

2022-06-04

# Three Gorges Dam: friend or foe of riverine greenhouse gases?

Ni, J

<https://pearl.plymouth.ac.uk/handle/10026.1/21241>

---

10.1093/nsr/nwac013

National Science Review

Oxford University Press (OUP)

---

*All content in PEARL is protected by copyright law. Author manuscripts are made available in accordance with publisher policies. Please cite only the published version using the details provided on the item record or document. In the absence of an open licence (e.g. Creative Commons), permissions for further reuse of content should be sought from the publisher or author.*

## RESEARCH ARTICLE

### EARTH SCIENCES

#### Three Gorges Dam: Friend or Foe of Riverine Greenhouse Gases?

Jinren Ni<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Haizhen Wang<sup>1</sup>, Tao Ma<sup>1</sup>, Rong Huang<sup>1</sup>, Philippe Ciais<sup>3</sup>, Zhe Li<sup>4</sup>, Yao Yue<sup>5</sup>, Jinfeng Chen<sup>1</sup>, Bin Li<sup>1</sup>, Yuchun Wang<sup>6</sup>, Maosheng Zheng<sup>7</sup>, Ting Wang<sup>1</sup>, Alistair G.L. Borthwick<sup>8</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Key Laboratory for Water and Sediment Science, Ministry of Education, College of Environmental Sciences and Engineering, Peking University, Beijing 100871, China

<sup>2</sup>State Environmental Protection Key Laboratory of All Materials Fluxes in River Ecosystems, Ministry of Ecology and Environment, Beijing 100871, China

<sup>3</sup>Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement, Institut Pierre Simon Laplace, Commissariat à l'Énergie Atomique et aux Énergies Alternatives, CNRS, Université de Versailles Saint-Quentin-en-Yvelines, Gif-sur-Yvette 91191, France

<sup>4</sup>Key Laboratory of Reservoir Environment, Chongqing Institute of Green and Intelligent Technology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Chongqing 400714, China

<sup>5</sup>State Key Laboratory of Water Resources and Hydropower Engineering Science, Wuhan University, Wuhan 430072, China

<sup>6</sup>Department of Water Environment, China Institute of Water Resources and Hydropower Research, Beijing 100038, China

<sup>7</sup>MOE Key Laboratory of Regional Energy Systems Optimization, Resources and Environmental Research Academy, North China Electric Power University, Beijing 102206, China

<sup>8</sup>School of Engineering, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh EH9 3JL, UK

\* **Corresponding author:** E-mail address: jinrenni@pku.edu.cn

## Abstract

Dams are often regarded as greenhouse gases (GHGs) emitters. Instead, our study indicated that the world's largest dam, Three Gorges Dam (TGD), has caused significant drops in annual average emissions of CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, and N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes over 4,300 km along the Yangtze River, accompanied by remarkable reductions in annual export of CO<sub>2</sub> (79%), CH<sub>4</sub> (50%), and N<sub>2</sub>O (9%) to the sea. Since its commencing operation in 2003, the TGD has altered carbonate equilibrium in reservoir area, enhanced methanogenesis in the upstream, restrained methanogenesis and denitrification via modifying anoxic habitats through long-distance scouring in the downstream. These findings suggested that “large-dam effects” are far beyond our previous understandings spatiotemporally, which highlights the fundamental importance of whole-system budgeting of GHGs under the profound impacts of huge dams.

**Key Words:** Three Gorges Dam, greenhouse gas, spatiotemporal variation, equilibrium, Yangtze River, whole system analysis

## INTRODUCTION

Most rivers worldwide are supersaturated with greenhouse gases (GHGs) owing to inputs of carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) from land, and become net sources of GHGs to the atmosphere [1]. To meet the growing global demand for water and energy, more than 70,000 large dams have been constructed [2]. Such dams are regarded as a source of excessive GHGs emissions [3-5]. The estimated annual emissions are 48 Tg C as CO<sub>2</sub> and 3 Tg C as CH<sub>4</sub> from global hydropower reservoirs, and 0.03 Tg N as N<sub>2</sub>O from all reservoirs in the world [4, 6].

Previous studies on the effects of dams on GHGs have been mostly limited to the vicinity of reservoirs [7-10]. Although these considerations hold for small dams (reservoir capacity < 10 km<sup>3</sup>), the impacts of large dams on GHGs (reservoir capacity ≥ 10 km<sup>3</sup>) are much greater because the original physical and biochemical equilibria are disrupted over large spatiotemporal scales. Firstly, a large dam alters the hydrodynamic conditions and material fluxes of a river: after operation commences, the peak flood discharge decreases and fluxes of nutrients and sediment exported to the sea are often reduced [11-14]. Secondly, the river regime tends to remain stable, but increasing longitudinal erosion of the riverbed after the dam causes long-term readjustment over considerable distance [15]. Thirdly, changes to water and sediment fluxes significantly affect the ecosystem functioning of microbial communities [16-18] (e.g. photosynthesis, methanogenesis, and denitrification) and GHGs emissions (Supplementary Table 1).

As the world's largest dam, the Three Gorges Dam (TGD) has been regarded as a significant source of GHG emissions [3, 4, 19]. For example, CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from the 25 km<sup>2</sup> core reservoir area upstream of the TGD in 2008 were estimated as

40 and 20 Gg yr<sup>-1</sup> respectively, about 40- and 20-fold larger than before impoundment [20]. Similar findings [4, 21] reported that total CH<sub>4</sub> emission rate in the Three Gorges Reservoir (TGR) was 0.315 Gg yr<sup>-1</sup>. However, the impact of TGD extends far beyond the reservoir area. The TGD has altered hydrodynamic conditions along almost the entire length of the Yangtze as physical and biochemical processes have readjusted both upstream and downstream of the dam, most notably the long-distance, long-term scouring of the riverbed downstream of the dam [15, 22, 23]. This highlights the necessity of whole river analysis in order to assess properly changes of GHGs fluxes affected by large dams.

Here we estimate changes in dissolved and emitted fluxes of GHGs in the Yangtze before and after the TGD became operational in 2003. Based on the time series of 30 water quality indices monitored over 312 months (1990~2015) and the measured GHGs (Supplementary Tables 2~4) along 4,300 km of the Yangtze River (Fig. 1), CO<sub>2</sub> is calculated using the well-known CO<sub>2</sub>SYS model, while CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O are estimated with the artificial neural networks (ANNs) (See Methods).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Temporal effect of Three Gorges Dam on CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes.

The mean annual  $p\text{CO}_2$  between 1990 and 2002 was 2,526  $\mu\text{atm}$  (Fig. 2). Subsequently  $p\text{CO}_2$  declined greatly to 1,336  $\mu\text{atm}$  once the TGD began operation over the whole mainstream (Fig. 2a). This declining trend is particularly significant in the middle and lower reaches, though annual  $p\text{CO}_2$  in the upper reach remained relatively steady before and after 2003 (Fig. 2b~d). The spatially averaged annual  $p\text{CO}_2$  of 2,205<sup>+2497</sup><sub>-925</sub>  $\mu\text{atm}$  (where the numbers display the mean and range of values) in the middle reach.  $p\text{CO}_2$  increased to 2,974  $\mu\text{atm}$  during the 1990s, peaked in 1996,

and declined significantly to 1,720  $\mu\text{atm}$  after TGD impoundment [24] (Fig. 2c). In the middle reach,  $p\text{CO}_2$  decreased from 2,907 to 1,446  $\mu\text{atm}$  in wet season and from 2,196 to 1,377  $\mu\text{atm}$  in dry season (Supplementary Fig. 1a~d).

From 1990 to 2015,  $\text{CO}_2$  exported to the East China Sea exhibited substantial inter-annual variations (Supplementary Fig. 2). The mean annual value increasing from about 469  $\text{Gg C yr}^{-1}$  in 1993 until reaching a peak of 3,354  $\text{Gg C yr}^{-1}$  during the 1998 flood and then declining back to pre-1993 levels by 2003 (Supplementary Fig. 2). Mean exported  $\text{CO}_2$  flux from 1991 to 2015 was 1,128  $\text{Gg C yr}^{-1}$ , corresponding to 5.6% of dissolved inorganic carbon transported by the Yangtze River (Supplementary Table 5). The annual averaged  $\text{CO}_2$  outgassing flux and  $\text{CO}_2$  exported to the sea over the Yangtze experienced remarkable drops of 55% and 79% since 2003, suggesting a much stronger effect due to TGD impoundment on  $p\text{CO}_2$  than that from other influencing factors (such as the anthropogenic discharge of sulfur and nitrogen containing pollutants) reported previously [24].

Monthly and annual  $\text{CO}_2$  emission fluxes from the upper, middle, and lower reaches were on average lower after 2003, than before, indicating that the entire mainstream progressively became a smaller emission source (Supplementary Fig. 3). The largest change occurred in the middle and lower reaches, where  $\text{CO}_2$  emission flux dropped from 2,723  $\text{Gg C yr}^{-1}$  before to 1,087  $\text{Gg C yr}^{-1}$  after TGR impoundment. Annual-averaged  $\text{CO}_2$  emission flux from the Yangtze mainstream was estimated as  $2,420^{+2590}_{-1200}$   $\text{Gg C yr}^{-1}$  (Supplementary Table 6), which accounts for emissions from 1.3% of global rivers and 4.8% of temperate rivers [1, 25] between 25° N and 50° N. These results were convinced reliable with uncertainty analysis based on representative stations as described in Supplementary Information.

## Temporal effect of Three Gorges Dam on CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes.

To estimate dissolved and emitted CH<sub>4</sub> over the Yangtze River before and after impoundment of the TGR, monthly observed data of chemical oxygen demand, dissolved oxygen, water temperature, pH and nitrogen during 1990~2015 were used for validation and verification as input variables of ANNs models (See Methods). Supplementary Fig. 4 showed spatiotemporal variations in dissolved nitrogen (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) in the whole mainstream during the period 1990~2015.

After the TGR impoundment in 2003, both dissolved and emitted CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations increased in the upper reach, decreased in the middle reach, and hardly changed in the lower reach (Fig. 2f~h, Supplementary Fig. 5b~d). Annual averaged CH<sub>4</sub> concentration from 1990 to 2015 over the whole mainstream is  $2.22^{+0.54}_{-0.65}$  μg L<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2e), comparable to that for the Amazon River (Supplementary Table 7) [26]. Mean dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> was  $3.15^{+0.62}_{-0.56}$  μg L<sup>-1</sup> in the dry season and  $2.57^{+0.59}_{-0.72}$  μg L<sup>-1</sup> in the wet season in the Yangtze (Supplementary Fig. 1). A major change in seasonal cycles of dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> appears to have occurred in 2003. In the wet season, the mean dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> increased from 1.45 to 1.95 μg L<sup>-1</sup> in the upper reach but decreased from 3.51 to 3.02 μg·L<sup>-1</sup> in the middle reach. Based on the parameters derived from representative stations (Supplementary Table 8), temporal variation in CH<sub>4</sub> flux exported to the East China Sea decreased from 3.1 to 1.5 Gg C yr<sup>-1</sup> after 2003 (Supplementary Fig. 6). Emitted CH<sub>4</sub> flux decreased from 3.3 to 2.7 Gg C yr<sup>-1</sup> along the whole mainstream, with increasing from 0.4 to 0.5 Gg C yr<sup>-1</sup> before the dam and decreasing from 2.9 to 2.2 Gg C yr<sup>-1</sup> after the dam since the operation of TGD (Supplementary Fig. 7).

### Temporal effect of Three Gorges Dam on N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes.

Input variables in the ANN model for estimation of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions included dissolved oxygen, water temperature, pH and nitrogen. Total dissolved nitrogen (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>+NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>+NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) increased during the period of interest, while NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> had much lower concentration levels than NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Supplementary Fig. 4). This is consistent with increasing nitrogen inputs from fertilizers to the Yangtze river basin in the past few decades, enhanced by population and economic growth in central and east China [27, 28]. After training and verification of the ANN, the modeled results showed slight reduction of dissolved and emitted N<sub>2</sub>O owing to the dam operation since 2003. Over the Yangtze mainstream, the annual average concentration was  $0.45^{+0.38}_{-0.22}$  μg·L<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2i), demonstrated a moderate dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration compared with other large rivers (Supplementary Table 9). Dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O experienced a maximum of 0.55 μg·L<sup>-1</sup> at Xuliujing station in the river mouth (Fig. 2l), and a minimum of 0.32 μg·L<sup>-1</sup> at Luzhou station in the upper reach (Fig. 2j). Impoundment of the TGR operation caused dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O to decrease from 0.56 to 0.46 μg·L<sup>-1</sup> in the middle reach after 2003 (Fig. 2k). Large amplitude variations in seasonal N<sub>2</sub>O patterns also occurred in the middle reach (Supplementary Fig. 1k). After 2003, the average dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration declined from 0.61 to 0.51 μg·L<sup>-1</sup> in the dry season and from 0.54 to 0.41 μg·L<sup>-1</sup> in the wet season in the middle reach. Seasonal differences of N<sub>2</sub>O emission rates were also calculated (Supplementary Fig. 8e~h). The long-term average (1990~2015) displayed higher N<sub>2</sub>O emission rates at Yichang and Wuhan in the wet season than in dry season, in all cases indicating the Yangtze was a net source of N<sub>2</sub>O (Supplementary Fig. 8). Meantime, N<sub>2</sub>O emission rates at Yichang have fallen from 39.3 to 19.2 μg·m<sup>-2</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup> during the wet season and from 18.4 to 11.6 μg·m<sup>-2</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup> during the dry season (Supplementary Fig. 8g). Based on monthly dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O and



flow discharge, the highest values of N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes to the estuary occurred in 1998, the year with historical floods. Mean annual dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes to the estuary decreased from 0.46 to 0.41 Gg N yr<sup>-1</sup> after TGD impoundment in 2003 (Supplementary Fig. 9), because of the disruptive effect on the physical and biochemistry equilibria of the river. The annual N<sub>2</sub>O outgassing in the mainstream was estimated as 0.43 Gg N yr<sup>-1</sup> (Supplementary Fig. 10).

### **Spatial effect of Three Gorges Dam on GHGs emissions.**

Before 2003, *p*CO<sub>2</sub> ranged from 880 to 4,399 μatm in the mainstream channel of Yangtze River (Fig. 3a). A trend of increasing *p*CO<sub>2</sub> was evident along the mainstream, rising from 1,314 μatm in the upper reach to 4,111 μatm in the lower reach, along with the decreasing pH level of the lower reach and dilution by water entering from Poyang Lake during the period 1990~2002. After 2003, *p*CO<sub>2</sub> was almost constant upstream of the TGD, and then rose immediately downstream of the dam, being affected by flow regulation and sediment trapping [29]. It has been estimated that reservoir sedimentation caused by the presence of a dam results in an average carbon accumulation rate of 400 g·m<sup>-2</sup>·yr<sup>-1</sup> globally [30]. Carbon burial therefore becomes a potential available carbon source for biological respiration and might increase *p*CO<sub>2</sub> in a reservoir, particularly in the early years after impoundment [31]. Other human activities might also increase exchanges between water and mineral, causing *p*CO<sub>2</sub> to increase [32]. The similar trends of increasing *p*CO<sub>2</sub> were observed along the mainstream in both wet and dry seasons (Fig. 3b~c). The higher values of *p*CO<sub>2</sub> in the wet season compared to the dry season, especially in middle and lower reaches, might be due to the efficient production of soil-originated CO<sub>2</sub> and its transport by surface runoff [31]. Supplementary Fig. 11 shows the CO<sub>2</sub> emission rate profiles along the mainstream before and after operation of the TGD. These are qualitatively very

similar to the dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> profiles. After 2003, the mean CO<sub>2</sub> emission rate along the mainstream was  $3.0 \pm 1.7$  mmol m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>. Degassing rates were higher in middle and lower reaches than in the upper reach, being controlled by *p*CO<sub>2</sub>.

CH<sub>4</sub> concentration was lowest in the upper reach of the Yangtze in both wet and dry season (Fig. 3d~f), primarily because of lower organic matter. After 2003, CH<sub>4</sub> concentration increased slightly from 1.50 to 1.83 µg L<sup>-1</sup> in the upper reach, and decreased from 3.13 to 2.74 µg L<sup>-1</sup> in the lower reach (Fig. 3d). The TGD impoundment influenced CH<sub>4</sub> emission rate in a similar trend as to its dissolved concentration (see Supplementary Fig. 5).

The TGD influenced N<sub>2</sub>O distributions both upstream and downstream of the dam, especially in the middle reach of the Yangtze (Fig. 3g). After 2003, annual averaged N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations decreased slightly from 0.42 to 0.38 µg L<sup>-1</sup> in the wet season and from 0.55 to 0.50 µg L<sup>-1</sup> in the dry season (Fig. 3h~i). The most remarkable decrease in N<sub>2</sub>O concentration occurred at Yichang, immediately downstream of TGD (Supplementary Fig. 12a). At Yichang, monthly averaged N<sub>2</sub>O emission rates fell both in the wet and dry season, and the amplitude of the fluctuations in N<sub>2</sub>O emission rate also declined (Supplementary Fig. 12a) with smaller seasonal differences (Supplementary Fig. 12b) after TGD impoundment.

### **GHGs fluxes in response to readjustment of physical and biochemical equilibria.**

Our study indicated that the TGD has caused significant drops in the overall annual GHGs fluxes emitted to atmosphere and exported to sea since 2003 (Supplementary Table 10). To interpret such changes, a whole river analysis (Fig. 4) must be made of the readjustments to hydrodynamic conditions (Fig. 4a) and biogeochemical equilibria (Fig. 4b~d) over the broader spatiotemporal scale of the

river.

#### *Cause for CO<sub>2</sub> drop*

Due to TGD impoundment, a backwater zone developed upstream of the dam wherein water exchanges took place between the mainstream and tributaries (Fig. 4b). Water retention time significantly increased in the reservoir in addition to the significantly decreased flow velocity ( $< 0.2 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ ) in some tributaries entering into the reservoir. Such changes replenish nutrients in the tributaries by circulation with those in the mainstream [33]. Accumulated nutrients and restricted vertical mixing in the backwater area of the tributaries favored phytoplankton growth [34, 35], further raising algae to flourish [36] (Supplementary Table 11). Algae photosynthetic removal of CO<sub>2</sub> and bioaccumulation of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>, HPO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> resulted in higher pH in the tributaries, promoting acceleration of eutrophication [37, 38]. The higher pH in tributary helped neutralize hydrogen ions in the mainstream, breaking the carbonate equilibrium of the river, ultimately leading to a sharp drop in CO<sub>2</sub> in the mainstream (Supplementary Fig. 13).

#### *Cause for CH<sub>4</sub> drop*

Although CH<sub>4</sub> increased upstream, a net reduction of CH<sub>4</sub> emission (about 17%) happened along the whole mainstream after the TGR impoundment, due to CH<sub>4</sub> decrease in the downstream of TGD. The input of dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> to the Ocean decreased by 50%, primarily because the TGD modified the GHGs regime and disrupted the biotic equilibrium of the Yangtze (Fig. 4c). Upstream of the TGD, both dissolved and emitted CH<sub>4</sub> increased after the reservoir impoundment, owing to the effects of flow regulation and sediment trapping. Such carbon burial promotes heterotrophic methanogenesis, thus increasing the dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> content of the

reservoir [29]. Anoxic conditions due to increased water depth in front of the dam would also be beneficial to methanogens locally [11]. However, both dissolved and emitted CH<sub>4</sub> declined downstream of the dam, mainly because of riverbed scouring which damaged the habitat of anaerobic *Archaea* responsible for heterotrophic methanogenesis [39, 40]. In addition, the pre-impoundment clearance also reduced decomposition of OC and inhibited the significant increase of CH<sub>4</sub> emission in the TGR. During reservoir flushing, degassing would occur because of rapid depressurization and strong aeration, resulting in increasing emission of dissolved CH<sub>4</sub>, lowering CH<sub>4</sub> concentration downstream [6, 41]. Overall, the TGD acted to regulate the CH<sub>4</sub> emission regime of the Yangtze, making dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> increase in the upper reach and decrease in the lower reach.

#### *Cause for N<sub>2</sub>O drop*

N<sub>2</sub>O flux emission over the mainstream decreased from 0.44 to 0.41 Gg N yr<sup>-1</sup>, and N<sub>2</sub>O export to sea fell from 0.46 to 0.41 Gg N yr<sup>-1</sup> after TGD operation commenced. Land-use changes and water quality protection measures resulted in low nitrogen loading to the TGR. Formation of hypoxia or even anoxia in the reservoir was generally restricted (Fig. 4d). The promoted denitrification whereby N<sub>2</sub>O was transformed directly to N<sub>2</sub>, causing N<sub>2</sub>O to decrease slightly upstream of the dam [42-44]. On the other hand, riverbed scouring downstream of the TGD altered the habitat of heterotrophic denitrifiers, slowing down denitrification. This is consistent with our findings of high NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration but low NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration in the river [45] (Supplementary Fig. 4; Supplementary Fig. 14a~b). Again, reservoir flushing would have raised degassing of N<sub>2</sub>O and N<sub>2</sub>. Discharge of cooler, high pressure, bottom water, supersaturated with gases, from the 175 m deep reservoir to the warmer, low pressure downstream river would enhance N<sub>2</sub>O emission [14]. Riverine microbial

communities require phosphorus as a nutrient, and pH to regulate nitrification and denitrification processes. The estimated annual mass of reactive P retained by dams along the Yangtze was 0.5 Gmol yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2010 rising to 2.9 Gmol yr<sup>-1</sup> by 2030; this would have altered denitrification causing N<sub>2</sub>O production to fall<sup>2</sup>. Hence, the influence of phosphorus is likely to be significantly less than riverbed scouring on the nitrogen cycle downstream of TGD. Field observations also exhibited an increase in pH downstream of TGD since 2003; this encouraged nitrification as evidenced by very low levels of ammonium recorded (Supplementary Fig. 14).

Lastly, the key concern becomes how the enlargement of CO<sub>2</sub> ( $1.8 \times 10^2 \sim 3.4 \times 10^2$  Gg C yr<sup>-1</sup>), CH<sub>4</sub> (0.18 ~ 0.37 Gg C yr<sup>-1</sup>), and N<sub>2</sub>O (0.0072 ~ 0.01 Gg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) emissions caused by the reservoir itself would be finally offset by the reduction of GHGs emissions resulted from downstream habitat modification. According to pre-impoundment estimates of GHG fluxes from the reservoir and post-impoundment measurements on possible GHG pathways, such a balance-out would be expected at 766 ~ 819 km (for CO<sub>2</sub>), 124 ~ 180 km (for CH<sub>4</sub>), 18 ~ 53 km (for N<sub>2</sub>O) downstream the TGD, respectively (Fig. 5). Under the practical scenarios for TGD operation [46] (Supplementary Table 12), the overall net reduction in GHGs emissions would be still significant (38.43 ~ 44.60 % for CO<sub>2</sub>, 14.51 ~ 19.70% for CH<sub>4</sub>, and 0.21 ~ 2.50% for N<sub>2</sub>O) in the entire Yangtze. In the reservoir area, the river-valley geomorphology restricted rise of littoral shallow area (<10 m), resulting in less CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from ebullition (<8% in the gross GHG emissions estimates of the TGR, see Supplementary Table 13). Sensitivity analysis confirmed the availability of the study results under uncertainties from the models and those induced by the TGR (Supplementary Fig.15~16). In the balance, the net change of GHG emissions directly caused by the TGR could alter neither the dominant GHG emission pathways from

reservoir nor the general GHG reduction trend from the perspective of the full scope of the 4300 km along the mainstream of the Yangtze River (Details see Section 9 in Supplementary Information).

## CONCLUSIONS

In contrast to the general claims that dams would increase emissions of GHGs from rivers, we found that the TGD, the world's largest dam, had caused significant reduction in annual average emissions of CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, and N<sub>2</sub>O over 4,300 km along the Yangtze River. Meanwhile, remarkable drop occurred in annual export of CO<sub>2</sub> (79%), CH<sub>4</sub> (50%), and N<sub>2</sub>O (9%) to the sea from the river. These findings suggested that much more profound impacts of the "large dams" should be encountered than those expected from the "small dam" effects limited to the vicinity of reservoirs either spatially or temporally. The impoundment of large reservoir not only altered environments in the reservoir area, but also resulted in significant variations of riverine habitats downstream. Especially, longterm and long-distance riverbed erosion downstream of the large dam would essentially change the processes of photosynthesis, methanogenesis and denitrification, commencing the reestablishment of the biogeochemical equilibrium over the whole river system. This highlights the primary importance of the whole system analysis in understanding the complex effects of large dams on readjustments of physical, chemical and biological equilibria in large rivers globally.

## METHODS

Water quality was monitored monthly at 43 hydrological stations (blue open circles, Fig. 1). Simultaneous sampling of hydrological, environmental, and all GHG constituents was undertaken in Spring and Autumn 2014 along the continuum of 4300

km (i.e., the actual sinuous channel length, equivalent to 2.05 times the straight line distance of 2102 km from start to the end sampling sites, red circles, Fig. 1). Further monthly sampling took place from November 2014 to September 2015 at six stations (purple solid circles, Fig. 1). Given the limited data available for model establishment (Supplementary Table 2~3), we also included data from previous studies conducted at certain sites along the Yangtze River. Details of model verification are given in Supplementary Table 14 & 15. All samples were collected in triplicate. Dissolved  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$ , and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  were determined using the headspace equilibration technique [47].  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$ , and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission rates were measured using the static floating chamber technique [47-48].  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$ , and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations were obtained using a gas chromatograph.

Water chemistry monitoring was conducted by the Changjiang Water Resources Commission on a monthly basis from 1990 to 2015. pH, total alkalinity,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ , water temperature (T),  $p\text{CO}_2$ , and dissolved  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations were determined at 18 stations (Supplementary Table 16). As described in Supplementary Fig.17 and Supplementary Fig.18, artificial neural networks based on backward propagation were used to calculate dissolved  $\text{CH}_4$  (with inputs of chemical oxygen demand, dissolved oxygen, water temperature, pH,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (with inputs of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , dissolved oxygen, water temperature, and pH). The model validation of dissolved  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations (including data from previous studies conducted at certain sites along the Yangtze River) was shown in Supplementary Fig. 19 and Fig. 20. Sensitivity analysis was performed by changing input variables (Supplementary Fig. 15 and Fig. 16). For comparison, calculated dissolved  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations from previous regression models were listed in Supplementary Table 17. The greenhouse gas (GHG) emission rate across the air-water interface was

calculated using a two-layer diffusive gas exchange model [49]. Herein,  $k_{600}$  is an important parameter for calculating gas emission rate from dissolved gas concentration. Based on the reexamination of existing empirical formulas for  $k_{600}$  (Supplementary Table 18),  $k_{600}$  was determined for monitoring sites at different reaches of Yangtze River (Supplementary Table 19). Wind speed data near the hydrological stations were extracted from the China Meteorological Data Sharing Service System (<http://data.cma.gov.cn>). Atmospheric  $\text{CH}_4$  concentration was assumed equivalent to the monthly averaged global background concentration at six monitoring stations across the world (NOAA/CMDL/CCGG air sampling network, <http://www.cmdl.noaa.gov/>). Model validation and parameter (e.g.  $k_{600}$ ) determination were detailed in Supplementary Information.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The help in sampling and field work from Qian Chen, Meiping Tong, Huazhang Zhao, Weiling Sun, Sitong Liu, Chenyuan Dang, Tang Liu, Shufeng Liu, Can Li, Jialiang Liang, Xuan Wu, Minzheng Xie are appreciated.

## FUNDING

Financial support was from National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 51721006 and 91647211) and the Joint Fund for Yangtze River Water Science Research.

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

J.R.N. designed the research. J.R.N., H.Z.W., T.M. and R.H. performed the research. H.Z.W., T.M., R.H., Z.L. and J.F.C. analyzed the data; P.C., A.G.L.B., Y.Y., B.L., Y.C.W., M.S.Z. and T.W. contributed new ideas and information; J.R.N., H.Z.W., Z.L.,



and Y.Y. wrote the paper with help of A.G.L.B. and P.C. All authors read, commented on and approved the final version of this article.

**Conflict of Interest.** The authors declare no competing financial interests.

## REFERENCES

1. Raymond PA, Hartmann J and Lauerwald R *et al.* Global carbon dioxide emissions from inland waters. *Nature* 2013; **503**: 355-359.
2. Maavara T, Parsons CT and Ridenour C *et al.* Global phosphorus retention by river damming. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2015; **112**: 15603-15608.
3. Barros N, Cole JJ and Tranvik LJ *et al.* Carbon emission from hydroelectric reservoirs linked to reservoir age and latitude. *Nat Geosci* 2011; **4**: 593-596.
4. Hu Y and Cheng H. The urgency of assessing the greenhouse gas budgets of hydroelectric reservoirs in China. *Nature Clim Change* 2013; **3**: 708-712.
5. Qiu J. Chinese dam may be a methane menace. *Nature News* 2009; available via <https://doi.org/10.1038/news.2009.962>.
6. Deemer BR, Harrison JA and Li S *et al.* Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Reservoir Water Surfaces: A New Global Synthesis. *BioScience* 2016; **66**: 949-964.
7. Fearnside PM. Greenhouse gas emissions from a hydroelectric reservoir (Brazil's Tucuruí Dam) and the energy policy implications. *Water Air and Soil Poll* 2002; **133**: 69-96.
8. Guérin F, Abril G and Tremblay A *et al.* Nitrous oxide emissions from tropical hydroelectric reservoirs. *Geophys Res Lett* 2008; **35**: L06404.
9. Latrubesse EM, Arima EY and Dunne T *et al.* Damming the rivers of the Amazon basin. *Nature* 2017; **546**: 363.

10. Maavara T, Lauerwald R and Regnier P *et al.* Global perturbation of organic carbon cycling by river damming. *Nat Commun* 2017; **8**: 15347.
11. Maeck A, Delsontro T and McGinnis DF *et al.* Sediment trapping by dams creates methane emission hot spots. *Environ Sci Technol* 2013; **47**: 8130-8137.
12. Vörösmarty CJ, Meybeck M and Fekete B *et al.* Anthropogenic sediment retention: major global impact from registered river impoundments. *Global planet change* 2003; **39**: 169-190.
13. Graf WL. Downstream hydrologic and geomorphic effects of large dams on American rivers. *Geomorphology* 2006; **79**: 336-360.
14. Fan H, He D and Wang H. Environmental consequences of damming the Lancang-Mekong River: A review. *Earth-Sci Rev* 2015; **146**: 77-91.
15. Dai Z and Liu J. Impacts of large dams on downstream fluvial sedimentation: an example of the Three Gorges Dam (TGD) on the Changjiang (Yangtze River). *J Hydrol* 2013; **480**: 10-18.
16. Ramette A and Tiedje JM. Multiscale responses of microbial life to spatial distance and environmental heterogeneity in a patchy ecosystem. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2007; **104**: 2761-2766.
17. Gunkel G. Hydropower—A green energy? Tropical reservoirs and greenhouse gas emissions. *CLEAN—Soil Air Water* 2009; **37**: 726-734.
18. Williams GP and Wolman MG. *Downstream Effects of Dams on Alluvial Rivers*. Washington: United States government printing office, 1984.
19. Yang L, Qiu F and Wang X *et al.* Spatial and temporal variation of methane concentrations in the atmosphere of the Three Gorges Reservoir and its relationship with methane emissions from the reservoir (in Chinese). *Resources and Environment in the Yangtze Basin* 2012, **21**: 209-214.

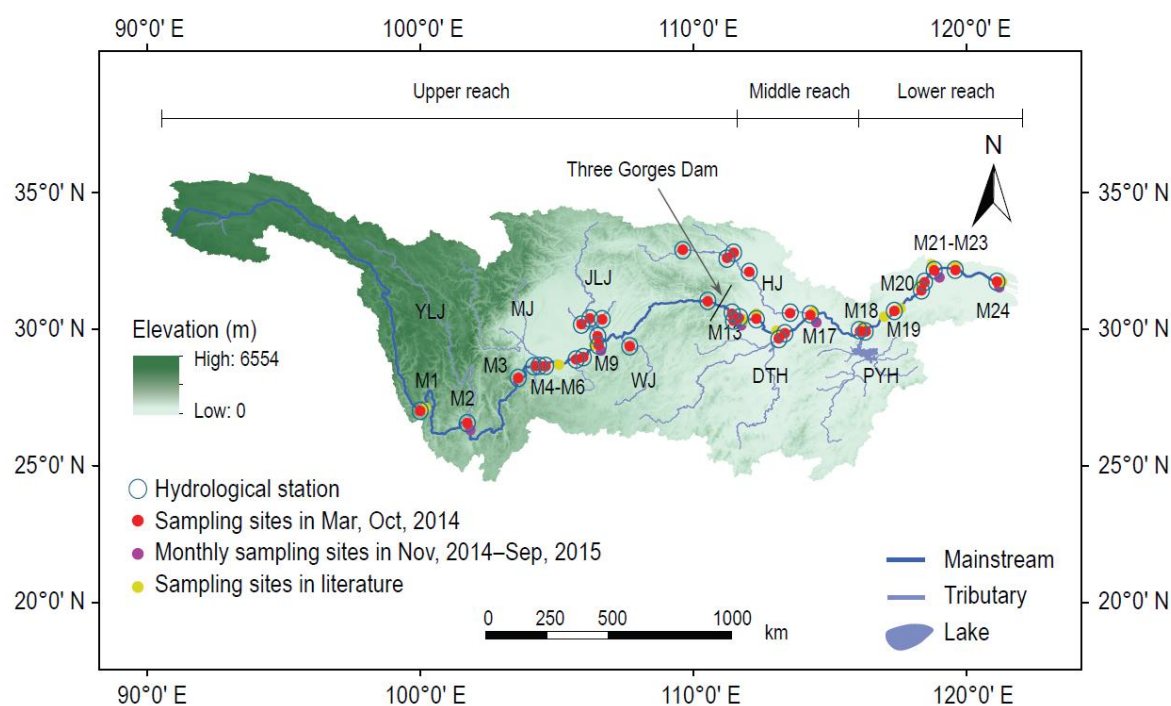
20. Lo W. Modelling Greenhouse Gas Emissions from the Three Gorges Dam. *Ph.D. Thesis*. The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Department of Civil and Structural Engineering, 2009.
21. Fearnside PM and Pueyo S. Greenhouse-gas emissions from tropical dams. *Nature Clim Change* 2012; **2**: 382.
22. Yang SL, Milliman JD and Xu KH *et al.* Downstream sedimentary and geomorphic impacts of the Three Gorges Dam on the Yangtze River. *Earth-Sci Rev* 2014; **138**: 469-486.
23. Renyong H and Jie Z. Establishment and validation of a 1-D numerical model of unsteady flow and sediment transport in the Three Gorges reservoir (TGR) (Switzerland). *Appl Mech Mater* 2013; **444-445**: 901-905.
24. Chen J, Wang F and Xia X *et al.* Major element chemistry of the Changjiang (Yangtze River). *Chem Geol* 2002; **187**: 231-255.
25. Butman D and Raymond PA. Significant efflux of carbon dioxide from streams and rivers in the United States. *Nat. Geosci* 2011; **4**: 839-842.
26. Bartlett KB, Crill PM and Bonassi JA *et al.* Methane flux from the Amazon River floodplain: Emissions during rising water. *J Geophys Res-Atmos* 1990; **95**: 16773-16788.
27. Yan W, Yang L and Wang F *et al.* Riverine N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations, exports to estuary and emissions to atmosphere from the Changjiang River in response to increasing nitrogen loads. *Global Biogeochem Cycles* 2012; **26**.
28. Wang Q, Koshikawa H and Liu C *et al.* 30-year changes in the nitrogen inputs to the Yangtze River Basin. *Environ Res Lett* 2014; **9**: 12.
29. Cole JJ, Prairie YT and Caraco NF *et al.* Plumbing the global carbon cycle: integrating inland waters into the terrestrial carbon budget. *Ecosystems* 2007; **10**:

172-185.

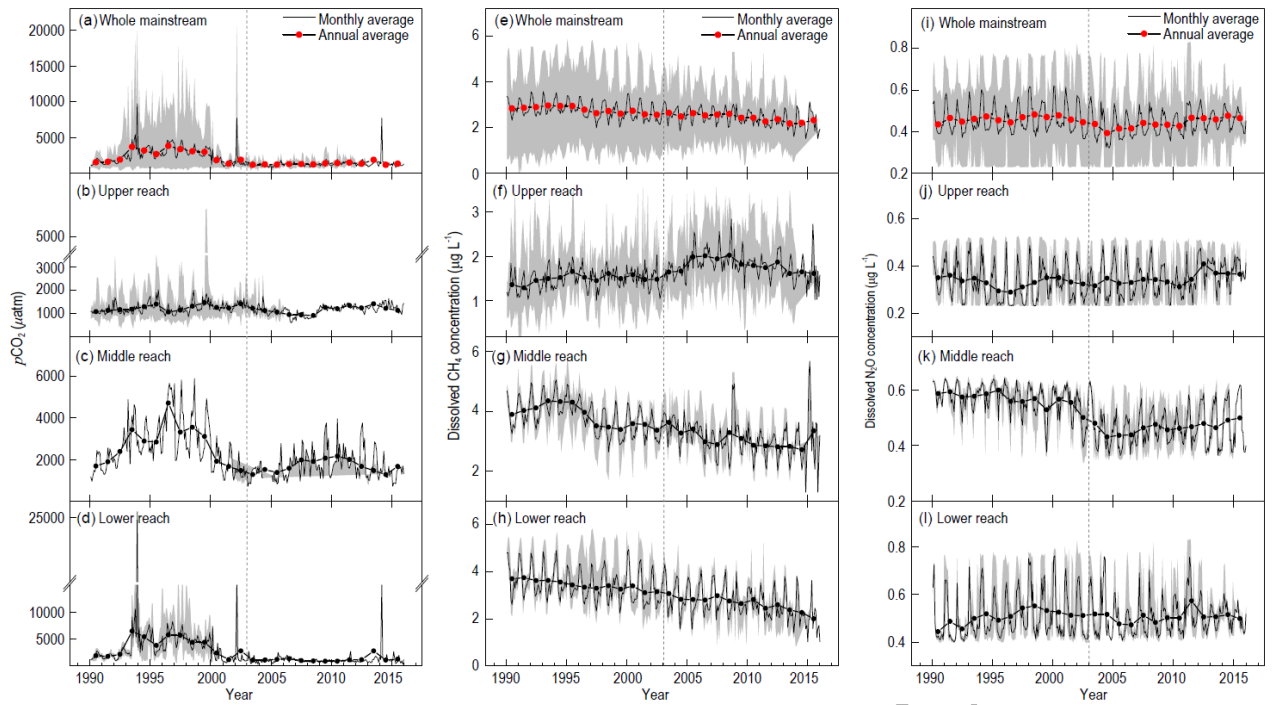
30. St. Louis VL, Kelly CA and Duchemin É *et al.* Reservoir surfaces as sources of greenhouse gases to the Atmosphere: A global estimate. *Bioscience* 2000; **50**: 766-775.
31. Ran L, Lu XX and Richey JE *et al.* Long-term spatial and temporal variation of CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure in the Yellow River, China. *Biogeosciences* 2015; **12**: 921-932.
32. Raymond PA and Cole JJ. Increase in the export of alkalinity from North America's largest river. *Science* 2003; **301**: 88-91.
33. Luo ZX, Zhu B and Zheng BH *et al.* Nitrogen and phosphorus loadings in branch backwater reaches and the reverse effects in the main stream in Three Gorges Reservoir (in Chinese). *China Environmental Science* 2007; **27**: 208-212.
34. Tan L, Cai Q and Xu Y *et al.* Survey of Spring Eutrophication Status after 175 m Experimental Impoundment of Three Gorges Reservoir and Comparison (in Chinese). *Wetland Science* 2010; **8**: 331-338.
35. Wang F, Wang Y and Zhang J *et al.* Human impact on the historical change of CO<sub>2</sub> degassing flux in River Changjiang. *Geochem Trans* 2007; **8**: 7.
36. Gao Q. Effects of vertical mixing on algal growth in the tributary of Three Gorges Reservoir. *J Hydraul Eng* 2017; **48**: 96-103.
37. Reynolds C. What factors influence the species composition of phytoplankton in lakes of different trophic status? *Hydrobiologia* 1998; **369**: 11-26.
38. Cao M, Cai QH and Liu RQ *et al.* Comparative research on physicochemical factors in the front of Three Gorges reservoir before and after the initiate impounding (in Chinese). *Acta hydrobiologica sinica* 2006; **30**: 12-19.
39. Liu H, Wang Z and Lu Y. Self-adjustment mechanism of bed structures under

hydrology and sediment regimes. *Hydrol Res* 2016; **47**: 136-148.

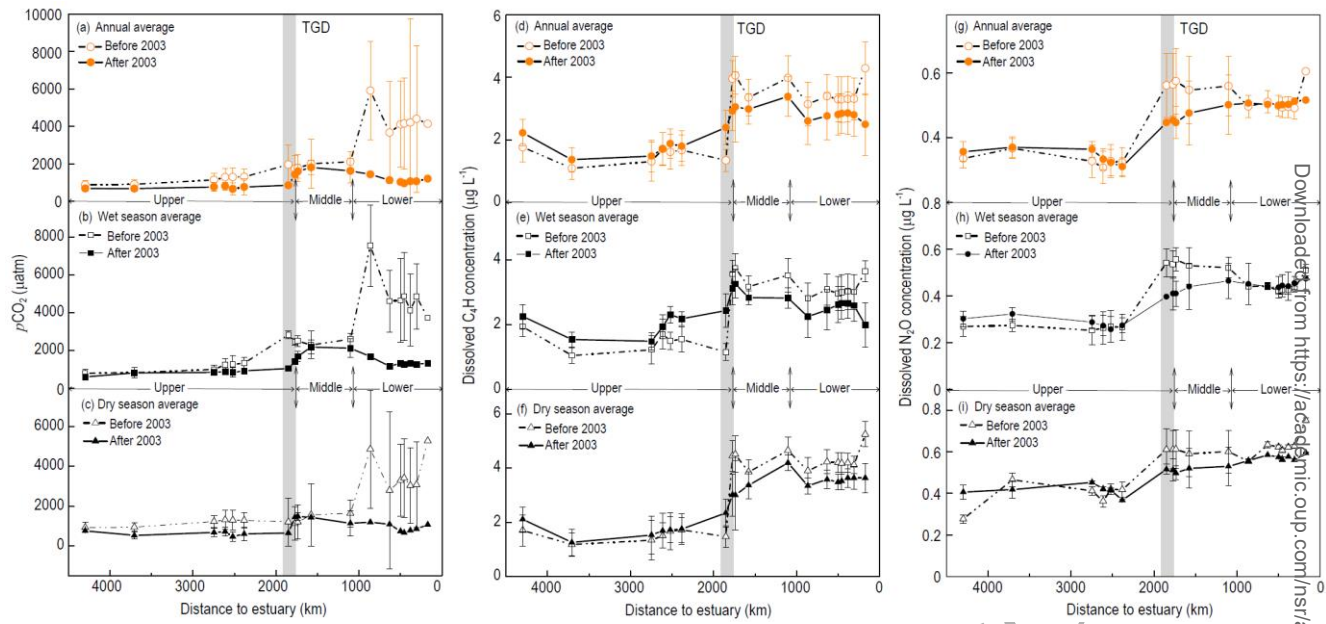
40. Guerin F, Abril G and Richard S *et al.* Methane and carbon dioxide emissions from tropical reservoirs: significance of downstream rivers. *Geophys Res Lett* 2006; **33**: L21407.
41. Li Z, Lu L and Lv P *et al.* Imbalanced Stoichiometric Reservoir Sedimentation Regulates Methane Accumulation in China's Three Gorges Reservoir. *Water Resour Res* 2020; **56**: e2019WR026447.
42. Lu H, Chandran K and Stensel D. Microbial ecology of denitrification in biological wastewater treatment. *Water Res* 2014; **64**: 237-254.
43. Yan X, Han Y and Li Q *et al.* Impact of internal recycle ratio on nitrous oxide generation from anaerobic/anoxic/oxic biological nitrogen removal process. *Biochem. Eng J* 2016; **106**: 11-18.
44. Zhu D, Chen H and Yuan X *et al.* Nitrous oxide emissions from the surface of the Three Gorges Reservoir. *Ecol Eng* 2013; **60**: 150-154.
45. Phillips JD. Toledo Bend Reservoir and geomorphic response in the lower Sabine River. *River Res Appl* 2003; **19**: 137-159.
46. Li Z, Sun Z and Chen Y *et al.* The net GHG emissions of the China Three Gorges Reservoir: I. Pre-impoundment GHG inventories and carbon balance. *J Clean Prod* 2020; **256**: 120635.
47. Beaulieu J, Shuster W and Rebholz J. Nitrous oxide emissions from a large, impounded river: The Ohio River. *Environ Sci Technol* 2010; **44**: 7527-7533.
48. Wang H, Huang R and Li J *et al.* Dissolved and emitted methane in the Poyang Lake. *Sci. China - Technol Sci* 2021; **64**: 203-212.
49. Weiss R and Price B. Nitrous oxide solubility in water and seawater. *Mar Chem* 1980; **8**: 347-359.



**Fig. 1. The Yangtze River Basin and sampling sites.** Lines indicate the mainstream river and its tributaries, the former having a continuum of 4,300 km (i.e., the actual sinuous channel length, equivalent to 2.05 times the straight-line distance of 2,102 km from start to the end sampling sites). Yellow solid circles show locations of previous sampling sites (see Supplementary Table 2~3); red solid circles show the locations of our recent simultaneous sampling sites in March and October 2014 (details see Supplementary Table 4); purple solid circles show the locations of our monthly sampling sites from October 2014 to September 2015; blue open circles show locations of the hydrological stations. The upper reach is from Shigu (M1) to Yichang (M13), the middle reach from Yichang to Hukou (M18), and the lower reach from Hukou to Xuliujing (M24). The major tributaries include Yalongjiang (YLJ), Minjiang (MJ), Jialingjiang (JLJ), Wujiang (WJ), and Hanjiang (HJ); two river-regulated lakes are Dongting (DTH) and Poyang (PYH) Lakes.



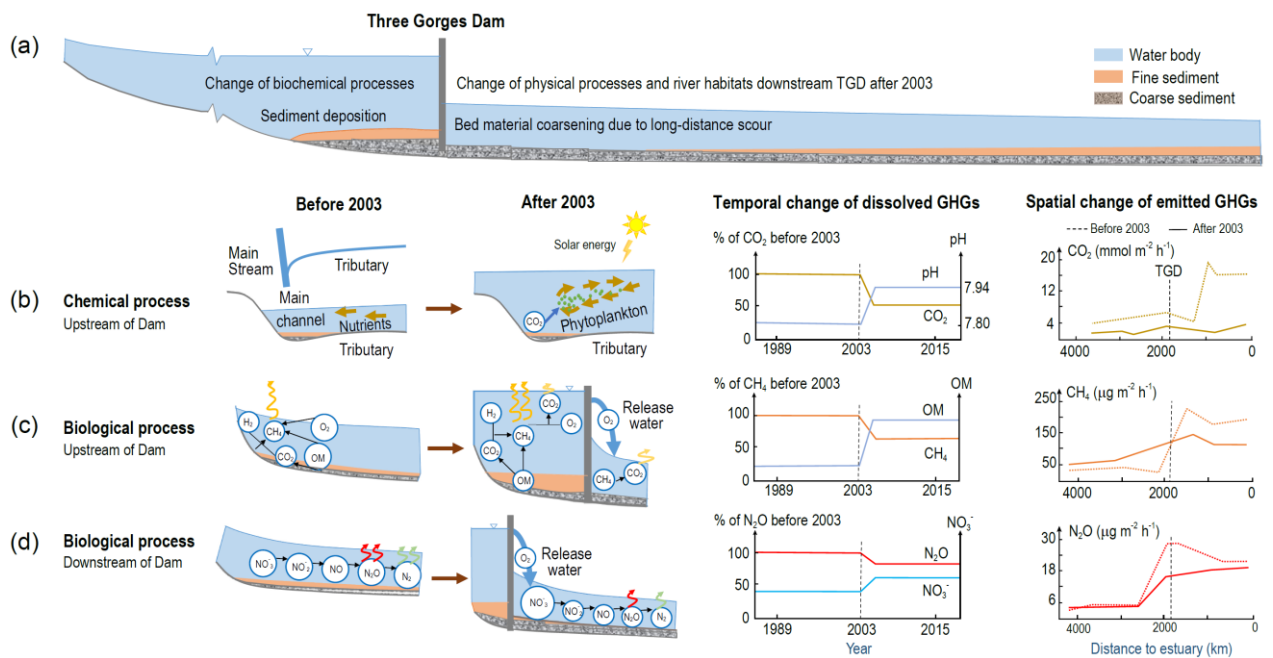
**Fig. 2. Temporal variations in monthly and annual averaged dissolved GHGs concentrations from 1990 to 2015.** Monthly and annual averaged  $p\text{CO}_2$  along the whole reach (a), the upper reach (b), the middle reach (c), the lower reach (d); monthly and annual averaged dissolved  $\text{CH}_4$  along the whole reach (e), the upper reach (f), the middle reach (g), the lower reach (h); monthly and annual averaged dissolved  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  along the whole reach (i), the upper reach (j), the middle reach (k), the lower reach (l). The shadow areas represent the range of dissolved GHGs concentrations at different monitoring stations in the corresponding reaches. Vertical dashed lines denote 2003, when TGD commenced operation.



**Fig. 3. Spatial variations in annual and seasonal dissolved GHGs concentrations in the 4300 km continuum of the Yangtze River.** Annual (a), wet season (b) and dry season (c) averaged dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> concentration profiles along the Yangtze mainstream before and after TGD impoundment in 2003; annual (d), wet season (e) and dry season (f) averaged dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> concentration profiles before and after TGD impoundment, and annual (g), wet season (h) and dry season (i) averaged dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration profiles before and after TGD impoundment. The error bars are the standard deviations in different time at monitoring stations. The shaded area indicates where the TGD reservoir is located.

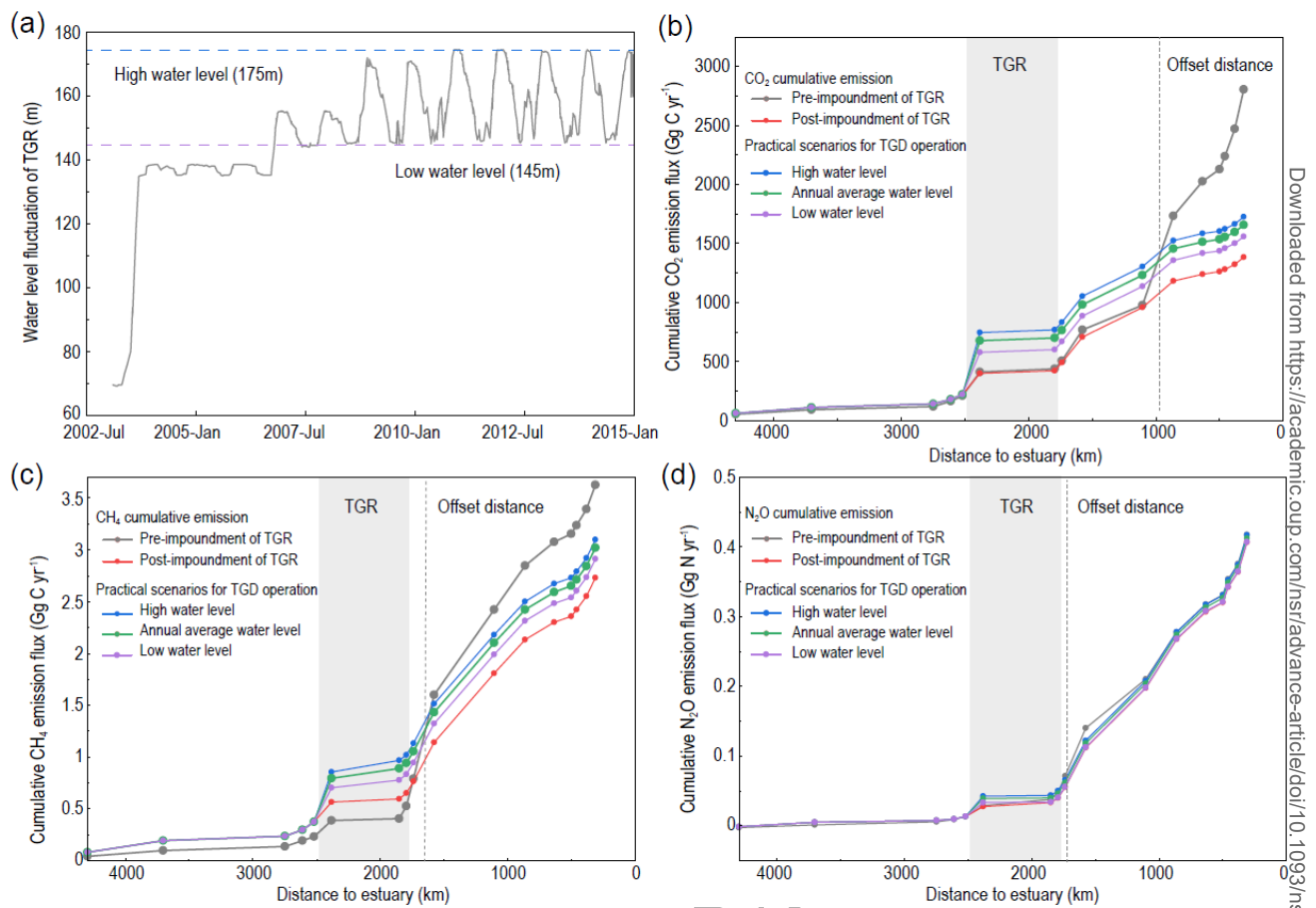
ORIGINAL UNEDITED MANUSCRIPT





**Fig. 4. Whole system analysis concerning readjustment of physical and biogeochemical equilibria involved in regulation effects of Three Gorges Dam on GHGs emissions from the Yangtze River.**

ORIGINAL UNEDITED MANUSCRIPT



**Fig. 5. The balance of GHGs emission fluxes enlarged by the reservoir itself and those reduced by habitat modification downstream the dam under practical TGD operation.** According to different scenarios for annual variation of TGD operating water level (a), the balance-out distance was 766 ~ 819 km for CO<sub>2</sub> (b), 124 ~ 180 km for CH<sub>4</sub> (c), and 18 ~ 53 km for N<sub>2</sub>O (d) downstream the dam, respectively. Under the averaged operating water level, the vertical dotted lines indicate the locations where the changed GHGs emission fluxes due to the reservoir was offset by the decreased in the downstream of the dam.