (<1%)	<b>553.8±31.4</b>







Figure 1 Map of the Nam Theun 2 monitoring network

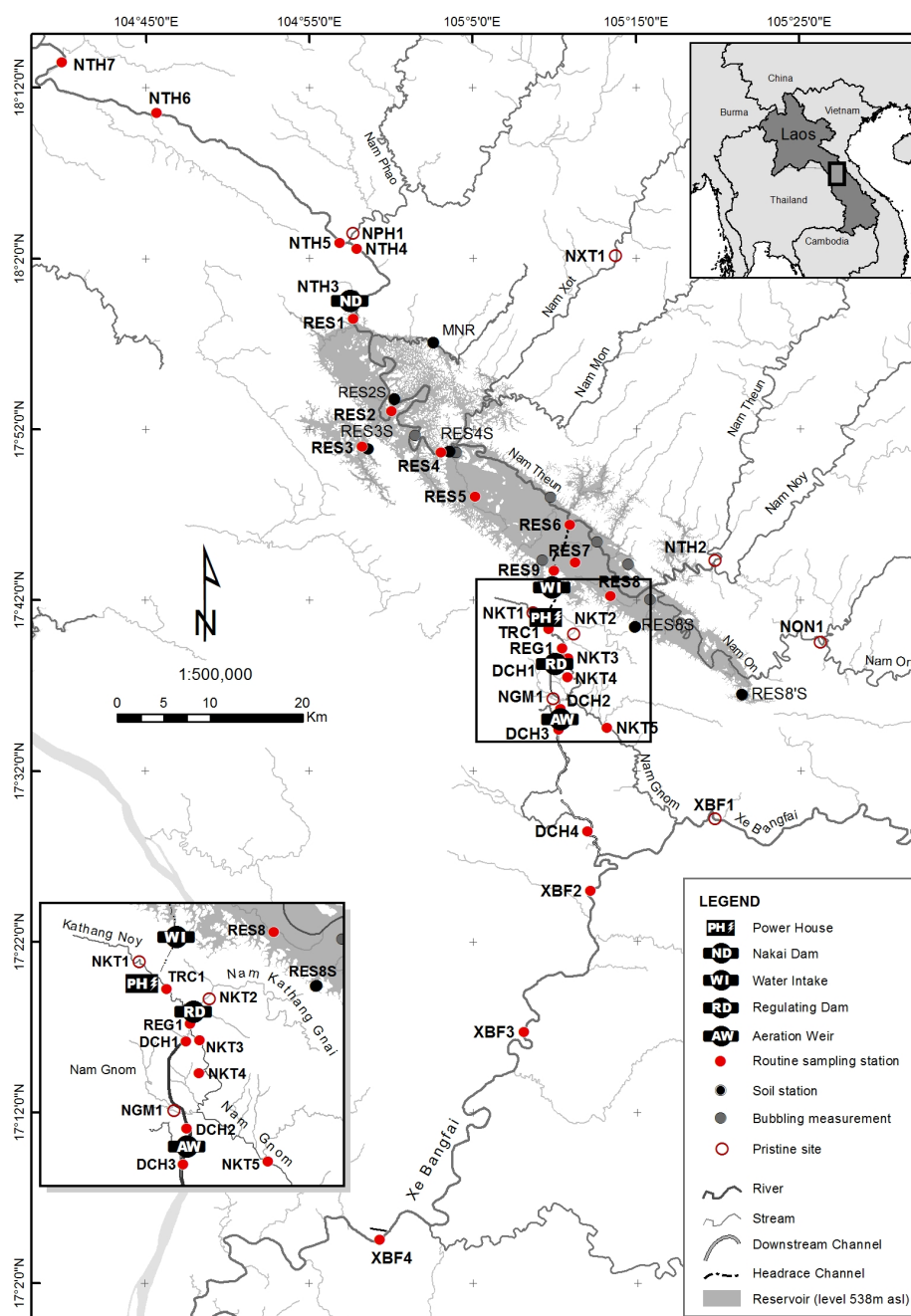




Figure 2 : Median and interquartile range (boxes), average (+), and full range of values (whiskers) of particulate organic carbon (POC), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), total inorganic carbon (TIC) and CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in four pristine river of the Nam Theun watershed during three distinct seasons : cold dry (CD), warm dry (WD) and warm wet (WW) seasons. The dataset includes data from 2009 to 2013.

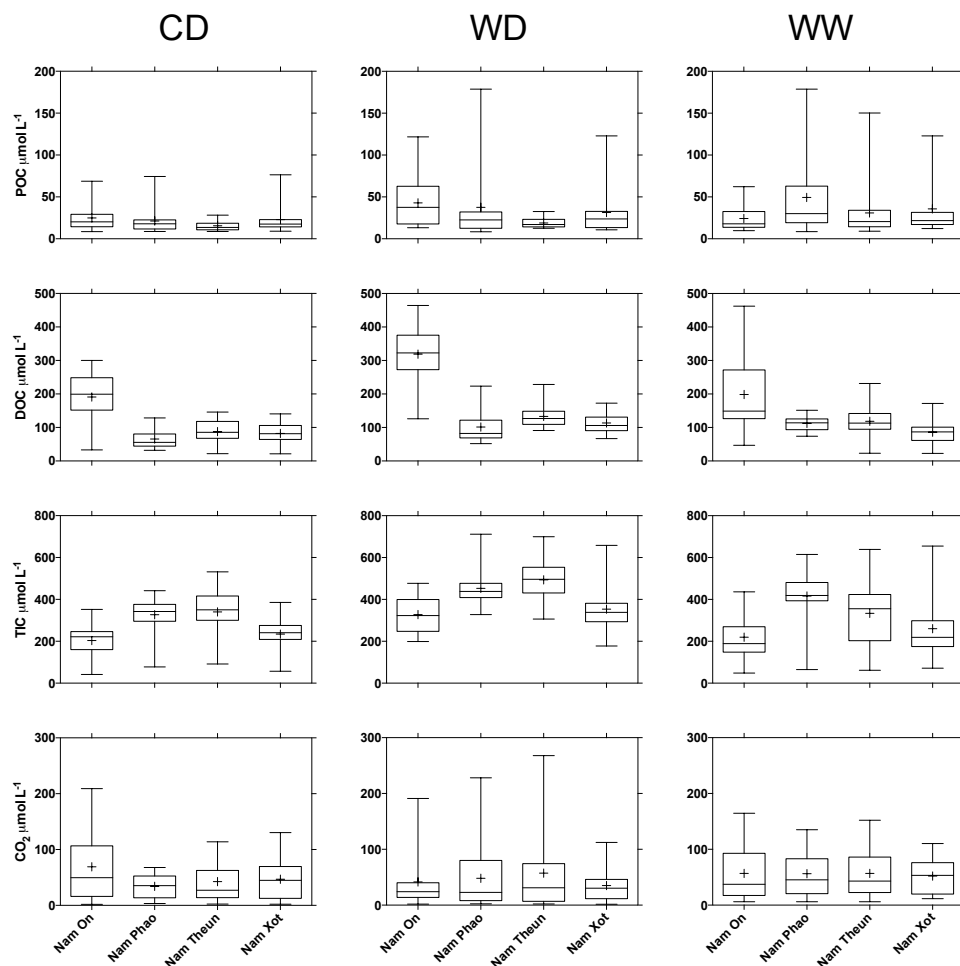




Figure 3: Total carbon inputs in form of particulate organic carbon (POC), dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and total inorganic carbon (TIC) from the Nam Theun watershed to the Nam Theun 2 Reservoir for four distinct years after reservoir impoundment.

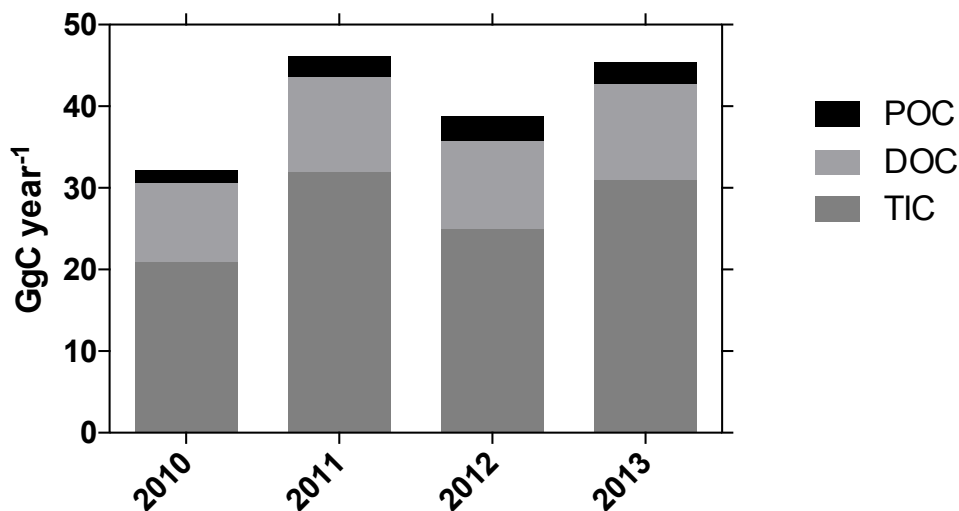




Figure 4: Temperature (grey solid circle) and oxygen (black solid circle), DOC (open square), POC (solid square) and CO<sub>2</sub>(triangle) concentrations in the Nam Theun 2 Reservoir water column during the cool dry, warm dry and warm wet seasons in 2011 at three stations (RES3, RES7 and RES9).

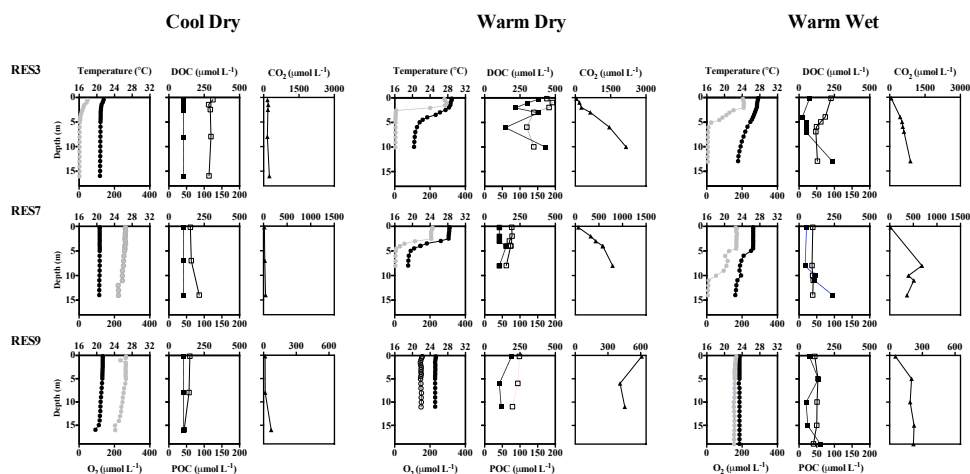




Figure 5: (a) Monthly average CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations at the stations RES1-8 (a) and at the station RES9 (b), average diffusive fluxes at the stations RES1-8 (c) and at the station RES9 (d) and total monthly (e) and yearly (f) CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by diffusive fluxes from the Nam Theun 2 Reservoir (Lao PDR)

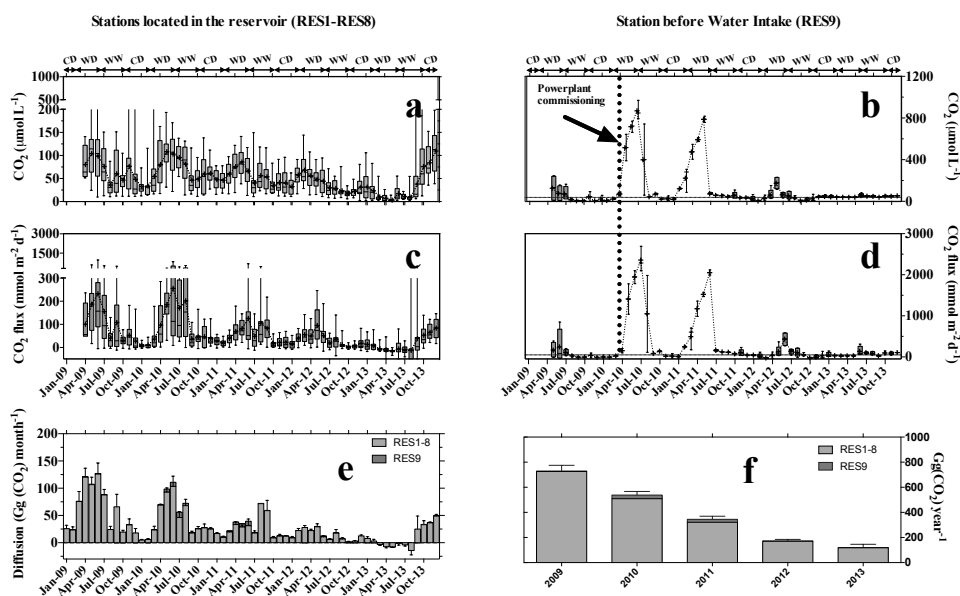




Figure 6: Diffusive fluxes and degassing below the powerhouse and the Nakai Dam on a monthly (a) and yearly basis (b) at the Nam Theun 2 Reservoir (Lao PDR). Note that degassing below ND includes spillway release (main contributor to 2009 and 2011 emissions below ND). Degassing below the powerhouse includes degassing immediately downstream of the turbines, downstream of the regulation dam and downstream of the aeration.

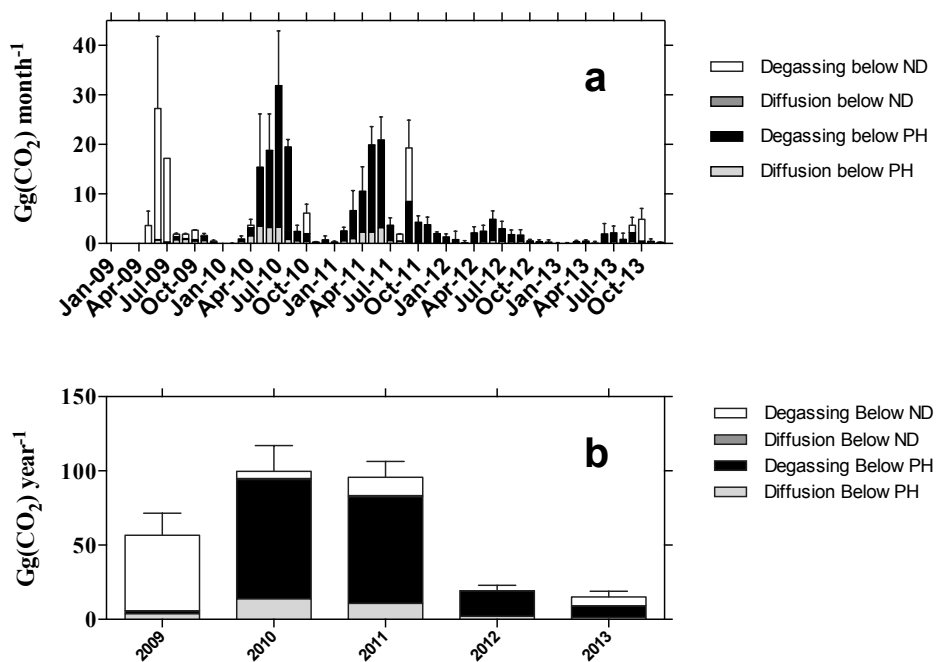




Figure 7: Monthly emissions from the drawdown area and variation of the area of the drawdown area of the Nam Theun 2 Reservoir (Lao PDR)

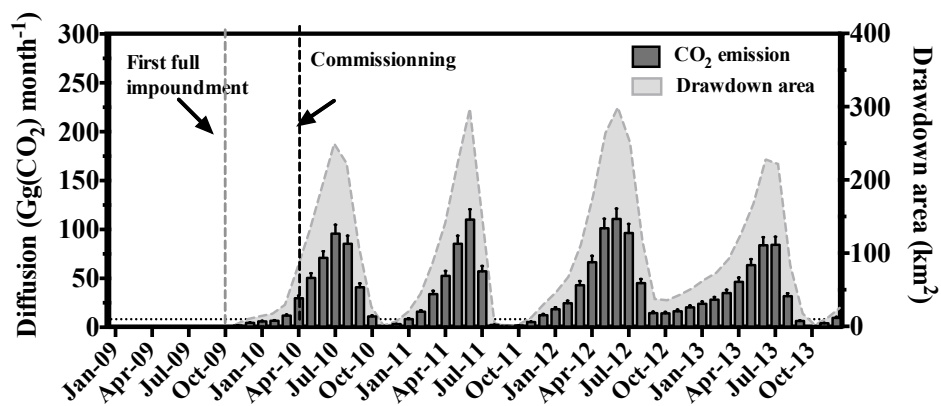




Figure 8: Monthly (a) and yearly (b) average of the total emissions from the Nam Theun 2 Reservoir by diffusion at the reservoir surface, diffusion from the drawdown area, ebullition, degassing and diffusion from the Nam Theun River and artificial channel at the Nam Theun 2 Reservoir (Lao PDR). On panel a, water level variations in the reservoir are given.

