

# **Geophysical Research Letters**<sup>•</sup>

# **RESEARCH LETTER**

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## **Key Points:**

- This study is the first to report dissolved carbon concentrations, stable isotopes ratio & radiocarbon content from Acacia peat plantations
- Dissolved carbon concentrations in this study were among the highest reported, making *Acacia* peat plantations a carbon hotspot
- Oxic ecosystem respiration, rather than methanogenesis, was the main CO<sub>2</sub> source

### **Supporting Information:**

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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# Methane and Carbon Dioxide Production and Emission Pathways in the Belowground and Draining Water Bodies of a Tropical Peatland Plantation Forest

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**Abstract** Peatlands are crucial yet vulnerable carbon stores. Here, we investigated carbon biogeochemical processes in tropical peatlands converted to plantations. We measured carbon dioxide  $(CO_2)$  and methane  $(CH_4)$  concentrations, stable isotope ratios and radiocarbon content in an experimental *Acacia crassicarpa* plantation in Sumatra, Indonesia. We found exceptionally high levels of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), CO<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>4</sub> in porewater and drainage networks, indicating that *Acacia* plantations are carbon hotspots due to their high productivity and exposed carbon-dense substrates. Stable isotope models revealed that while CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> are produced belowground, CH<sub>4</sub> contribution was lower than in natural undrained peatlands. Radiocarbon analysis suggested that remobilized carbon contributed to the carbon pool, with a median age of ~470 years before present. These findings constrain the links between land-use, water table levels, and carbon dynamics, with implications for carbon management in plantation peatlands.

**Plain Language Summary** Peatlands keep a lot of carbon in their deep, wet soils, but their conversion to other land-uses leads to important quantities of carbon emitted to the atmosphere, contributing to global warming. In Southeast Asia, large areas of tropical peatlands have been converted to plantations. Yet, data on carbon production and emissions in these systems remain limited. This study measured the concentration, composition and age of carbon in the water and the soil in an experimental *Acacia* plantation site. We found high concentrations of, on average, century-old carbon in the water, similar to reports from other managed and degraded peatlands. However, in comparison to natural peatlands, we found that there was less methane (a strong greenhouse gas) proportional to carbon dioxide (the most common greenhouse gas) being produced in the studied plantations. Our findings show that it is important to carefully monitor and manage the carbon exchange in peatland plantations, to understand their environmental impact and discuss their role in the carbon cycle and the climate.

# 1. Introduction

Wetlands cover about 2% of Earth's land yet store a large amount of organic carbon (Blakemore, 2018; Fluet-Chouinard et al., 2023; Poulter et al., 2021) due to vegetation productivity surpassing slow organic matter decomposition in anoxic, waterlogged soils (Temmink et al., 2022). Peatlands, the predominant vegetated wetland type, are rapidly declining due to land-use changes (LUC; Fluet-Chouinard et al., 2023). Between 2001 and 2022, approximately 41% of Southeast Asia's peatland forests were impacted by land-use change (Sasmito et al., 2025). Conversion to tree plantations for fiberwood, rubber and palm oil was among the most common land-use changes (Sasmito et al., 2025). *Acacia* plantations, like other managed tree plantations on peatlands, are drained to maintain water table levels (WTLs) below root depth to support plant productivity, impacting carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ) and methane ( $CH_4$ ) production and release (Figure 1). WTL is managed using artificial drainage networks, including first-order channels (ditches), second-order channels (canals), and dams. Ditches are shallow and slow-moving, while canals are larger and deeper.





WTL affects the redox environment, influencing peat organic matter (OM) production, decomposition and preservation (Figure 1). A shallower WTL creates anaerobic conditions near the surface, promoting dissolved organic carbon (DOC) production (Kellerman et al., 2014; Lynch et al., 2019), and OM degradation through acetoclastic methanogenesis (AM) and hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis (HM), resulting in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions typical of undisturbed peatlands (Holmes et al., 2015; Neubauer & Megonigal, 2022). Lowering WTL through drainage exposes upper peat layers to aerobic conditions, increasing CO<sub>2</sub> production through respiration and reducing CH<sub>4</sub> via methane oxidation (Figure 1). Conversely, raising WTLs (e.g., Hooijer et al., 2024; Parish et al., 2019) can decrease CO<sub>2</sub> emissions but increase CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Evans et al., 2021). While WTL impacts on C-GHG emissions are well-documented (Carlson et al., 2015; Evans et al., 2021; Günther et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2021; Zou et al., 2022), subsurface biogeochemical processes in response to WTL shifts in tropical peatland plantations remain poorly understood.

Aquatic carbon dynamics in tropical peatlands remain uncertain due to a predominant focus on terrestrial GHG emissions (e.g., Deshmukh et al., 2020, 2021, 2023; Jauhiainen et al., 2008; Jauhiainen et al., 2012; Lupascu et al., 2020) and the exchange of peat-derived carbon and C-GHG within drainage networks (e.g., Martin et al., 2018; Moore et al., 2013; Nichols & Martin, 2021; Wit et al., 2018). The conceptual model in Figure 1 outlines pathways and  $\delta^{13}$ C isotopic fractionations related to DOC, CO<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>4</sub>. Carbon input from peat porewaters to drainage networks may include particulate organic carbon, DOC, dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>. In surface water, DOC can be mineralized via photochemical oxidation or bacterial metabolism, converting into CO<sub>2</sub>, which may either evade the water surface or flow downstream (Somers et al., 2023). Similarly, CH<sub>4</sub> can be oxidized to CO<sub>2</sub> within the water column or released directly into the atmosphere. Because of its low solubility, CH<sub>4</sub> quickly evades or is released through ebullition from deeper water levels, while plants on vegetated surfaces may transport CH<sub>4</sub> emissions via their stems (Akhtar et al., 2021). Limited studies on carbon dynamics in ditches and canals draining managed tropical peatlands indicate high rates of organic carbon cycling and CH<sub>4</sub> production (Bowen et al., 2024; Deshmukh et al., 2020; Jauhiainen & Silvennoinen, 2012; Somers et al., 2023). Larger-scale assessments suggest modified peatland drainage networks could be significant CH<sub>4</sub> emissions hotspots globally (Peacock et al., 2021).

Understanding the factors controlling  $CH_4$  and  $CO_2$  production and transport pathways is crucial for evaluating how land-use change affects C-GHG emissions from peatlands. This study aimed to examine carbon and C-GHG production and transport pathways in the belowground and draining water bodies of an industrial short-rotation fiberwood (*Acacia crassicarpa*) plantation on peat, focusing on (*a*) the distribution, composition and age of dissolved carbon in an *Acacia* plantation; and (*b*) the influence of WTL on below-ground C-GHG production and emission pathways.

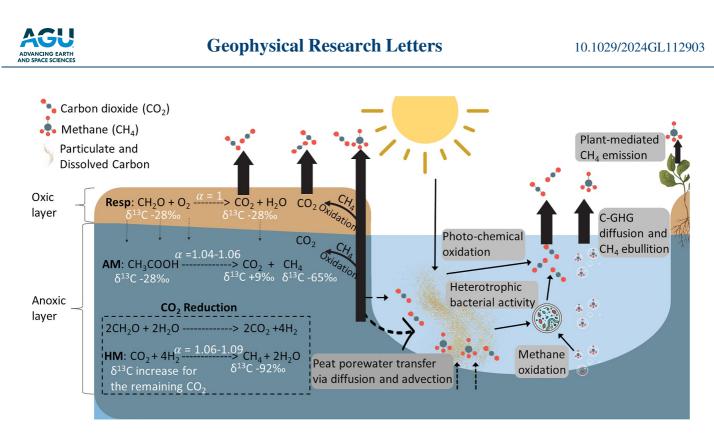
# 2. Study Site and Experimental Design

The study was conducted within a 647,000 ha ombrotrophic peatland converted into an industrial *Acacia* plantation in the Kampar Peninsula, Riau Province, Sumatra, Indonesia (Figure 2). The peatland, over 5,100 years old (Hapsari et al., 2022), experienced 2,707 mm of cumulative rainfall in 2022, 53% wetter than the 2014–2021 average (Deshmukh et al., 2021). September to November were the wettest months (>300 mm month<sup>-1</sup>). January to February and May to August were the driest (<200 mm month<sup>-1</sup>).

Within the experimental plantation, samples were collected in a 34-ha WTL manipulation experimental plot with a 0.52 m elevation gradient, causing southward water flow (Figure 2). This created a deeper WTL at the higher slope (Water Table Trial Deeper, WTT\_Deeper) and a shallower WTL at the lower slope (WTT\_Shallower). Despite efforts to maintain WTL near constant year-round by adjusting an outlet dam, variability occurred: mean WTLs were  $-0.23 \pm 0.17$  m for WTT\_Shallower (negative values indicate water levels below the surface) and  $-0.67 \pm 0.19$  m for WTT\_Deeper (Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1). While the experimental plot had specific WTLs and management, factors such as plant density, fertilization regime, silvicultural practices, and *Acacia* species were consistent with the rest of the plantation. The plot featured a network of narrow, shallow and partly shaded primary drainage channels (ditches) with slow-moving to stagnant water conveying water toward wider, navigable secondary channels (canals) mostly exposed to sunlight. During the driest period, ditches and canals are not surface-connected but remain linked through porewater transfers year-round.

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**Figure 1.** Conceptual model of biogeochemical processes in peat porewater and surface water. "Resp." = OM respiration, the main degradation pathway in the peat oxic layer. "AM" = acetoclastic methanogenesis, an anoxic pathway producing CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>. "HM" = hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis, another anoxic pathway, part of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, producing CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> (Corbett et al., 2013). Isotope fractionation factors ( $\alpha$ ) and expected isotopic compositions ( $\delta^{13}$ C) are from Holmes et al. (2015).

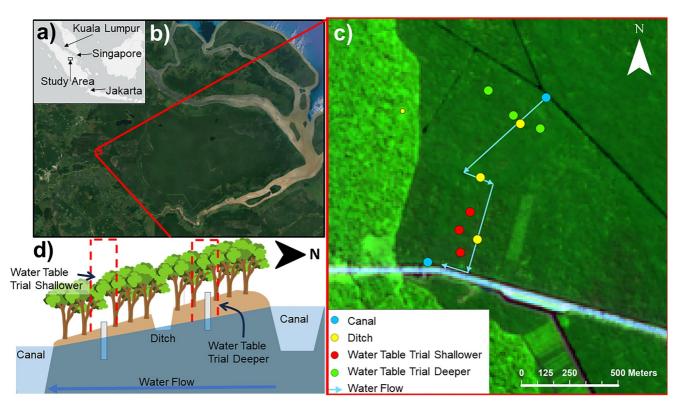


Figure 2. (a) Study area in the region and (b) in the Kampar Peninsula; (c) experimental site (0.516545°N; 102.107758°E) satellite imagery with the sampling stations along the North-to-South elevation gradient. (d) Conceptual model of the study site cross-section. Note that the water flow goes from North to South (right to left in the model).

# 3. Methods

## 3.1. Data Collection and Analysis

Porewater and surface water samples were collected in February, May, August, and November 2022. Triplicated porewater samples were taken from wells at WTT\_Deeper and WTT\_Shallower, while surface water samples were collected from ditches and canals banks (Figure 2).

For DOC concentration, water samples were filtered (45  $\mu$ M cellulose acetate; Whatman, USA) and stored refrigerated in 15 mL PP tubes until analysis using a vario TOC cube analyzer (Elementar, Germany). Acidification was initially deemed unnecessary due to the natural acidity of the water (pH < 3.25). However, this resulted in an approximate 10% overestimation of DOC concentration as compared to the same samples acidified to pH < 2 from residual DIC (Figure S2 in Supporting Information S1). Therefore, a –10% correction was applied to non-acidified samples. Additional filtered water samples were collected in 250 mL Nalgene HDPE bottles and 40 mL glass vials for DO<sup>14</sup>C analysis at the André E. Lalonde AMS Laboratory and  $\delta^{13}$ C-DOC at the Ján Veizer Stable Isotope Laboratory (University of Ottawa, Canada).

Dissolved CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, and their stable isotope composition ( $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> and  $\delta^{13}$ C-CH<sub>4</sub>) were sampled using the headspace technique (e.g., Taillardat et al., 2022) and analyzed by cavity ring-down spectroscopy (G2201-i, Picarro Inc, USA). The pCO<sub>2</sub> and pCH<sub>4</sub> (ppm and µatm) were converted to concentrations (µM and mgC L<sup>-1</sup>) based on water temperature and gas solubility coefficients (Goldenfum, 2011). The headspace technique was also used for dissolved <sup>14</sup>C-CO<sub>2</sub> following Garnett et al. (2016) and Murseli et al. (2019). Radiocarbon analyses were performed on an Ionplus AG MICADAS (Mini Carbon Dating System).

Statistical differences in dissolved carbon concentrations,  $\delta^{13}$ C, and F<sup>14</sup>C values across peat porewater sites (WTT\_Shallower and WTT\_Deeper) and surface waters were examined using non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn-Bonferroni post-hoc tests. Statistical analyses and graphs were created in R version 4.4.0 (R Core Team, 2024).

### 3.2. Stable Isotope Mass Balance Models

Carbon stable isotope ratio ( $\delta^{13}$ C) and variations in coexisting dissolved carbon forms offer process-level insights (e.g., Evans et al., 2014; Holmes et al., 2015; Moore et al., 2013; Throckmorton et al., 2015). The difference between  $\delta^{13}$ C-CH<sub>4</sub> and  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> provides the isotope separation  $\varepsilon_c$  of CO<sub>2</sub>–CH<sub>4</sub> that can identify the dominant methanogenic pathway between HM and AM (Figure 1; Whiticar, 1999). The apparent fractionation factors between CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> ( $\alpha$ ) were calculated using Equation 1:

$$\alpha = \frac{\delta^{13} C - CO_2 + 1000}{\delta^{13} C - CH_4 + 1000}$$
(1)

#### 3.2.1. Estimating CO<sub>2</sub> Production From Methanogenesis and Respiration

 $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> resulting from methanogenesis ( $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>-CO<sub>2</sub>-meth</sub>) can be calculated when  $\delta^{13}$ C-CH<sub>4</sub> and  $\delta^{13}$ C-DOC (or  $\delta^{13}$ C-OM) are known (Equation 2) under two assumptions. First, AM produces equal amounts of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>. In contrast, HM produces CH<sub>4</sub> while consuming equimolar CO<sub>2</sub> but is part of the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction process. This CO<sub>2</sub> reduction originates from non-fractionating OM respiration and releases twice the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> over the amount of produced CH<sub>4</sub>. As a result, when the chemical reactions of both methanogenesis pathways are fully accounted for, they both produce equimolar amounts of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>. However, these pathways do not yield similar  $\delta^{13}$ C-CH<sub>4</sub> values (Figure 1). Second, measured  $\delta^{13}$ C-CH<sub>4</sub> in peat porewaters approximate the CH<sub>4</sub> initially produced from methanogenesis (Corbett et al., 2013; Throckmorton et al., 2015).

$$\delta^{13}C_{-CO_2-meth} = \frac{\left(\delta^{13}C - DOC\right) - (0.5) \cdot \left(\delta^{13}C - CH_4\right)}{0.5}$$
(2)

Non-methanogenic CO<sub>2</sub> production has the same  $\delta^{13}$ C value as the OM substrate or, in this case, subsurface porewater  $\delta^{13}$ C-DOC (Throckmorton et al., 2015). After determining  $\delta^{13}$ C – CO<sub>2-meth</sub> (Equation 3), the fraction



of CO<sub>2</sub> from either isotopic fractionating methanogenesis (fCO<sub>2-meth</sub>) or non-fractionating OM respiration and fermentation (fCO<sub>2-OM decay</sub>) is determined using Equations 3 and 4:

$$\left(\delta^{13}C_{-CO_2}\right) = \left(\delta^{13}C_{-DOC}\right) \cdot \left(fCO_{2-OM \text{ decay}}\right) + \left(\delta^{13}C_{-CO_2-\text{meth}}\right) \cdot \left(fCO_{2-\text{meth}}\right)$$
(3)

and

$$fCO_{2-OM \text{ decay}} + fCO_{2-\text{meth}} = 1 \tag{4}$$

Solving these allows the estimation of  $fCO_{2-meth}$  and  $fCO_{2-OM decay}$  (Corbett et al., 2013; Throckmorton et al., 2015). Finally, the quantity of CO<sub>2</sub> produced via methanogenesis (CO<sub>2-meth</sub>) can be determined using Equation 5:

$$fCO_{2-meth} \cdot CO_{2-porewater} = CO_{2-meth}$$
 (5)

where  $CO_{2-porewater}$  is the measured  $CO_2$  concentration in porewater.

#### 3.2.2. Estimating CH<sub>4</sub> Loss via Ebullition and Plant-Mediated Transport

Since methanogenesis yields equimolar amounts of  $CH_4$  and  $CO_2$ , comparing the amount of  $CO_2$  produced via methanogenesis ( $CO_{2-meth} = CH_{4-meth}$ ) with measured  $CH_4$  concentration ( $CH_{4-measured}$ ) allows estimation of  $CH_4$  lost through ebullition or oxidation ( $CH_{4-trans}$ ) using Equation 6 (Corbett et al., 2013; Throckmorton et al., 2015).

$$CH_{4-trans} = CO_{2-meth} - CH_{4-measured}$$
(6)

#### 3.3. Systematic Literature Review

A systematic review synthesized DOC, dissolved  $CO_2$  and  $CH_4$  concentrations from tropical peat porewater, ditches and canals. A literature search using the Scopus database on 17 April 2024 yielded used here from 50 independent studies and 397 individual study sites were used. Most studies did not provide comprehensive carbon values for all sampling types along the water continuum. A detailed description of the literature review methodology is provided in the Supporting Information S1.

#### 4. Results and Discussion

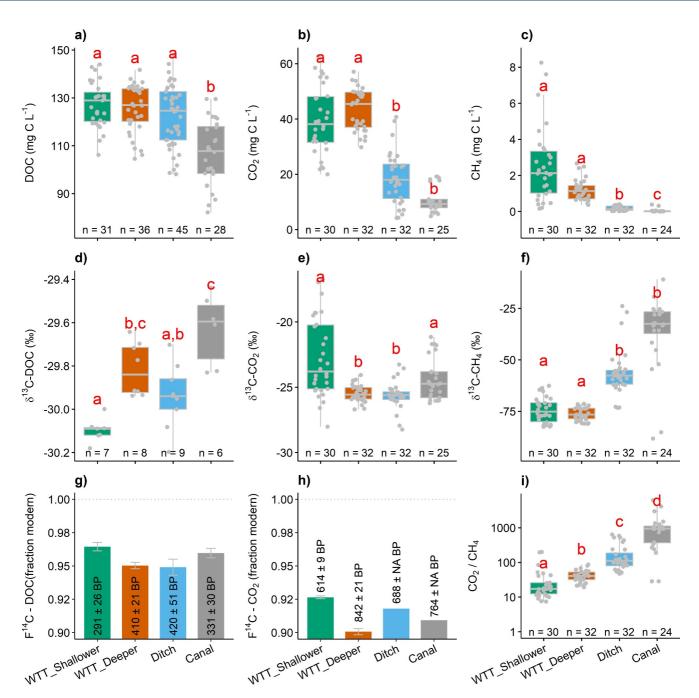
#### 4.1. Dissolved Carbon Concentrations

The dominant form of dissolved carbon in peat porewater was DOC (~76%; median = 127.1 mgC L<sup>-1</sup>; range: 104.6 to 144.0 mgC L<sup>-1</sup>), followed by dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> (~24%; median = 39.6 mgC L<sup>-1</sup>; range: 20.0 to 62.6 mgC L<sup>-1</sup>) while dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> made up less than 1%, with a median of 1.4 mgC L<sup>-1</sup> (range: 0.1 to 8.3 mgC L<sup>-1</sup>). There were no significant differences in dissolved carbon concentration between WTT\_Shallower compared to WTT\_Deeper (Figures 3a–3c). In surface water (ditches and canals), DOC comprised over 92% of total dissolved carbon, with dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> at 8%, and CH<sub>4</sub> was negligible. Total dissolved carbon (DOC + CO<sub>2</sub> + CH<sub>4</sub>) was higher in ditches than in canals, with statistical significance for DOC and CO<sub>2</sub>, but not CH<sub>4</sub> (Figures 3a–3c). Dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> levels were 4 and 92 times lower, respectively, in surface water than in peat porewater, while DOC remained within the same order of magnitude (Figures 3a–3c). No clear seasonal trend emerged between the different forms (Figure S3 in Supporting Information S1), likely due to consistent warm, humid conditions throughout the year.

DOC concentrations at our study site were in the highest range reported from tropical peatland settings (Figure 4a). While average DOC concentrations in peatland canals across the tropics are ~46 mgC  $L^{-1}$ , we measured DOC concentrations consistently >100 mgC  $L^{-1}$  (Figure 3a). Previously, the highest values (>65 mgC  $L^{-1}$ ) were from an undisturbed peat swamp forest (Moore et al., 2013), a logged one (Waldron et al., 2019), an oil palm plantation (Waldron et al., 2019), and a Sago palm plantation (Miyamoto et al., 2009). Two explanations were considered. First, plantation trees are highly productive, likely releasing substantial DOC through root



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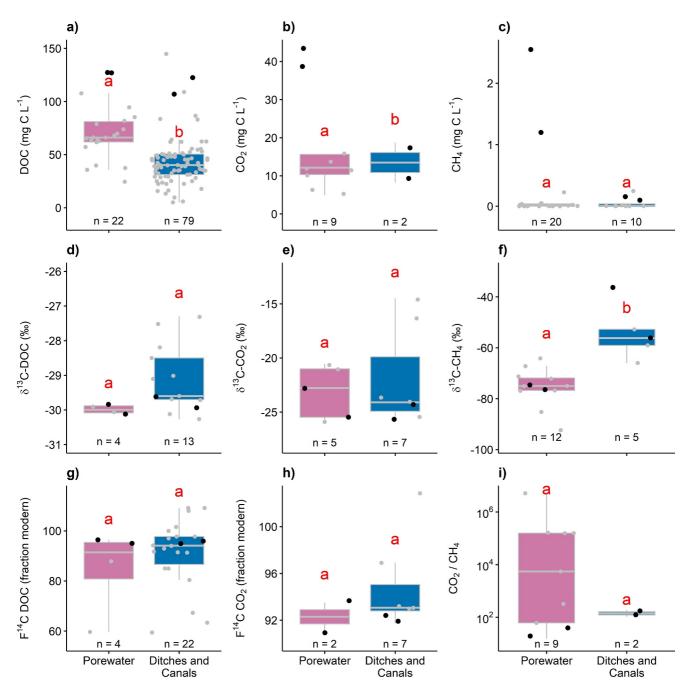


**Figure 3.** Dissolved carbon concentrations (a–c, i)  $\delta^{13}$ C (d–f) and F<sup>14</sup>C values (g, h) in peat porewater (WTT\_Shallower, WTT\_Deeper), ditch and canal. Boxplot medians (thick lines), quartile (box limits), whiskers (1.5 times the interquartile range (IQR)), and data points (dots) are shown. Different lowercase red letters above whiskers indicate significant differences (p < 0.05; e.g., a and a are statistically the same; a and b are statistically different) between groups. Note the exponential *y*-axis in panel i.

exudation and leaching from fresh litter (Deshmukh et al., 2020, 2023). Second, the ditch conditions in plantations may prevent DOC degradation. About 30% of the DOC in peatland canals may be degraded through photooxidation (Bowen et al., 2024). Since the studied ditches are slow-moving, shallow and partly shaded (Figure 2d), DOC may remain undegraded until reaching wider, deeper canals downstream where incoming radiation is higher (Figure 3a). Our study is only the fourth to report total carbon concentrations from ditches in tropical peatlands (Cook et al., 2018; Manning et al., 2019; Moore et al., 2013), although the importance of ditches on carbon cycling and C-GHG emissions is globally acknowledged (Peacock et al., 2021). Therefore, the lack of data from



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**Figure 4.** Dissolved carbon concentrations (a–c),  $\delta^{13}$ C (d–f),  $F^{14}$  C values (g, h) and CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> ratio (i) in peat porewater, ditches and canals from our systematic review. Boxplots show medians (thick lines), quartiles (box limits), whiskers (1.5x IQR), and individual data points from the literature (gray dots) and our study (black dots). Different lowercase red letters above whiskers indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) between groups. Note the exponential *y*-axis on panel (i).

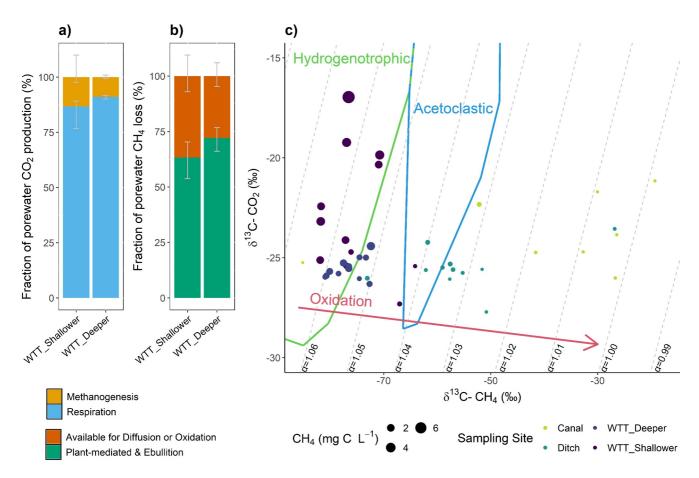
ditches in managed tropical peatlands may be a missing link in understanding peat-derived carbon processes along the aquatic continuum (Evans & Taillardat, 2024).

Few studies have reported dissolved  $CO_2$  and  $CH_4$  concentrations in tropical peatlands (Figures 4b and 4c). Our systematic review found no studies on dissolved  $CO_2$  and only two on dissolved  $CH_4$  in canals draining peatland, with  $CH_4$  concentrations ranging from 0.5 to 248 µg $CL^{-1}$  (Somers et al., 2023; Waldron et al., 2019). Comparisons with global-scale data sets covering wetlands and water bodies more broadly suggest that dissolved  $CO_2$  and  $CH_4$  at our study site are among the highest reported; Liu et al. (2022) reported global dissolved  $CO_2$  values in streams and rivers ranging from 34 to 27,205 µatm, while tropical values ranged from 141 to 22,899 µatm, well

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**Figure 5.** (a) Results from the stable isotope mixing models reporting the contribution of methanogenesis and ecosystem respiration to dissolved  $CO_2$  production. (b) Proportion of  $CH_4$  loss pathways, including diffusion or oxidation versus plant-mediated and ebullition pathways. Bars represent median values, with error bars indicating the first (Q1) and third quartiles (Q3). (c) Crossplot  $\delta^{13}C$  values in porewaters from WTT\_Shallower and WTT\_Deeper, ditch and canal. Dot size reflects  $CH_4$  concentration. The oxidation line is from Knorr et al. (2009). The hydrogenotrophic and acetoclastic areas are from Negandhi et al. (2019).

below our measurements (10,984–107,018 µatm or 4.20–40.71 mgC L<sup>-1</sup>). Similarly, our CH<sub>4</sub> levels are among the highest in the Global River Methane Database (GRiMeDB; Stanley et al. (2023)), event though tropical systems are underrepresented in this database. Although peatland drainage minimizes terrestrial CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Evans et al., 2021; Günther et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2021; Zou et al., 2022), our results confirm that drainage contributes to additional C-GHG emissions via the aquatic pathway (Deshmukh et al., 2020; Peacock et al., 2021). Further measurements of dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations and fluxes from peatland drainage networks are necessary to incorporate them into global carbon assessments (e.g., Rocher-ros et al., 2023; Rosentreter et al., 2021).

Radiocarbon analysis showed  $F^{14}C$  values between 0.90 and 0.97, suggesting carbon predominantly fixed before 1955 CE (Figures 3g and 3h). DOC contained significantly more <sup>14</sup>C-enriched samples than CO<sub>2</sub>, but the indicative mean ages for both were ~470 years before present. Our results align with previous peatland studies, where  $F^{14}C$ -CO<sub>2</sub> is often lower than  $F^{14}C$  -DOC (Figures 4g and 4h) presumably due to methanogenesis producing a fraction of the total CO<sub>2</sub> from deeper, older anaerobic layers compared to respiration in the aerobic upper layer (Dean et al., 2023). Another explanation could be the different physical properties between the DOC and CO<sub>2</sub>. DOC can only leave the peat via the drainage system, whereas younger CO<sub>2</sub> produced near the peat surface may escape to the atmosphere. There was no substantial difference in mean  $F^{14}C$  value between WTT\_Shallower and WTT\_Deeper (Figures 3g and 3h). These results support the rationale that deeper WTLs in degraded and managed peatlands expose older OM to decomposition or dissolution (Cook et al., 2018; Evans et al., 2014; Moore et al., 2013), despite the high *Acacia* productivity in our case.

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### 4.2. Water Level Influences Below-Ground Gas Production Magnitude and Emission Pathways

The  $\delta^{13}$ C values measured at our site (Figures 4d–4f) are consistent with existing data for tropical peatlands. The porewater  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> (~-23‰) is similar to values from forested areas with C<sub>3</sub>-derived OM degradation (Campeau et al., 2017a, 2017b; Hutchins et al., 2020) and a tropical wetland in Panama (Holmes et al., 2015). Using an isotope mass balance model (Equations 3 and 4), our results indicate that ecosystem respiration, a non-fractionating pathway, was the main source of CO<sub>2</sub> at both sites (Figure 5a). The predominance of respiration (>80%) contrasts with undisturbed boreal peatlands, where most dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> in porewater is from methanogenesis, indicated by a median porewater  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> of -3.8% (Taillardat et al., 2022) or  $\delta^{13}$ C-DIC of -4.6% (Campeau et al., 2018). The importance of ecosystem respiration can be explained by increasing oxic layer depth from drainage and the yearround warm, humid conditions leading to respiration rates greater than those at higher latitudes.

The significantly lower  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> ratio at WTT\_Shallower compared to WTT\_Deeper (Figures 3e and 3i), support the hypothesis that WTL influences belowground gas production. According to our mass balance model, methanogenesis was proportionally more important at WTT\_Shallower, even though >80% of CO<sub>2</sub> was from oxic respiration (Figure 5a). Increased hypoxia suitable for methanogenesis and reduced methanotrophy are expected with a shallower WTL (Dean et al., 2018). Access to fresher, more labile OM may further stimulate degradation in upper peat layers, explaining higher CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations at WTT\_Shallower.

The very negative  $\delta^{13}$ C-CH<sub>4</sub> (<-70%) at both WTTs suggests that methanogenesis was predominantly through the HM pathway (Figure 5c), which is consistent with undisturbed tropical peatlands (Holmes et al., 2015). Our analysis of CH<sub>4</sub> loss pathways (Equation 6) suggests that most dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> in peat porewater was lost via ebullition and plant-mediated transport rather than being available for diffusion, oxidation, or lateral export to ditches, with little variation between WTTs (Figure 5b). This aligns with findings from higher latitudes (Corbett et al., 2013; Throckmorton et al., 2015). The under-documented importance of ebullition and plant-mediated emissions could potentially explain global CH<sub>4</sub> budget discrepancies (Saunois et al., 2020) and requires further investigations (Bodmer et al., 2023).

# 5. Conclusion

In reporting among the highest published value for DOC, dissolved  $CO_2$ , and  $CH_4$  concentrations, our study highlights that *Acacia* plantations on tropical peat are significant carbon production, transformation and emission hotspots. This is due to a combination of high productivity and carbon-dense substrates exposed to remobilization, combined factors that are also found on other fast-growing tree plantations on peat. Our findings also suggest that within the experimental forest plantation, WTL influenced carbon-GHG production, with higher dissolved  $CH_4$  concentrations relative to  $CO_2$  in areas where the WTL was shallower, where surrounding organic matter was younger and potentially more labile. Findings from this study are essential to understanding carbon cycling in *Acacia* plantations on peat and developing water management practices that can reduce emissions while maintaining commercial productivity.

# **Data Availability Statement**

Data and code to reproduce the analysis, results and figures are available in the Zenodo repository (Taillardat, 2025; Taillardat et al., 2025).

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