Dear reviewer,

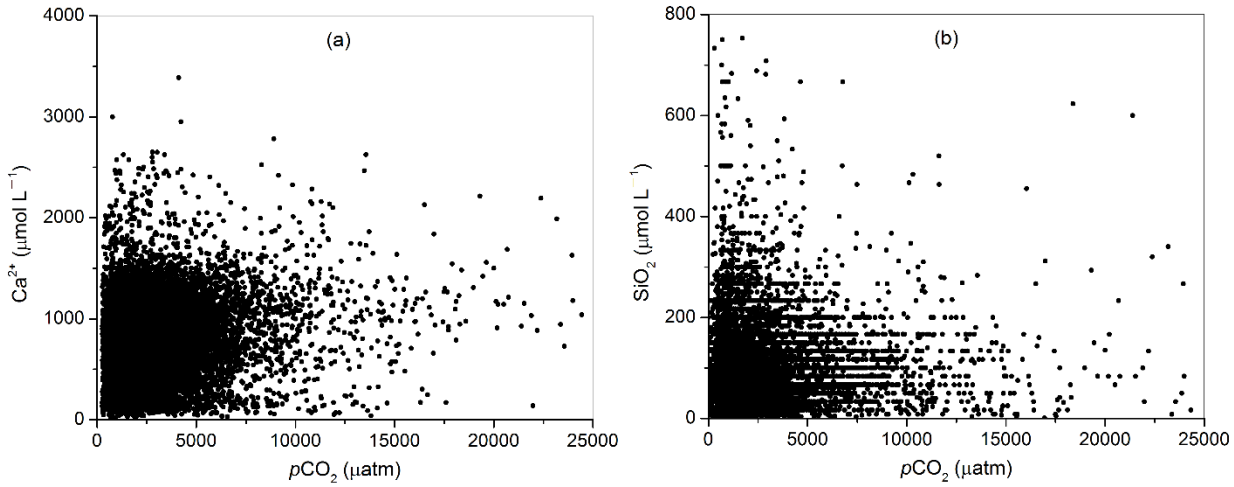
We thank you very much for your comments on our manuscript.

Lishan Ran and colleagues present an anaylsis of the spatial pattern in riverine pCO2 in Yangtze River basin which is representative for the time before increased anthropogenic presure by river damming operations and land-use change since the 1980's. They anaylse the correlations between Ca and Si concentrations vs pCO2 and alka-linity for different stations. They also report the long-term decrease in pCO2 and the seasonality in riverin pCO2 in the mainstem of the Yangtze river for that time. The study is, to my knowledge, novel and of interest for the scientific community. The subject would fit well within the scope of Biogeosciences. The MS is well written in most of it's parts. Methods are clearly described, figures and tables are informative. I just feel that a few more anaylsis could easily be done to make the whole study complete. That includes a more quantitaive analysis of environmental controls of the spatial patterns in riverine pCO2, which is the main subject of this paper (see major comment #1). I suggest publication after moderate revisions.

Major comment #1 One of the main objectives of the MS is to analyze the controls of the spatial patterns in riverine pCO2. This is mainly done quite coarsely by comparing catchments that are dominated by carbonate sedimentary rocks vs. catchments dominated by other lithologies. The MS features some plots of pCO2 vs. Si and Ca concentrations or discharge (Figs 5 and 6). However, these plots are made for distinct sampling locations and what is plotted are the different samples at this location. The differences between sampling locations are then discussed considering the different environmental characteristics of the catchments. In addition, in the MS, it is mentioned that these analyses have been done for plenty of sampling locations, but only a few examples are shown. And here I do not know why these examples have been chosen and in how far they are representative for the whole data set. I would like to encourage the authors to perform a more quantitative analysis of the spatial patterns in the riverine pCO2 and its environmental controls. They could plot the average pCO2 per sampling location vs. avg. concentrations of Ca and Si per sampling location (like Humborg et al., 2010 did for Sweden) or catchment properties like climate, lithology, terrain, land use, etc., (like Lauerwald et al., 2013, did for North America). Maybe they could perform these analysis separately for different stream orders.

Reply: Because the Yangtze River basin is predominantly covered with carbonate and siliciclastic sedimentary rocks (>80% of the catchment area; Figure 1), we selected the three typical catchments (Wujiang, Jialingjiang, and Ganjiang rivers) with contrasting lithologies to analyze the impact of rock weathering on DIC export and pCO_2. The Wujiang catchment is predominant with carbonate sedimentary rocks (83%) and the Ganjiang catchment with siliciclastic sedimentary rocks (65%), while the Jialingjiang catchment is in between the two rock types (Table 3). Based on your comment, we have further plotted pCO_2 against Ca^{2+} and dissolved Si for the entire set of measurements using all available data pairs in the hydrological yearbooks (Figure S1 in the Supplement). Because the Yangtze River basin is characterized by significant spatial heterogeneity of lithology with different sub-catchments having different rock types, there was no discernable correlation between pCO_2 and Ca^{2+} and SiO_2 at the whole catchment scale. This is likely because the inherent spatial heterogeneity in lithology has

obscured the signature of the pCO_2-Ca^{2+} and pCO_2-Si relationships. While both positive and negative relationships existed in typical sub-catchments with predominant carbonate or siliciclastic sediment rocks, such as the carbonate-dominated Wujiang catchment and the silicate-dominated Ganjiang catchment (Figure 6), these relationships may have counteracted each other when all data points were plotted together. Similarly, we did not detect significant pCO_2-Ca^{2+} and pCO_2-Si relationships for different stream orders. We have added these discussions into the manuscript and the figure into the supplement file. (lines 249-251; 367-371)



Relationship between (a) pCO_2 and Ca^{2+} and (b) pCO_2 and dissolved SiO_2 in the Yangtze River basin using all available data pairs.

General comments:

Abstract

L16: Here, and throughout the MS. The unit of alkalinity is unclear. I guess you mean μeq L-1. If you want to report alkalinity as molarity, then you will have to report it as molarity of e.g. the equivalent CaCO3. But it is more common to report alkalinity in μeq L-1.

Reply: Yes, we have checked the unit of alkalinity and confirmed that it is μeq L^{-1}. We have revised the unit of alkalinity (μeq L^{-1}) throughout the manuscript. Many thanks.

L18: 'controlled by terrestrial ecosystem'. I think you would have to be a bit more specific, like 'C inputs from terrestrial ecosystems'.

Reply: The statement has been revised to 'Changes of pCO_2 were collectively controlled by carbon inputs from terrestrial ecosystems,'. (lines 17-19)

L25: Maybe you should change 'riverine carbon' to 'riverine CO2' to be more specific and consistent with the title of the MS.

Reply: Changed.

Introduction

L46: Raymond et al and Lauerwald et al. have used the same data base: GloRiCh. However, while Raymond et al. used all the calculated pCO2 values, Lauerwald et al. used only the data

from 18% of the sampling locations which were selected based on a minimum number of CO2 values per sampling location.
Reply: Yes, while Raymond et al. (2013) and Lauerwald et al. (2015) have used the same database, Lauerwald et al. (2015) have used much less sampling locations (17.6% of the former). We have revised this statement 'While both studies have used the same hydrochemical database (GloRiCh), it should be noted that Raymond et al. (2013) used all the calculated pCO_2 values whereas Lauerwald et al. (2015) used only 18% of the sampling locations.' (lines 46-48)

L60-62: Is this mainly due to high soil erosion and export of particulate organic carbon? Please, clarify.
Reply: The high contribution of Asian rivers to global carbon flux is mainly the result of their strong soil erosion and associated particulate organic carbon export. For example, Asian rivers alone accounts for 40% of the total annual sediment discharge from land to sea (Schlünz and Schneider, 2000. International Journal of Earth Sciences, 88, 599-606). We have clarified this statement in the text 'Asian rivers are significant contributors to global carbon flux as a result of high soil erosion and particulate organic carbon export, accounting for 40% of the global carbon flux from land to sea (Schlünz and Schneider, 2000; Hope et al., 1994)'. (lines 62-65)

L80: Maybe add a 'the' before 'riverine carbon cycle'.
Reply: Added.

L92: 'Globally substantial' is a bit unclear to me. Maybe you could change this part of the sentence to something like 'its contribution to the global CO2 evasion from rivers is likely significant'.
Reply: This has been changed to 'its contribution to the global CO_2 evasion from rivers is likely significant'. Many thanks.

L93: Maybe change 'to refine global CO2 evasion' to 'to refine estimates of global CO2 evasion'.
Reply: Changed.

Methods and Materials
L101-104 and Fig.1: When you talk about sedimentary rocks being mainly composed of carbonates, you should use a term like 'carbonate sedimentary rocks'. 'Carbonate' is the name of a group of minerals, but here you talk about the rocks, more precisely about the lithology. Same is true for 'Silicates'. Silicates are a group of minerals. Igneous rocks also consist mainly of silicates. And metamorphic rocks can contain silicates and/or carbonates. So, I suggest you rename the lithology to 'siliciclastic sedimentary rocks'.
Reply: Based on your comment, we have renamed the lithology to 'carbonate sedimentary rocks' and 'siliciclastic sedimentary rocks' throughout the text and figures.

L134-137: The selection of samples with a pH >6.5 itself can introduce some bias for the overall picture of spatial patterns in pCO2 and total CO2 evasion from the river network, as some specific system might be completely excluded from the analyses. That might be inevitable, but should at some point be discussed. Here, it would be interesting how many samples have been discarded (as % of total), where the affected sampling locations are predominantly located (I see

that large parts of that river system have a rather high pH, in particular where carbonate rocks are abundant), and if there are sampling locations which had to be discarded because they only have such a low pH. Note that Raymond et al., 2013 and Lauerwald et al., 2015 chose a minimum pH of 5.4. Can you argue that for so low pH values the calculation of pCO2 might already have introduced a bias in their studies?

Reply: To minimize the impact of noncarbonated alkalinity such as organic acid anions (Abril et al., 2015; Hunt et al., 2011), we excluded the samples with pH<6.5 from analysis. As a result, 498 measurements were discarded, accounting for ~1% of the total number of measurements (48,307), and finally 47,809 measurements were retained. The affected sampling locations were predominantly located in the lower reach (Figure 1) where strong human activities and metropolitan cities may have substantially affected its water chemistry. No sampling station was excluded solely because it had pH<6.5 samples only. Because the pH in the Yangtze River basin is rather high as a result of extensive outcrops of carbonate rocks (96% of the pH values ranged from 7.3 to 8.3), the selection criterion of pH<6.5 was used to remove the samples significantly affected by pollution. While for the global-scale pCO_2 estimates by Raymond et al. (2013) and Lauerwald et al. (2015), the pH variability from global inland waters is much larger, and the minimum of pH of 5.4 appears to be reasonable. For example, the natural blackwater rivers in Amazon system and SE Asian tropical catchments have much a lower pH (e.g., pH<5; Müller et al., 2015. Biogeosciences, 12, 5967-5979; Richey et al., 2002. Nature). Although a bias is inevitable, the minimum of pH=5.4 can estimate the pCO_2 while constraining the uncertainty as much as possible. We have further discussed the selection of samples in the revised manuscript. (lines 139-142; 149-151)

L164: What is the conventional method? I see later that you used CO2SYS, Raymond et al., 2013 and Lauerwald et al., 2015 used PhreeqC. Would there be any systematic difference in calculated pCO2 using CO2SYS or PhreeqC? That could be answered maybe later in the discussion section.

Reply: Compared with direct pCO_2 measurement techniques, such as the headspace equilibration technique (e.g., Müller et al., 2015. *Biogeosciences*, 20, 5967-5979; Yoon et al., 2016. *Biogeosciences*, 13, 3915-3930), here the conventional method refers to the method of using pH, alkalinity, and water temperature to calculate pCO_2. We have previously compared the two methods (CO2SYS and PHREEQC) in the Yellow River. The pCO_2 derived by CO2SYS was very close to that returned by PHREEQC program (<3% differences, Ran et al., 2015. *Biogeosciences*, 12, 921-932). While in the Yangtze River, our comparative analysis between CO2SYS and direct pCO_2 measurement shows a ~8% difference with the CO2SYS-based method overestimating by 8% (Liu et al., 2016. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*. 30, 880-897). We have added this discussion into the manuscript. (lines 268-271)

L164-168: For what do you need the concentration of bicarbonates? Please, clarify.

Reply: Here we tried to emphasize the species contributing to alkalinity in the Yangtze River waters. Bicarbonates (HCO_3^-) dominate the alkalinity, accounting for 96%. Our recent DOC sampling analysis also suggests that the DOC in the Yangtze River is relatively low (<250 μM; Liu et al., 2016. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*. 30, 880-897). Therefore, the impact of organic acids on the alkalinity-based pCO_2 calculation is predicted to be small. We have revised these statements in the manuscript for clarity. (lines 171-175)

Results L179-180: Maybe change to ‘relatively lower’ to ‘relatively low’.
Reply: Changed.

L182-186: Like I mentioned in the abstract, you should report your alkalinity in µeq L-1.
Reply: We have revised the alkalinity in µeq L^{-1} through the text.

L193-195: If you consider the downstream decrease in pCO2 from headwaters to the lower reach of the main river, which you highlighted in the abstract, this method does not make much sense at this scale, because you ignore the stream orders of the sampled river reaches. It would make more sense if you would only interpolate the pCO2 of small headwater rivers.
Reply: Based on your comment, we have selected the sampling stations located in small headwater rivers (~260 stations) and performed the Kriging interpolation to present the spatial pattern of pCO_2. The stations located on major tributaries and the mainstem channel were removed from the interpolation. Without the impact of mainstem stations (usually lower pCO_2 values), the modeled pCO_2 exhibited stronger spatial variability due to closer contact with the land ecosystems (449-453 µatm; Figure 3).

L228-232: I think you are talking about lithology rather than mineralogy. See my comment in method section.
Reply: Yes, here it refers to lithology, and relevant terms have been revised accordingly. Thanks.

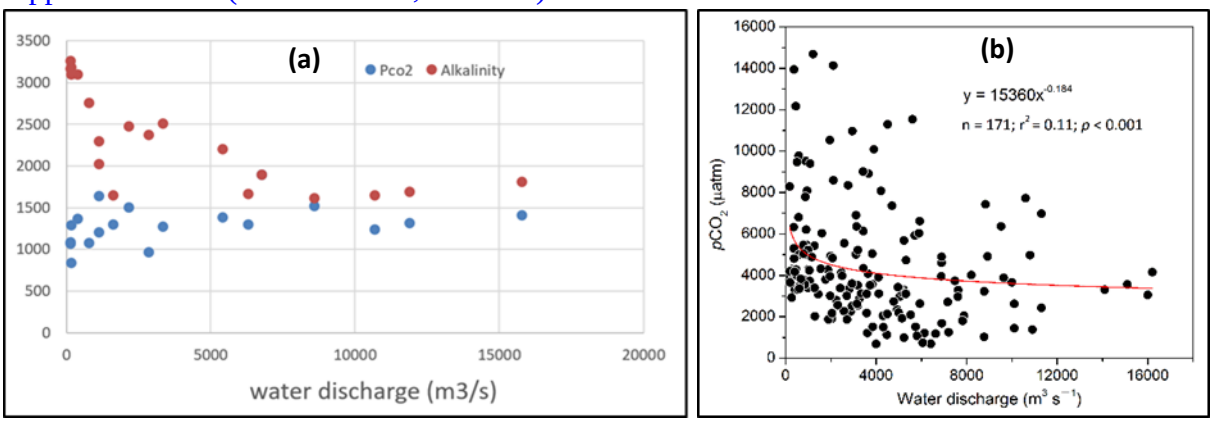
L232-240: When you plot Ca or SiO2 concentrations against pCO2 per sample for distinct stations separately, then these Ca and SiO2 concentrations would represent tracers for the relative contribution of ground water inputs, which are diluted by the contributions of surface runoff (+shallow sub-surface runoff). SiO2 is likely the better tracer, because it is less reactive then Ca (which can be subject to carbonate precipitation and adsorption in the soil). Maybe you could discuss these plots a bit along those lines.
Reply: Based on your comment, we have discussed the correlation between pCO_2 and Ca and SiO_2 in the Discussion section. Please refer to the responses to L296-316 below. Thanks.

Discussion
L267-276: If you exclude stream and rivers with low pH for methodological reasons, then you will systematically exclude some natural systems and have a biased estimated for the whole river network (Wallin et al. 2014, GBC). You should discuss that here as well. If you exclude form one sampling location that has pH values higher and lower 6.5, and exclude all the lower values, then you would get a biased average pCO2 at that station, in particular if you assume high pCO2 to coincide with low pH.
Reply: Just as what Wallin et al. (2014) concluded, excluding the measurements with pH<6.5 values from analysis may have generated biased estimates of pCO_2 for the whole river network in general and some natural rivers with low pH values in particular. Considering the potential impact from human activities within the Yangtze River watershed, we removed 498 measurements from analysis, accounting for only ~1% of the total number of measurements (48,307). In addition, the used pH varied from 6.5 to 9.2 with ~96% of the pH measurements ranging from 7.3 to 8.3 (Tables 2 and S1). Thus, we concluded that the calculated pCO_2 is reasonable and can be used for further CO_2 evasion estimation. We have inserted these

justifications into the revised manuscript. In addition, we have also compiled station-based pCO_2 in the Supplement (Table S1). (lines 139-142; 149-151; 280-284; 286-289)

L296-316: Following my comment on L232-240, you could discuss the SiO2 vs pCO2 plots in Fig 6 as indication of higher CO2 concentration in ground water in Wusheng and Xiajiang catchment. For these two catchments, do you have a negative correlation between discharge and pCO2? That would be consistent with the assumption that SiO2 is a tracer for baseflow contribution vs. dilution by surface runoff. Then, these two catchments would show a different discharge-pCO2 relation than the Yunxian station. If that's the case, it would be interesting to discuss the differences. Are there riparian wetlands present upstream of Yunxian? See e.g. Teodoru et al., 2015, Biogeosciences.

Reply: We have further plotted the relationship between water discharge and pCO_2 at Wusheng (Jialingjiang catchment) and Xiajiang (Ganjiang catchment) stations (please see the figures below). Because there is only 1-year long record of discharge at Wusheng station (18 measurements in 1983), the relationship between discharge and pCO_2 is not as significant as that at Xiajiang station. However, the significant negative correlation between water discharge and concomitant alkalinity clearly indicates a dilution effect of surface runoff in the wet season. Just as what you expected, in the Ganjiang catchment (Xiajiang station) with dominant lithology being siliciclastic sedimentary rocks (Table 3), there is a significant negative correlation between discharge and pCO_2. This relationship is different from that observed at Yunxian station in Hanjiang catchment (Figure 5d), suggesting that SiO_2 in the Ganjiang catchment is a tracer for baseflow contribution to pCO_2. While in Hanjiang catchment (Yunxian station), because of the impoundment of Danjiangkou Reservoir and other smaller reservoirs, there are plenty of newly-formed floodplains and wetlands along the river and within the catchment (*Liu et al.*, 2011. Soil, Air, Water, 39, 109-115). Its positive response of pCO_2 to discharge indicates the importance of enhanced connectivity between river and wetlands/floodplains on river biogeochemistry, especially during wet seasons. In comparison, the deceasing pCO_2 at Xiajiang station with discharge is indicative of the impact of groundwater input on riverine carbon dynamics (Figs. S2 and 6f). We have added these discussion and justifications into the revised manuscript and Supplement files. (lines 324-328; 359-366)



Relationship between water discharge and pCO_2 at (a) Wusheng (Jialingjiang catchment) and (b) Xiajiang (Ganjiang catchment) stations.

L311-316: Another potential explanation is the large catchment implying a long traveling time of soil derived carbon, maybe combined with the absence of riparian wetlands around the main

stem (if that is the case?). Then, direct inputs of CO2 from soil respiration and inputs of labile DOC from adjacent soils and vegetation would be relatively low. And higher inputs far upstream might have already been lost to the atmosphere.
Reply: Many thanks for your comment. Because the mainstem channel is mainly confined to the river channel except the segments closely connected to the three lakes (see their locations in Fig. 1a), direct inputs of CO_2 from soil respiration and from labile DOC decomposition from adjacent soils/vegetation is relatively low. The average travel time in the Yangtze River mainstem channel is 3-5 months. Associated with much strong CO_2 evasion in low-order turbulent tributaries, the long travel time may have also contributed to the stable pCO_2 in the mainstem. We have added these potential explanations into the manuscript. (lines 328-337)

L325-329: I do not really understand that, sorry. Could you please explain that argument in a bit more detail?
Reply: We have further explained the argument: The negative correlation in Fig. 6a is contradictory to the common belief that carbonate dissolution will likely cause an elevated pCO_2 (Marcé et al., 2015; Teodoru et al., 2015). Given the strong correlation between Ca^{2+} and alkalinity, the decreasing pCO_2 with increasing Ca^{2+} is probably due to pH variability that may have offset the impact of weathering-induced DIC inputs in controlling pCO_2 (Fig. S1 in the Supplement). A slight pH increase would result in a reduced pCO2 as this calculation method is sensitive to pH fluctuations (Laruelle et al., 2013). We have also added two more references to justify the argument and two figures in the Supplement for clarity (Figure S2). (lines 347-352)

L325-334: Humborg et al., 2010 (also cited in your paper) also looked at correlations between Ca2+ and SiO2 vs pCO2. Maybe it would be good to discuss your findings with that of Humborg et al., 2010.
Reply: Humborg et al. (2010) analyzed the contributions of terrestrial respiration, chemical weathering, and aquatic respiration to pCO_2 in Sweden rivers and lakes. Based on your comment, we have further compared our findings with that of Humborg et al. (2010). Because weathering products are typical for groundwater input, the positive correlation between pCO_2 and dissolved Si suggests that riverine pCO_2 has a strong groundwater signature. Particularly, we analyzed the correlation between pCO_2 and dissolved Si in the dry season when groundwater is the major contributor to river runoff. The result shows that in the dry season SiO_2 can explain ~25% of the pCO_2 variability in the sub-catchments covered mainly with siliciclastic sediment rocks, comparable to the results by Humborg et al. (2010) in Sweden. (lines 347-352; 359-366)

L345: Here, I stumbled over the term ‘heterotrophic ecosystem’. Maybe you should rephrase it to ‘more pronounced net-heterotrophy’, or something similar.
Reply: We have replaced the term by ‘more pronounced net-heterotrophy’.

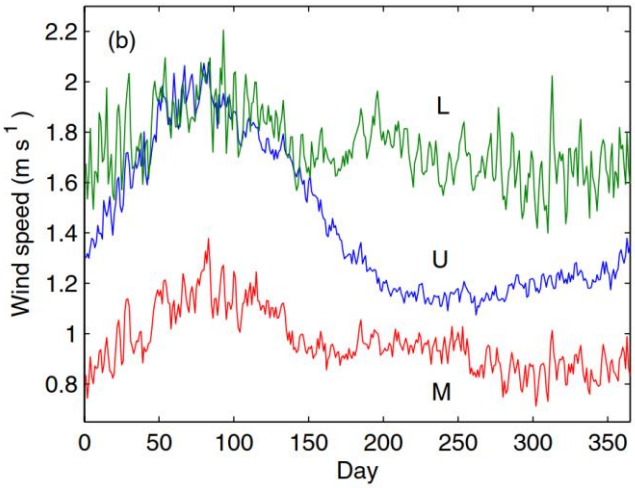
L361: Do you mean ‘km-3 yr-1’, i.e. mass per year instead of area per year?
Reply: The correct unit for soil erosion should be t km^{-2} yr^{-1} (mass per unit area per year). We have corrected the unit. Thanks.

L363-365: Did soil respiration increase in response to soil erosion?
Reply: Because of the high soil erosion rate (2167 t/km^2/yr), huge amounts of organic carbon is discharged into the river network. The availability of organic carbon during fluvial delivery

would enhance decomposition of organic carbon and the production of CO_2. We have revised this justification in the revised manuscript 'decomposition of the terrestrial-origin organic carbon has resulted in the CO_2 excess in the headwater streams (Li et al., 2012)'. (lines 400-401)

L368-370: If floodplains would be present, you would also have a positive correlation of discharge vs pCO2 in the main channel (see Mayorga et al., 2005, and Richey et al., 2002, Nature and maybe also Teodoru et al., 2015, Biogeosciences, see comment on L296-316).
Reply: Yes, presence of floodplains and the enhanced connectivity between river and floodplains will cause a positive correlation between pCO_2 and water discharge as observed at Yunxian station in Hanjiang catchment. Because of the construction of Danjiangkou Reservoir (storage; 17.5 km^3) and other smaller reservoirs, there are widespread presence of wetlands and floodplains along the river channel. The observed positive relationship at Yunxian (Fig. 5d) reflected the importance of wetland/floodplains in affecting pCO_2. This discussion has been added into the manuscript. Thanks. (lines 324-328)

L375-378: For the Amazon, Richey et al. (2002, Nature) assumes higher gas exchange velocities from large, open rivers due to wind effects. Similarly, the gas exchange velocity reported by Alin et al., 2011 for the Amazon and the Mekong basins are not generally lower for the main channel, which offers a long fetch for the wind, while smaller tributaries are more protected against wind. But these are low gradient systems (low relief). It might be different if the main control on gas exchange velocities would be the channel slope (see Raymond et al., 2012, Limnology and Oceanography). But also for larger rivers in the US it was found that gas exchange velocities were rather high and to a substantial proportion supported by wind (e.g. Beaulieu et al., 2012, JGR).
Reply: High gas transfer velocities were observed in large, open rivers in Amazon and Mekong river catchments (Richey et al., 2002; Alin et al., 2011). These studies are performed on the mainstem channel and primary tributaries where flow velocity is generally lower than the lower-order upstream rivers and streams due to gentler channel slopes. Therefore, wind speed appears to be the predominant factor affecting gas transfer as in lake and reservoir settings. In comparison, the gas transfer velocity in lower-order streams is more controlled by channel slope and thus flow velocity (Borges et al., 2015. Nat Geoscience; Butman and Raymond, 2011. Nature Geoscience; Raymond et al., 2012. Limnology and Oceanography). The Yangtze River basin typically has a low wind speed (<2 m/s; see the figure below, adapted from Gong et al., 2006. Journal of Hydrology, 329, 620-629), lower than the measurements obtained by Alin et al. (2011), while its flow velocity varying from 0.3 to 2.3 m/s with low values mostly observed in the mainstem channel is significantly higher than that reported by Beaulieu et al. (2012) (i.e., 0-0.8 m/s). Therefore, the gas transfer velocity on the mainstem is likely lower than in the steep lower-order streams, and the CO_2 efflux from the mainstem water surface is also likely lower.



Mean daily variations of wind speed in the upper (U), middle (M) and lower reaches (L) of the Yangtze River basin. Adapted from Gong et al. (2006).

L384-385: Here you could also cite Butman and Raymond, 2011, Nat Geosc.
Reply: This reference has been added into the text to enhance the justification.

Conclusion
L426-431: That is not the conclusion of this study but a repetition from the introduction. In the conclusion, you should simply summarize your results in order to answer the main research questions that you have worked out in the introduction.
Reply: Based on your comment, we have removed the repetition sentences and summarized the results from this study.

L429-437: Here you should explain how the riverine pCO2 3 to 5 decades before today can be important for refining estimates of CO2 evasion. I guess someone estimating CO2 evasion would do it for the most recent period. Will you use these estimates in a future study to compare it to a more recent state of this system, in order to quantify the anthropogenic perturbation of the river-atmosphere CO2 fluxes due to damming and land-use change. That would be an important outlook.
Reply: Extensive and intensive human disturbances, mainly damming and land-use change, have occurred within the catchment in the most recent decades (since the 1990s). Our next step is to estimate CO_2 emissions across the water-air interface from this river network by using the computed pCO_2 in this study. Comparing the CO_2 evasion before large-scale human impacts with recent evasion estimates will allow us to quantify anthropogenic perturbations of the river-atmosphere CO_2 fluxes. Although a catchment-scale CO_2 evasion estimate remains unknown, there are a few studies on the mainstem or on sub-catchments (e.g., Li et al., 2012. Journal of Hydrology, 466-467, 141-150; Liu et al., 2016. Global Biogeochemical Cycles, 30, 880-897). We have revised the statement to 'Given the extensive and intensive human disturbances within the watershed since the 1990s, special attention must be paid to the resulting changes to riverine pCO_2 and CO_2 evasion. A comparative analysis involving CO_2 evasion before large-scale human impacts and recent evasion estimates (e.g., Li et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016) will be able to examine the anthropogenic perturbations of the river-atmosphere CO_2 fluxes due to damming and land-use change'. Many thanks for your comments. (lines 487-492)

Dear reviewer,

We thank you very much for your comments on our manuscript.

This manuscript detailing long-term patterns of pCO2 and alkalinity in the Yangtze River is generally well-written and includes strong methodology and data. The work will be of general interest as the authors have clearly shown the relevance of this carbon component in the framework of the larger carbon cycle. My main concern with this manuscript is the overly broad interpretations of underlying processes. The very simple correlations between water chemistry and discharge with alkalinity and pCO2 certainly point towards specific processes, but the authors do not dig too deeply into these relationships. Therefore, many of the conclusions, and a fair bit of the discussion is overly speculative. I would like to see a more formal set of questions and hypotheses that could be evaluated with the data available. I believe further evaluations and rationale will be needed to sort out the interesting pattern of stable pCO2 across a range of discharges in the mainstem (Figure 5b). The discussion of in-stream processes vs. tributary dilution and terrestrial CO2 sources is at present too speculative (lines 295-316).

Reply: Based on your comments, we have further analyzed the underlying processes controlling riverine pCO_2 changes in the Yangtze River watershed. In addition to the discussion based on the three typical sub-catchments with contrasting lithologic features (i.e., Wujiang, Jialingjiang, and Ganjiang catchments), we have also examined the relationships between pCO_2 and representative water chemistry variables (e.g., Ca^{2+} and SiO_2) at the entire watershed scale (Fig. S1 in the Supplement). The indiscernible pCO_2-Ca^{2+} and pCO_2-SiO_2 relationship for the entire watershed may be attributed to the spatial heterogeneity in lithology that has obscured the signature. While both positive and negative relationships existed in sub-catchments with predominant carbonate or siliciclastic sediment rocks (Figs. 6 and S3), these relationships may have counteracted each other when all data points were plotted together. For the pCO_2 changes in the mainstem channel (Fig. 5b), it is likely because the increased dissolved CO_2 inputs by soil organic matter decomposition from one region has been counteracted by low pCO_2 waters derived from other regions. This is highly possible given its heterogeneous catchment settings in terms of vegetation cover, soil type, and rainfall intensity. Furthermore, the large catchment implies a long travel time of land-derived organic carbon during fluvial delivery (3-5 months). Coupled with limited floodplains along the mainstem channel (please refer to lines 407-407), direct inputs of CO_2 from soil respiration would be relatively low whereas strong CO_2 evasion in lower-order turbulent tributaries might have already exhausted dissolved CO_2. Moreover, the mainstem rivers are generally characterized by comparatively low gas transfer velocities due to weakened turbulence and mixing with benthic substrates (Butman and Raymond, 2011; Borges et al., 2015), which can effectively inhibit CO_2 degassing and therefore maintain the balance. An example is the Yangtze estuary that presents considerably low CO_2 evasion fluxes of 16-34 mol m^{-2} yr^{-1}, despite its significantly higher riverine pCO_2 than the overlying atmosphere (Zhai et al., 2007. Marine Chemistry,107, 342-356). Thus, its pCO_2 dynamics appeared to be independent of hydrograph. Clearly, this stable pCO_2 regardless of water discharge changes is different from that in tributaries. (please refer to lines 328-337)

Moreover, we further conducted a comparative analysis regarding the differences in pCO_2 among sub-catchments by relating to their hydrological connectivity, flow regime and CO_2 sources,

including in-stream processing, terrestrial CO_2 sources, and dilution in wet seasons. In addition to the Hanjiang (Figs. 5c and 5d), we plotted the relationship between water discharge and pCO_2 at Wusheng (Jialingjiang catchment) and Xiajiang (Ganjiang catchment) stations (please see Figure A below) to analyze the underlying processes controlling pCO_2. Because there is only 1-year long record of discharge at Wusheng station (18 measurements in 1983), the relationship between discharge and pCO_2 is not as significant as that at Xiajiang station. However, the significant negative correlation between water discharge and concomitant alkalinity clearly indicates a dilution effect of surface runoff in the wet season. For the Ganjiang catchment (Xiajiang station) with dominant lithology being siliciclastic sedimentary rocks (Table 3 in the manuscript), there is a significant negative correlation between discharge and pCO_2 (please refer to Figure A_b below, also included in the Supplement (Fig. S3)). This relationship is different from that observed at Yunxian station in Hanjiang catchment (Fig. 5d), suggesting that SiO_2 in the Ganjiang catchment is a tracer for baseflow contribution to pCO_2. The deceasing pCO_2 at Xiajiang station with discharge is indicative of the impact of groundwater input on riverine carbon dynamics (Figs. S2 and 6f). We have added these discussion and justifications into the revised manuscript and Supplement files. (lines 324-328; 359-366)

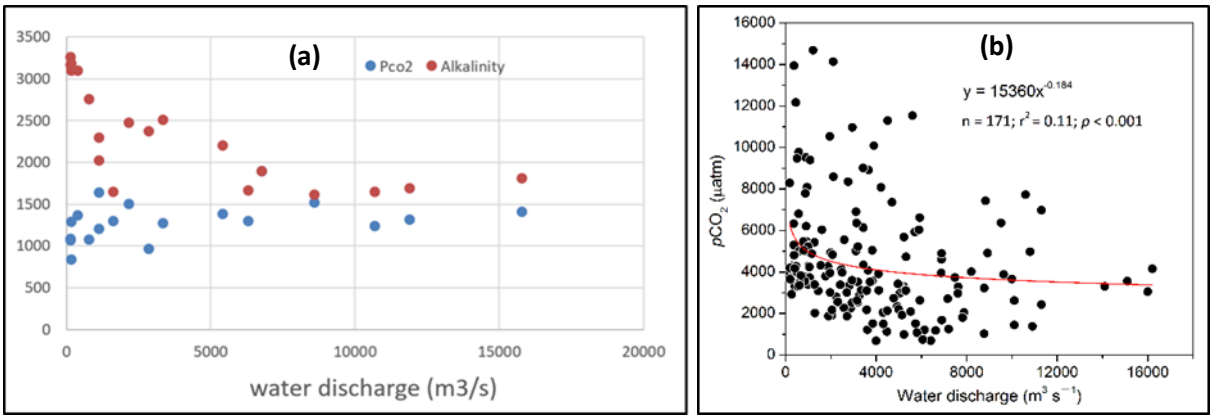


Figure A: Relationship between pCO_2 and water discharge at (a) Wusheng (Jialingjiang catchment) and (b) Xiajiang (Ganjiang catchment) stations.

With respect to the impact of hydrologic connectivity, presence of wetlands and floodplains affects river biogeochemistry (Teodoru et al., 2015. Biogeosciences, 12, 2431-2453). For example, because of the impoundment of Danjiangkou Reservoir and other smaller reservoirs, there are plenty of newly-formed floodplains and wetlands along the river and within the Hanjiang catchment (*Liu et al.*, 2011. Soil, Air, Water, 39, 109-115). The observed positive response of pCO_2 to discharge at Yunxian station indicates the importance of enhanced connectivity between river and wetlands/floodplains on river biogeochemistry, especially during wet seasons (Fig. 5d). That is, the enhanced connectivity between river and wetlands/floodplains along aquatic continuum, especially during wet seasons, has maintained the high pCO_2 levels (Fig. 5d), as has been observed by Abril et al. (2014. Nature, 505, 395-398) in the Amazon River. A comparative analysis between Hanjiang and Ganjiang catchments suggests the differences in underlying processes influencing riverine pCO_2. Particularly, in dry seasons with groundwater dominating the runoff, SiO_2 serves as a good tracer of groundwater inputs and can explain ~25% of the pCO_2 variability in sub-catchments covered mainly with siliciclastic sediment rocks, such

as the Ganjiang catchment (see Figure B below). This is comparable to the results by Humborg et al. (2010) in Sweden. (lines 359-366).

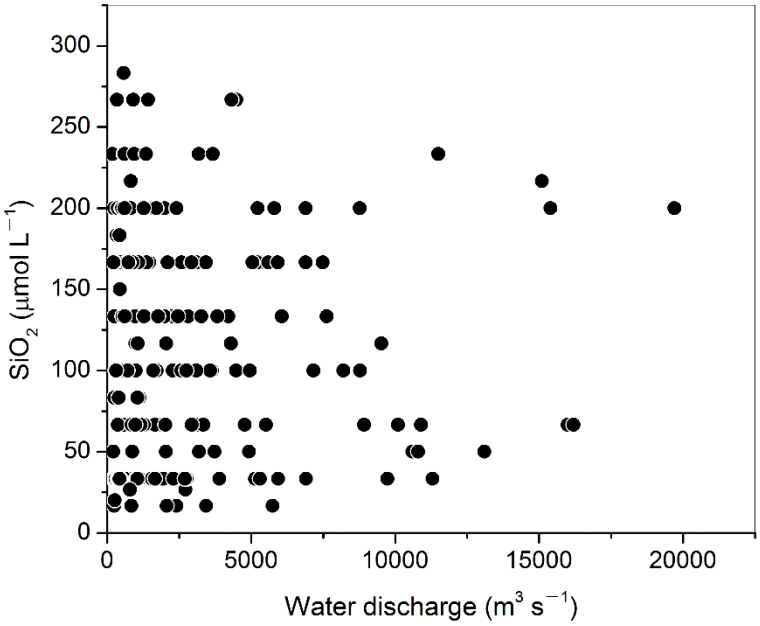


Figure B: Correlation between water discharge and dissolved SiO_2 at Xiajiang station (Ganjiang catchment) with high SiO_2 concentrations (e.g., >200 μmol L^{-1}) primarily observed in low flow periods (dry seasons).

Overall, we have further investigated the underlying processes affecting riverine pCO_2 within the Yangtze River basin by more systematically exploring the relationships between pCO_2 and various environmental variables. These discussions have been added into the revised manuscript or supplement, and related references have also been added to justify our arguments. In addition, to make the computed pCO_2 data be accessible to the public for global-scale CO_2 evasion estimate, we have also summarized the 339 station-based pCO_2 in the Supplement (Table S1). Major changes and additions have been highlighted in the revised version of the manuscript. Thanks again for your constructive comments.

Dynamics of riverine CO_2 in the Yangtze River fluvial network and their implications for carbon evasion

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Abstract: Understanding riverine carbon dynamics is critical for not only better estimates of various carbon fluxes but also evaluating their significance in the global carbon budget. As an important pathway of global land-ocean carbon exchange, the Yangtze River has received less attention regarding its vertical carbon evasion compared with lateral transport. Using long-term water chemistry data, we calculated CO_2 partial pressure (pCO_2) from pH and alkalinity and examined its spatial and temporal dynamics and the impacts of environmental settings. With alkalinity ranging from 415 to >3400 μeq L^{-1}, the river waters were supersaturated with dissolved CO_2, generally 2–20 folds the atmospheric equilibrium (i.e., 390 μatm). Changes of pCO_2 were collectively controlled by carbon inputs from terrestrial ecosystems, hydrological regime, and rock weathering. High pCO_2 values were observed spatially in catchments with abundant carbonate presence and seasonally in the wet season when recent-fixed organic matter was exported into the river network. In-stream processing of organic matter facilitated CO_2 production and sustained the high pCO_2, although the alkalinity presented an apparent dilution effect with water discharge. The decreasing pCO_2 from the smallest headwater streams through tributaries to the mainstem channel illustrates the significance of direct terrestrial carbon inputs in controlling riverine CO_2. With a basin-wide mean pCO_2 of 2662±1240 μatm, substantial CO_2

evasion from the Yangtze River fluvial network is expected. Future research efforts are needed to quantify the amount of CO_2 evasion and assess its biogeochemical implications for watershed-scale carbon cycle. In view of the Yangtze River's relative importance in global carbon export, its CO_2 evasion would be significant for global carbon budget.

Keywords: CO_2 partial pressure (pCO_2); riverine carbon cycle; spatial and temporal patterns; CO_2 evasion; Yangtze River

1. Introduction

Inland waters, including rivers, streams, lakes, wetland, and reservoirs, have recently been recognized as active components of the global carbon (C) cycle, transporting, storing, and processing huge amounts of terrestrially-derived carbon (Aufdenkampe et al., 2011;Cole et al., 2007;Raymond et al., 2013;Richey et al., 2002;Weyhenmeyer et al., 2015;Borges et al., 2015). With a higher CO_2 partial pressure (pCO_2) than the atmospheric equilibrium (i.e., 390 μatm), inland waters are mostly net carbon sources to the atmosphere. Published studies show that the annually degassed CO_2 from inland waters is estimated to almost entirely compensate the total annual carbon uptake by ocean systems (Wanninkhof et al., 2013;Regnier et al., 2013). Global estimates of CO_2 evasion from rivers and streams range from 0.56 to 1.8 PgC yr^{-1} (Aufdenkampe et al., 2011;Raymond et al., 2013;Lauerwald et al., 2015). It is apparent that these results vary considerably and are associated with great uncertainties. The most recent estimate of 0.65 PgC yr^{-1} by Lauerwald et al. (2015) accounts for only 36% of the efflux estimated by Raymond et al. (2013). While both studies have used the same hydrochemical database (GloRiCh), it should be

noted that Raymond et al. (2013) used all the calculated pCO_2 values whereas Lauerwald et al. (2015) used only 18% of the sampling locations. Among the numerous factors contributing to current CO_2 evasion uncertainties, a principal reason is the absence of a spatially explicit pCO_2 data set that covers the full spectrum of the global river and stream network.

Existing global maps of CO_2 evasion from fluvial network are typically generated on the basis of incomplete spatial coverage of pCO_2, in which Asian rivers are heavily underrepresented (e.g., Aufdenkampe et al., 2011; Battin et al., 2009; Lauerwald et al., 2015; Raymond et al., 2013). Due to lack of direct *in situ* measurements, simplified extrapolation is normally used to predict pCO_2 in and CO_2 evasion from Asian river systems. Consequently, the estimation accuracy is problematic and even erroneous. For example, for the Yellow River in East Asia, while the calculated pCO_2 from river water chemistry is 2800 μatm (Ran et al., 2015a), the modeled pCO_2 by Lauerwald et al. (2015) is 30% lower (i.e., <2000 μatm). A much lower estimate of <700 μatm can be derived from the pCO_2 map produced in Raymond et al. (2013). Such great discrepancies are largely because riverine pCO_2 is highly site-specific and affected by a wide range of environmental factors (e.g., Abril et al. 2015; Teodoru et a., 2015). Asian rivers are significant contributors to global carbon flux as a result of high soil erosion and particulate organic carbon export, accounting for 40% of the global carbon flux from land to sea (Schlünz and Schneider, 2000;Hope et al., 1994). Estimating the amount of CO_2 degassed from Asian rivers is critical for global CO_2 evasion assessments. Recent work in Mekong and Yellow rivers has demonstrated high pCO_2 and CO_2 effluxes (Alin et al., 2011;Ran et al., 2015b), further

highlighting the necessity of incorporating the currently underrepresented Asian rivers into global carbon budget assessments.

As an important carbon contributor to the West Pacific Ocean, the Yangtze River has received widespread attention in fluvial carbon export at various spatial and temporal scales. Studies of flux estimates of different carbon species date back to the early 1980s (Cauwet and Mackenzie, 1993;Gan et al., 1983;Milliman et al., 1984;Wang et al., 2012;Zhang et al., 2014;Ittekkot, 1988). Intensive observations covering seasonal variability show that the Yangtze River transports approximately 20 Mt of C per year into the oceans (Wu et al., 2007;Bao et al., 2015). Contrary to the long history of lateral export measurements, however, few studies have examined the vertical carbon exchange between the river system and the atmosphere (Li et al., 2012;Zhao et al., 2013;Chen et al., 2008). This is by nature largely due to the differences in sampling strategy. Unlike the lateral export that only involves measurements on the mainstem or at specific sites near the river mouth, quantifying basin-wide CO_2 evasion requires a spatially explicit pCO_2 data set encompassing the entire fluvial network. Any attempts of using limited local measurements to up-scale to the watershed scale are challenging and subject to large uncertainties. This has impacted the understanding of the riverine carbon cycle within the Yangtze River watershed as well as its links to the atmosphere and ocean systems.

By using long-term water chemistry data measured in the Yangtze River watershed, we calculated the riverine pCO_2 from pH and alkalinity. In combination with hydrologic and

lithologic information, the objectives of this study were to 1) investigate the spatial and temporal patterns of pCO_2 under 'natural' processes before significant human perturbations, mainly dam impoundment and land-use change since the 1990s; 2) to explore the couplings between pCO_2 and environmental settings by investigating environmental and geomorphologic controls. Based on the obtained pCO_2, we further evaluated its biogeochemical implications for CO_2 evasion. In view of the Yangtze River's role in global fluvial export of water, sediment, and carbon (Syvitski et al., 2005;Wang et al., 2012), its contribution to the global CO_2 evasion from river systems is likely significant. This pCO_2 database is thus helpful to examine the spatial distribution of global riverine pCO_2 and to refine estimates of global CO_2 evasion.

2. Material and methods

2.1 The Yangtze River basin

With a length of 6380 km, the Yangtze River is the longest river in China and the third longest in the world. The river originates on the Tibetan Plateau and flows eastward through the Sichuan Basin and the Middle-Lower Reach Plains, before emptying into the East China Sea (Fig. 1a). Its drainage area is 1.81 million km^2. The Yangtze River basin is mainly overlain by sedimentary rocks that are composed of marine carbonates, evaporites, and continental deposits. Carbonate sedimentary rocks are widely distributed within the watershed and are particularly abundant in the Wujiang, Yuanjiang, and Hanjiang tributary catchments (Fig. 1b). Siliciclastic sedimentary rocks are also widely present in the basin while metamorphic rocks are mainly scattered in the middle-lower reach (Fig. 1b). The Yangtze River is joined by a number of large tributaries,

including the Yalongjiang, Daduhe, Minjiang, Jialingjiang, Wujiang, Yuanjiang, Xiangjiang, Hanjiang, and Ganjiang rivers (Fig. 1a).

Figure 1

Except the headwater region characterized by high elevation and cold climate (annual mean temperature <4°C), the remaining watershed is affected by subtropical monsoons with the annual mean temperature in the middle-lower reach varying from 16 to 18 °C (Chen et al., 2002). Rainfall is the major source of water discharge, whereas snowfall supply is only significant in the ice-covered upstream mountainous areas. With a mean precipitation of 1100 mm yr^{-1}, the precipitation is spatially highly variable, decreasing from 1644 mm yr^{-1} in the lower reach, to 1396 mm yr^{-1} in the middle reach, and 435 mm yr^{-1} in the upper reach (Chetelat et al., 2008). Approximately 60% of the annual precipitation falls during the wet season from June to September. Affected by summer monsoons, the wet season generally occurs earlier in the middle and lower reaches than in the inland upper reach. Water discharge from the upper to the lower reach presents a strong seasonal variability (Fig. 2). Monthly peak discharge occurs in July and can be 5–7 times greater than the lowest discharge in the dry season (October to May). The mean discharge at Datong station is 28,200 $m^3 s^{-1}$ (see its location in Fig. 3b), and consequently the Yangtze River annually discharges 889 km^3 of water into the ocean (Yang et al., 2002).

Figure 2

2.2 Water chemistry data

Concentrations of alkalinity, major ions, and dissolved silica measured at 359 stations in the Yangtze River watershed (Fig. 1a) during the period 1960s–1985 were retrieved from the

Hydrological Yearbooks, which were yearly produced by the Yangtze River Conservancy Commission (YRCC) for internal use. Concomitant environmental variables measured at each sampling event, including pH, water temperature, and discharge, were also extracted from the yearbooks. The water samples for pH and temperature measurement were taken in the same period as these for ion analysis. The sampling frequency ranged from 1 to 14 times per month depending on flow conditions. While sampling at some stations during 1966–1975 was less frequent, ~80% of the 359 stations have been continuously sampled for at least 10 years, starting from the early 1970s. To avoid severe river pollution by human activity, only the samples collected prior to 1985 were used. In addition, samples with a pH lower than 6.5 were manually discarded (498 measurements; predominantly in the lower reach) because the calculated pCO_2 would be greatly biased due to contributions of noncarbonated alkalinity such as organic acid anions (Abril et al., 2015;Hunt et al., 2011). Because reservoir trapping and increased water residence time can remarkably alter the physical and biogeochemical properties of running water (Kemenes et al., 2011;Barros et al., 2011), the stations located inside or shortly below reservoirs were also intentionally removed. Given the tidal influences, mainstem stations downstream of Datong, 626 km inland from the coast, were also excluded, as were the stations in the delta region that were affected either by tides or by intersections with other rivers via artificial canals. Based on these selection criteria, 339 stations, including 13 mainstem stations and 326 tributary stations, were retained and 47,809 water chemistry measurements in total were compiled. The discarded samples owing to pH<6.5 accounted for approximately 1% of the considered measurements. No sampling station was excluded solely because it had pH<6.5 samples only.

Chemical analyses of water samples were performed under the authority of YRCC following the standard procedures and protocols described by Alekin et al. (1973) and the American Public Health Association (1985). While pH and temperature were measured in the field, the alkalinity was determined by acid titration. Detailed sampling and analysis procedures were presented in Chen et al. (2002). One important issue regarding historical records is data reliability. No assessment reports on quality assurance and quality control are available in the hydrological yearbooks. An effective evaluation approach is to compare the hydro-chemical differences for samples collected at the same station but by different agencies. The Wuhan station on the Yangtze mainstem has also been monitored under the United Nations GEMS/Water Programme since 1980 (only yearly means available at http://www.unep.org/gemswater). The pH value from the yearbooks agreed well with that measured by the GEMS/Water Programme with <1.8% differences, while the alkalinity discrepancy between the two data sets is larger (Table 1). The yearbooks report a slightly higher alkalinity than the GEMS/Water Programme results by 7.6–13.9%, indicating that the yearbook reports are reliable for pCO_2 calculation. High data quality of the yearbook reports can also be validated from comparison of major dissolved elements measured by the two agencies at Wuhan station (see Chen et al., 2002).

Table 1

2.3 Calculation of pCO_2

The conventional method of calculating pCO_2 from pH and alkalinity was used. With ~90% of the pH values ranging from 7.1 to 8.3 suggestive of natural process for the Yangtze River,

bicarbonates were assumed equivalent to alkalinity (Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003), accounting for 96% of the total alkalinity. As a result of low dissolved organic carbon (i.e., <250 µM; Liu et al., 2016), impact of organic acids on alkalinity is predicted to be small. The pCO_2 was then calculated using CO2SYS program (Lewis and Wallace, 1998). However, using this method would produce biased extreme values that are unrealistic in natural river systems (Hunt et al., 2011;Weyhenmeyer et al., 2015). We thus reported median values per sampling station instead of means to avoid the impact of erroneous extreme results. The results were summarized in the Supplement (Table S1).

3. Results

3.1 Spatio-temporal variability of alkalinity and pCO_2

Except the excluded measurements, pH in the Yangtze River waters varied from 6.5 to 9.2 with 96% of the pH measurements ranging from 7.3 to 8.3 (Table 2). Higher pH values (i.e., >7.8) were spatially measured in the headwater streams and the Hanjiang catchments (see Fig. 1a for location). In comparison, the tributaries in the southern part of the watershed exhibited relatively low pH values. For the mainstem channel (Table 2), the median pH showed a significant downstream decrease from 8.29 to 7.55 ($r^2 = 0.77$; $p < 0.001$). The alkalinity varied from 415 to >3400 µeq L^{-1} (Fig. 3a). Higher alkalinity (i.e., >2500 µeq L^{-1}) was observed in the upper reach and the upper part of the middle reach (Fig. 3a), in particular the carbonate-rich tributary catchments (e.g., the Jialingjiang, Wujiang, and Hanjiang rivers). In contrast, the lower part of

the middle reach (mainly the Ganjiang River) and the lower reach showed a lower alkalinity of <2000 μeq L^{-1}. The average alkalinity over the whole watershed was 2210±1023 μeq L^{-1}.

Figure 3 and Table 2

The calculated pCO_2 varied by a magnitude of 2 with the highest pCO_2 being 24,432 μatm. At 95% of the stations, the pCO_2 was higher than 1000 μatm, generally 2–20 folds the atmospheric pCO_2. Only one station in the upper reach showed a median pCO_2 lower than the atmosphere. In the mainstem, the pCO_2 increased from ~700 μatm at the uppermost station to 3800 μatm at Nanjing near the river mouth (Table 2). Averaged over all stations, the basin-wide pCO_2 was 2662±1240 μatm. To better illustrate its spatial variability, we modeled the pCO_2 for the whole stream network using the Kriging interpolation method in ArcGIS 10.1 (Esri, USA) with the assumption that the station-based pCO_2 was representative of the surrounding streams. Similar to alkalinity, the pCO_2 presented significant spatial variations (Fig. 3b). The Yangtze mainstem near the headwater region and the Yalongjiang catchment showed the lowest pCO_2, generally <1000 μatm. In comparison, the carbonate-rich tributaries in the southern part of the watershed had high pCO_2 values. With an areal coverage of 83% by carbonate sedimentary rocks, the Wujiang catchment presented the highest median pCO_2 than other tributaries, averaging 3550±1356 μatm. In the lower reach, the pCO_2 was 3988±1244 μatm on average, which is inconsistent with its relatively low alkalinity of <2000 μeq L^{-1} (Fig. 3a). It is worth noting that the pCO_2 in Hanjiang catchment was lower than expected, given its high alkalinity (>2500 μeq L^{-1}). Differences in pH in these catchments are likely a principal cause of these inconsistencies.

In addition, the pCO_2 also showed strong temporal variability. Fig. 4 presents an example of pCO_2 changes at Datong station on the mainstem channel. Despite considerable inter-annual variations that could change by a factor of 5, the annual pCO_2 declined steadily during the >20-year-long sampling period ($r^2 = 0.18$; $p < 0.05$) (Fig. 4a). This trend is pronounced even if the anomalously high values in the late 1960s are excluded. Indeed, more than half of the evaluated stations, mainly in the middle-lower reach, showed a significant decreasing trend at the 95% confidence level. In contrast, gradual increases were observed at some tributary stations in the upper reaches. Seasonally, the pCO_2 in the wet season was on average 30% higher than that in the dry season (Fig. 4b), and greater fluctuation ranges could be observed in wet seasons.

Figure 4

3.2 Correlations with hydro-geochemical variables

Fig. 5 presents two representative examples showing responses of alkalinity and pCO_2 to hydrological regimes. Changes of alkalinity at both stations reflected a clear dilution effect. High alkalinity concentrations were measured in low flow periods when groundwater was the major contributor to runoff (Figs. 5a and 5c). Checking all stations indicated that the alkalinity at 98% of the stations decreased exponentially with increasing water discharge after the onset of the wet season. In contrast, the pCO_2 presented diverse relationships with water changes (Figs. 5b and 5d). There was no discernible dependence of pCO_2 on flow in the mainstem, while a positive correlation was widely observed in small tributaries. Although only two stations were plotted

here, these diverse responses of alkalinity and pCO_2 to flow changes were widespread within the watershed, in particular for pCO_2 between mainstem and small tributaries.

Figure 5

In order to elucidate the impacts of rock weathering on pCO_2, we selected three typical tributary catchments with differing rock compositions (Table 3). The Wujiang catchment is mainly underlain by carbonate sedimentary rocks (83%) and the Ganjiang catchment by siliciclastic sedimentary rocks (65%), whereas the Jialingjiang catchment lies in the middle regarding the areal coverage of the two rocks (Table 3 and Fig. 1b). As the most typical weathering products of carbonate and siliciclastic sedimentary rocks, we plotted Ca^{2+} and dissolved silica (expressed as SiO_2) against pCO_2, respectively (Fig. 6). For the three catchments with contrasting rock compositions, the pCO_2 showed different responses to Ca^{2+} and SiO_2. In Wujiang catchment, the log-transformed pCO_2 (i.e., $lg(pCO_2)$) presented a significant negative correlation with Ca^{2+} concentration ($p < 0.001$) (Fig. 6). This negative correlation became less apparent with decreasing carbonate coverage in Jialingliang and Ganjiang catchments. In contrast, while the $lg(pCO_2)$ exhibited a positive correlation with SiO_2 in Jialingjiang and Ganjiang catchments characterized by high coverage of siliciclastic sedimentary rocks, no clear relation between $lg(pCO_2)$ and SiO_2 was detected in Wujiang catchment (Fig. 6). However, when plotting pCO_2 against Ca^{2+} and SiO_2 for the entire Yangtze River watershed, there was no discernable relationship between pCO_2 and both variables (Fig. S1 in the Supplement).

Figure 6 and Table 3

4. Discussion

4.1 Uncertainty analysis of pCO_2

As an important parameter for CO_2 evasion estimation, an accurate riverine pCO_2 is essential to quantify CO_2 evasion and explore its biogeochemical implications for carbon cycle at different scales. Compared with direct measurement by means of membrane equilibration or headspace technique, the conventional pCO_2 calculation from alkalinity has been criticized for causing biases (Long et al., 2015;Hunt et al., 2011). Huge overestimations (i.e., >100%) have been reported in rivers with organic-rich and acidic waters due to combined effects of high organic acids and low buffering capacity of carbonate systems at low pH (Abril et al., 2015). Unfortunately, there were no organic carbon information in the yearbooks, and measurements of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in the Yangtze River started in the early 1980s. Its DOC ranging from 130 to 180 µM was relatively low compared with other major world rivers (Bao et al., 2015;Wang et al., 2012). Our recent sampling also shows that the mean DOC is 160 µM for the mainstem and 200 µM for major tributaries (Liu et al., 2016). Given the neutral to basic pH range and the alkalinity variations, we believe the impact of organic acids is minimal, although a slight overestimation may have occurred as suggested by Abril et al. (2015). Our recent pCO_2 measurements in the mainstem and major tributaries using a membrane contactor (Qubit DCO_2 System, Qubit Biology Inc., Canada) also indicate that the calculated pCO_2 results are consistent with the measured values with only ~8% differences (Liu et al., 2016).

Furthermore, this pCO_2 calculation method is sensitive to pH changes. High accuracy of pH measurements is critical to reduce the associated uncertainty. Similar to other water chemistry

records (i.e., Butman and Raymond, 2011; Lauerwald et al., 2015; Weyhenmeyer et al., 2015), the retrieved pH was reported with a precision of one decimal place. If the uncertainties in pH measurement accuracy are assumed to 0.1 pH units, the calculated pCO_2 would be underestimated by 26% or overestimated by 21%. To minimize human-induced disturbances in the chemical equilibrium of natural waters, we excluded the samples with pH<6.5 and treated them as being significantly polluted. This arbitrary exclusion may have generated biased estimates of pCO_2 for the whole river network in general and some natural rivers characteristic of low pH in particular (Wallin et al., 2014). Considering the higher alkalinity than the GEMS/Water Programme results, the propagated uncertainty ranges from 14% (underestimation) to 27% (overestimation). As China's major industrial and agricultural regions, impact of human activity within the watershed, including sewage inputs and chemical fertilizer usage to a lesser extent, may have altered its chemical compositions and pH. In view of the small number of discarded measurements (1% of the total) and the high buffering capacity of carbonate alkalinity and low DOC contents, the calculated pCO_2 is reasonable and can be used for further CO_2 evasion estimation.

4.2 Environmental impacts on alkalinity and pCO_2

Export of alkalinity in river systems was affected by hydrological regime with a clear dilution effect (Fig. 5). The average alkalinity was 35% lower in the wet season than in the dry season. In both the mainstem and the tributaries, the higher alkalinity during low flow periods in dry seasons (Figs. 5a and 5c) illustrated the contribution of groundwater recharge in providing

abundant alkalinity. With widespread carbonate presence, groundwater in the Yangtze River watershed was rich in dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC). Recent studies show that the alkalinity of typical karst groundwater in the watershed is in the range of 3300–4200 μeq L^{-1} (Li et al., 2010b;Li et al., 2010a). With reduced relative contribution of groundwater in the wet season, the high alkalinity was diluted by local rain events that carried lower DIC contents. Spatially, the dilution effect was more pronounced in the upper reach than the middle-lower reach. This may have revealed the response of alkalinity production to land cover. Catchments with a higher forest cover normally exhibit a stronger dilution effect than cropland catchments (Raymond and Cole, 2003). While cropland was the major land-use type in the middle-lower reach accounting for 53.5% of the total catchment area, forest cover in the upper Yangtze River watershed was much higher (37.3%) than the middle-lower reach (30.4%; data are from Data Center for Resources and Environmental Sciences for the 1980s).

Riverine dissolved CO_2 originates primarily from terrestrial ecosystem respiration, groundwater input, and in-stream processing of land-derived organic matter (Wallin et al., 2013;Lynch et al., 2010). Different from alkalinity showing a clear dilution effect, the stable pCO_2 in the Yangtze mainstem likely reflected the impact of different biogeochemical processes (Fig. 5b). Compared to the dry season in which the pCO_2 was mainly controlled by DIC inputs from groundwater, the elevated pCO_2 in the wet season suggested the influence of organic carbon transport and decomposition. Owing to strong erosion and leaching of recent-fixed organic matter, its organic carbon content in the wet season is significantly higher and the age much younger (Wang et al.,

2012;Zhang et al., 2014). Rapid mineralization of the labile fraction of organic carbon can increase the pCO_2. A recent study indicates that, while ~60% of the recent-fixed carbon entering the Yangtze River in wet seasons can be quickly degraded, the degradation ratio is only 31% in dry seasons (Wang et al., 2012). On the other hand, the increasing pCO_2 with flow in tributaries indicated enhanced supply of fresh dissolved CO_2 during high flow periods (Fig. 5d). For tributaries with more homogeneous catchment settings, decomposition of soil organic matter can provide abundant dissolved CO_2 (Liu et al., 2016;Li et al., 2012), generating a positive pCO_2 response to water discharge. Presence of wetlands and floodplains also affects river biogeochemistry (Teodoru et al., 2015). Affected by dam impoundment, the catchment upstream of Yunxian station is characteristic of widespread wetlands and floodplains. Consequently, the enhanced connectivity between river and wetlands/floodplains along aquatic continuum, especially during wet seasons, have maintained its high pCO_2 levels (Abril et al., 2014). For pCO_2 in the mainstem (Fig. 5b), it is likely because the increased dissolved CO_2 inputs by soil organic matter decomposition from one region has been counteracted by low pCO_2 waters derived from other regions. This is highly possible given its heterogeneous catchment settings in terms of vegetation cover, soil type, and rainfall intensity. Furthermore, the large catchment implies a long travel time of land-derived organic carbon during fluvial delivery (3–5 months). Coupled with limited floodplains along the mainstem channel (see discussion below), direct inputs of CO_2 from soil respiration would be relatively low whereas strong CO_2 evasion in lower-order turbulent tributaries might have already exhausted dissolved CO_2. Therefore, its pCO_2 dynamics appeared to be independent of hydrograph.

The spatial distribution of alkalinity overlapped well with the outcrops of carbonate sedimentary rocks (Figs. 1b and 3a), with ~60% of the high alkalinity concentrations measured in carbonate catchments. Using Ca^{2+} as a proxy of rock weathering, the strong correlation between Ca^{2+} and alkalinity suggested the dominant role of weathering in controlling alkalinity and DIC export (Fig. 7). This is consistent with the significant impact of weathering on alkalinity as observed in other rivers (Raymond and Cole, 2003;Humborg et al., 2010). Particularly, given the higher susceptibility of carbonates to weathering than silicates (Goudie and Viles, 2012), the abundant carbonate presence in Wujiang catchment helped to sustain its high alkalinity and pCO_2 (Table 3). However, the negative correlation in Fig. 6a is contradictory to the common belief that carbonate dissolution will likely cause an elevated pCO_2 (Marcé et al., 2015;Teodoru et al., 2015). Given the significant correlation between Ca^{2+} and alkalinity, the decreasing pCO_2 with increasing Ca^{2+} is probably due to pH variability that may have offset the impact of weathering-induced DIC inputs in controlling pCO_2 (Fig. S2). A slight pH increase would result in a reduced pCO_2 as this calculation method is sensitive to pH fluctuations (Laruelle et al., 2013).

The positive correlation between pCO_2 and SiO_2 in Jialingjiang and Ganjiang catchments demonstrated the impact of DIC export by silicate weathering. Despite the high silicate weathering rate in Ganjiang catchment, its alkalinity represented only one third of that in the other two catchments (Table 3). Apparently, its high pCO_2 of 2642±626 μatm was primarily the result of its low pH (~6% lower). Overall, the catchments with more carbonate presence

presented higher pCO_2 values (Figs. 1 and 3b). Because weathering products are typical for groundwater, this also suggests that riverine pCO_2 has a strong groundwater signature. Different from the positive response of pCO_2 to discharge at Yunxian station reflecting the importance of connectivity between river and wetlands/floodplains (Fig. 5d), the deceasing pCO_2 at Xiajiang station with discharge is indicative of the impact of groundwater input on riverine carbon dynamics (Figs. S3a and 6f). Particularly, in dry seasons with groundwater dominating the runoff (Fig. S3b), SiO_2 can explain ~25% of the pCO_2 variability in sub-catchments covered mainly with siliciclastic sediment rocks, comparable to the results by Humborg et al. (2010) in Sweden. The indiscernible pCO_2-Ca^{2+} and pCO_2-SiO_2 relationship for the entire watershed may be attributed to the spatial heterogeneity in lithology that has obscured the signature (Fig. S1). While both positive and negative relationships existed in sub-catchments with predominant carbonate or siliciclastic sediment rocks (Fig. 6), these relationships may have counteracted each other when all data points were plotted together.

Figure 7

Because pCO_2 was calculated from alkalinity, its spatial variability reflected largely the export of the latter. The inconsistencies between pCO_2 and alkalinity in Hanjiang catchment were likely caused by dam operation (Fig. 3). By altering the physical and biogeochemical properties of flowing water, dam trapping could cause a greatly declined pCO_2 as a result of photosynthetic CO_2 fixation and increased pH (Ran et al., 2015a). The Danjiangkou Reservoir (storage: 17.5 km^3) on the upper Hanjiang River was constructed in 1968. Unfortunately, the retrieved data for the Hanjiang River started from the 1970s, rendering it impossible to compare the pCO_2

differences between pre- and post-dam periods. An indirect evidence is that an elevated pH within the reservoir has been measured (7.95–8.33; Li et al., 2009) relative to the 1970s (7.84±0.15). In the lower reach near the estuary (Fig. 3b), more pronounced net-heterotrophy and human activity could explain its high pCO_2. Settling down of particulate organic matter coupled with nutrient-rich water plume from offshore can accelerate CO_2 production. Chen et al. (2008) concluded that aerobic respiration of heterotrophic ecosystems was the primary determinant of the high pCO_2 in the inner Yangtze estuary. Moreover, the lower Yangtze River watershed was highly populated. Inputs of acids from agricultural fertilizer, sewage, and acid deposition have also decreased pH and shifted the carbonate system towards CO_2 (Duan et al., 2007;Chen et al., 2002), generating high pCO_2 values regardless of its relatively low alkalinity.

4.3 Geomorphological controls on alkalinity and pCO_2

To illustrate the geomorphological controls, the used 339 stations were aggregated by stream order based on their spatial positions. Both alkalinity and pCO_2 showed a decreasing trend from the smallest headwater streams through tributaries to the Yangtze mainstem (Fig. 8). The average decrease of alkalinity and pCO_2 were 94 $\mu eq\ L^{-1}$ and 266 μatm, respectively. Higher alkalinity and pCO_2 in the headwater streams reveal the significance of direct terrestrial inputs of organic carbon and dissolved CO_2 in controlling riverine carbon cycle. Over the study period, the Yangtze River watershed suffered severe soil erosion, averaging 2167 $t\ km^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$ (Wang et al., 2007b). Huge amounts of carbon were transported into the river system via erosion (Wu et al.,

2007). Decomposition of the terrestrial-origin organic carbon has resulted in the CO_2 excess in the headwater streams (Li et al., 2012).

Figure 8

The decreasing pCO_2 with increasing stream order imply continued CO_2 evasion along the river continuum and reduced supply of fresh CO_2. Except the three lakes connected to the mainstem (Fig. 1a), the Yangtze River network is largely confined to its channel. Without large floodplains supplying labile organic matter to sustain high pCO_2 as in the Amazon River (Mayorga et al., 2005), its pCO_2 decreased progressively from the headwaters towards the mainstem channel. In addition, it is interesting to note that the pCO_2 in the highest three orders was equivalent (~1800 μatm; Fig. 8). Instead of continuous decline, the stable pCO_2 suggests a balance between CO_2 evasion and supply of fresh CO_2 from upstream catchments or aquatic respiration. Contrary to the headwater streams with close contact with terrestrial ecosystems, the downstream large streams and rivers are far away from rapid fresh CO_2 input. Moreover, these large streams and rivers are generally characterized by comparatively low gas transfer velocities due to weakened turbulence and mixing with benthic substrates (Butman and Raymond, 2011;Borges et al., 2015), which can effectively inhibit CO_2 degassing and therefore maintain the balance. An example is the Yangtze estuary that presents considerably low CO_2 evasion fluxes of 16–34 mol m^{-2} yr^{-1}, despite its significantly higher riverine pCO_2 than the overlying atmosphere (Zhai et al., 2007).

It is important to note, however, that the delineated 8 stream orders may not necessarily represent the actual stream network. Limited by spatial resolution, the smallest headwater streams might

have been missed from the identified river network. In addition, these headwater streams are also generally absent of sampling stations. With much closer biogeochemical interactions with land ecosystems, these missed headwater streams tend to have higher pCO_2 (Benstead and Leigh, 2012;Aufdenkampe et al., 2011;Butman and Raymond, 2011). Thus, the actual pCO_2 gradient along the stream order may be sharper if a higher pCO_2 in the headwater streams is included.

4.4 Implications for riverine CO_2 evasion

As mentioned earlier, riverine carbon transport has been a significant component of carbon cycle. Quantifying riverine carbon export is essential to better evaluate global carbon budget and elucidate the magnitude of carbon exchange between different pools. For the estimation of CO_2 evasion, riverine pCO_2 denotes CO_2 concentration gradient across the water-air interface and thus the potential of CO_2 exchange. Prior studies indicate that elevated riverine pCO_2 can enhance CO_2 evasion owing to a steeper concentration gradient and a greater CO_2 availability for degassing (Long et al., 2015;Billett and Moore, 2008). When assessing global-scale CO_2 evasion, however, the spatial distribution of pCO_2 is heavily skewed towards Northern America, Europe, and Australia (e.g., Lauerwald et al., 2015; Raymond et al., 2013), while data for Asian rivers are extremely lacking. This absence of an equally distributed pCO_2 database has made it challenging to accurately estimate global CO_2 evasion. The role of Asian rivers in global carbon export explicitly demonstrates that under-representation of Asian rivers would cause huge biases.

Comparing the Yangtze River with other rivers shows that its pCO_2 is higher than most world rivers (Table 4). The average pCO_2 of 2662 μatm suggests that the Yangtze River waters are potentially a prominent carbon source for the atmosphere. Large CO_2 evasion fluxes have been reported by several small-scale studies in the upper reach and the estuary (Zhai et al., 2007;Chen et al., 2008;Li et al., 2012), as also shown in Table 4. Nonetheless, a systematic estimation of CO_2 evasion from the whole Yangtze River network, including mainstem and its tributaries of all orders, remains lacking. This has hampered the assessment of its CO_2 evasion in a wider context linking the watershed's land-atmosphere and land-ocean carbon exchanges.

Table 4

Accelerated human activity is another urgent issue to be considered when investigating its riverine pCO_2 and CO_2 evasion. Approximately 50,000 dams, including the world's largest reservoir (i.e., the Three Gorges Reservoir; TGR), have been constructed in recent decades (Xu and Milliman, 2009). Assessing the impacts of dam-triggered changes to flow regime and biogeochemical processes on pCO_2 and CO_2 evasion is particularly important for deeper insights into its riverine carbon cycle (Table 4). For example, while the pCO_2 at Datong station declined continuously before the TGR impoundment (Fig. 4a; Wang et al., 2007a), our recent field survey shows that it has recovered from 1440 μatm in the 1980s to present 1700 μatm (see Fig. 4a). As for CO_2 degassing, recent work in the TGR indicates that its CO_2 evasion fluxes are different from natural rivers and are higher than other temperate reservoirs (Table 4; Zhao et al., 2013). Future research efforts are warranted to conduct systematic monitoring and evasion estimation.

Given the Yangtze River's role in global carbon export, a comprehensive assessment of CO_2 evasion is also meaningful for global carbon budget.

Conclusions

By using long-term water chemistry data measured in the Yangtze River watershed during the period 1960s–1985, we calculated its pCO_2 from pH and alkalinity. The pH in the Yangtze River waters varied from 6.5 to 9.2 and the alkalinity ranged from 415 to >3400 $\mu eq\ L^{-1}$ with high alkalinity concentrations occurring in carbonate-rich tributary catchments. Except one station in the upper reach showing a lower pCO_2 than the atmosphere, the Yangtze River waters were supersaturated with dissolved CO_2, generally 2–20 folds the atmospheric equilibrium. Averaged over all stations, the basin-wide pCO_2 was 2662±1240 μatm. As an important parameter for CO_2 evasion estimation, its pCO_2 was characterized by significant spatial and temporal variability, which was collectively controlled by carbon inputs from terrestrial ecosystems, hydrological regime, and rock weathering. High pCO_2 values were observed spatially in catchments with abundant carbonate presence and seasonally in the wet season when recent-fixed organic matter was flushed into the river network. Decomposition of organic matter by microbial activity in aquatic systems facilitated CO_2 production and sustained the high pCO_2 values in wet seasons, although the alkalinity presented a significant dilution effect with water discharge. In addition, the pCO_2 decreased with increasing stream orders from the smallest headwater streams through tributaries to the mainstem channel. A higher pCO_2 in the headwater streams illustrated the

influence of direct inputs of terrestrially-derived organic matter and weathering products via erosion and flushing on riverine carbon dynamics.

The substantially higher pCO_2 than the atmosphere indicated a potential of significant CO_2 emissions from the Yangtze River fluvial network. Quantifying the amount of CO_2 evasion should be a top priority, upon which its biogeochemical implications for watershed-scale carbon cycle can be assessed in association with carbon burial and downstream export. Given the extensive and intensive human disturbances within the watershed since the 1990s, special attention must be paid to the resulting changes to riverine pCO_2 and CO_2 evasion. A comparative analysis involving CO_2 evasion before large-scale human impacts and recent degassing estimates (e.g., Li et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016) will be able to examine the anthropogenic perturbations of the river-atmosphere CO_2 fluxes due to damming and land-use change. Considering the Yangtze River's relevance to global carbon export, quantifying its CO_2 evasion is also of paramount importance for better assessments of global carbon budget.

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Table 1. Comparison of alkalinity (μeq L^{-1}) and pH at Wuhan station between the GEMS/Water Programme results and the hydrological yearbooks, expressed as mean±standard error.

Item	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1984
			GEMS/Water Programme			
Alkalinity	2050±286	2004±188	2000±232	1838±252	2200±247	1992±219
pH	7.83±0.16	7.73±0.24	8.04±0.09	8.06±0.05	8.00±0.09	7.88±0.06
			Hydrological yearbooks			
Alkalinity	2310±314	2187±236	2274±268	2033±304	2383±277	2306±238
pH	7.93±0.09	7.87±09	8.01±0.09	7.94±0.08	7.93±0.10	7.98±0.08

Table 2. Riverine pH, alkalinity, and pCO_2 in the Yangtze River basin (median±standard deviation)[a].

River/tributary	Station	pH	Alkalinity	pCO_2
			μeq L^{-1}	μatm
Mainstem	Benzilan	8.29±0.11	2352±435	681±156
	Shigu	8.18±0.48	2544±438	846±262
	Jingjiangjie	8.11±0.12	2905±362	916±202
	Dukou	8.22±0.12	2399±429	826±197
	Longjie	8.23±0.17	2185±396	786±226
	Huatan	8.17±0.15	2237±418	882±287
	Pingshan	8.13±0.10	2215±407	1001±235
	Zhutuo	7.88±0.19	2299±349	2405±781
	Cuntan	8.08±0.11	2173±311	1087±319
	Yichang	7.95±0.15	2343±300	1653±469
	Luoshan	7.76±0.11	2280±248	2380±691
	Wuhan	7.93±0.11	2060±263	1521±497
	Datong	7.84±0.14	1919±312	1711±806
	Nanjing[b]	7.56±0.16	2339±339	3796±1623
	Nanjing[c]	7.54±0.18	2296±357	3793±2186
Major tributaries[d]				
Yalongjiang	Xiaodeshi	8.02±0.22	2576±465	1567±715
Daduhe	Fuluzhen	7.66±0.23	1909±289	2577±1620
Minjiang	Gaochang	8.02±0.15	1816±327	1020±525
Tuojiang	Lijiawan	8.01±0.11	2705±507	1504±572
Jialingjiang	Beibei	8.11±0.14	2289±509	1196±244
Wujiang	Wulong	8.01±0.14	2420±279	1361±508
Yuanjiang	Taoyuan	7.61±0.25	1822±480	2801±2144
Xiangjiang	Xiangtan	7.76±0.44	1739±331	2349±2521
Hanjiang	Xiaoshicun	7.93±0.13	2262±480	1715±536
Ganjiang	Waizhou	7.44±0.44	880±236	2205±2048
Yangtze basin[e]	1% percentile	7.03	556	788
	10% percentile	7.35	842	1236
	50% percentile	7.71	2237	2455
	90% percentile	8.05	3305	4344
	99% percentile	8.28	4437	6163

[a]Station-based pCO_2 was summarized in Table S1; [b]Affected by high tides; [c]Affected by low tides; [d]Median values of the data for the lowermost station on the mainstem of the specific tributary; [e]Statistics based on the measurements at the used 339 stations.

Table 3. Hydro-geochemical features of the Wujiang (Wulong station), Jialingjiang (Wusheng station), and Ganjiang (Xiajiang station) catchments.

Control station	Control area	Water discharge	pH	Alkalinity	pCO_2	Ca^{2+}	SiO_2	Sedimentary rock types (% of area)		
	km^2	$m^3 s^{-1}$		μeq L^{-1}	μatm	μmol L^{-1}	μmol L^{-1}	Carbonate	Siliciclastic	Igneous + metamorphic
Wulong	80,536	1570	7.72±0.14	3021±527	3537±1247	1145±278	59±31	82.9	14.8	2.3
Wusheng	80,550	793	7.80±0.21	2484±948	2671±490	1005±170	94±30	30.4	55.3	14.3
Xiajiang	62,387	1644	7.34±0.08	953±266	2642±626	242±91	105±18	9.1	64.7	26.2

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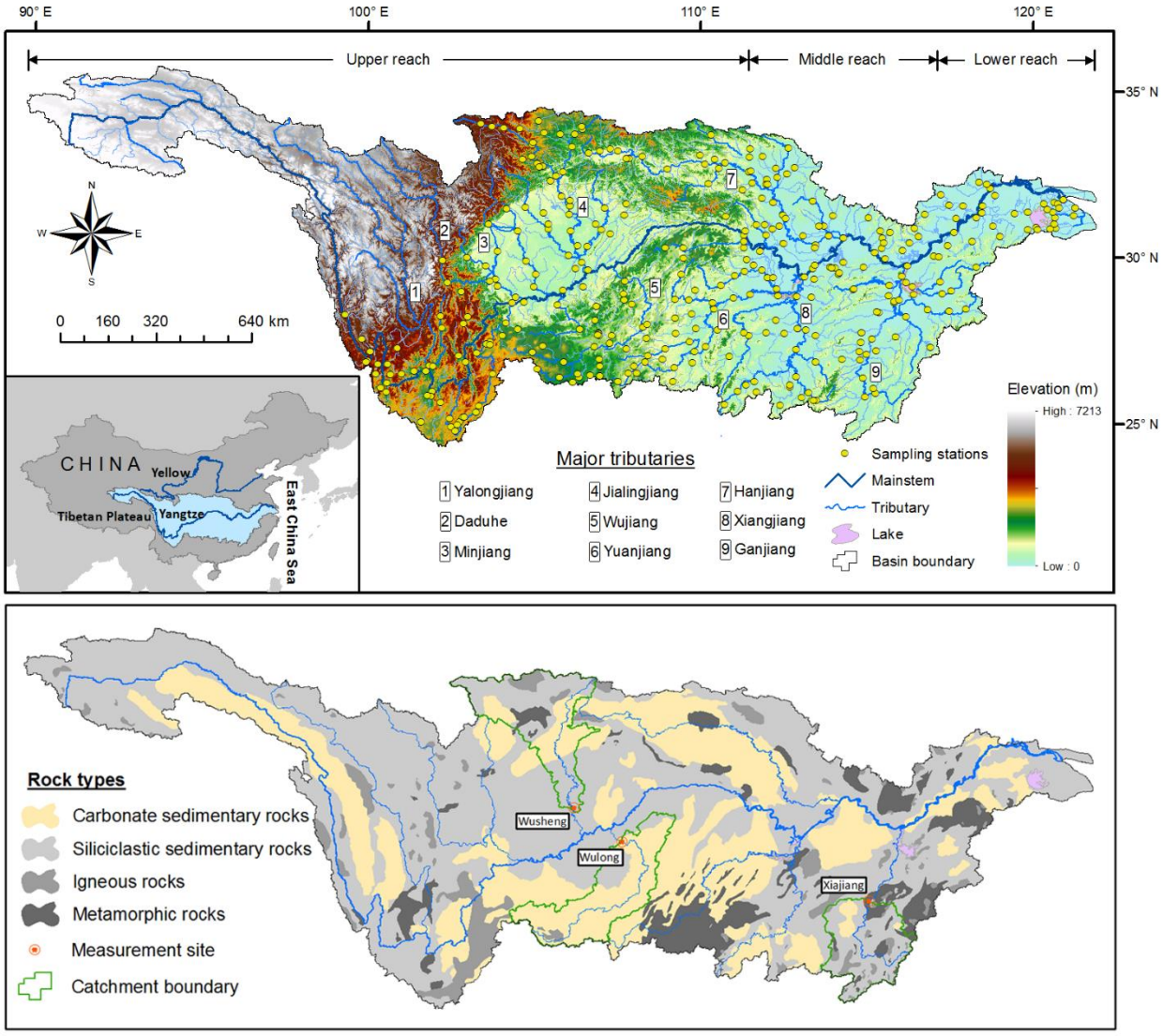
Table 4. Comparison of pCO_2 and CO_2 evasion among world large rivers and typical reservoirs in the Yangtze River basin.

River	Country	Climate	pCO_2	CO_2 evasion	Reference
			μatm	mol m^{-2} yr^{-1}	
Yangtze network	China	Subtropical monsoon	2662±1240	/	This study
Upper Yangtze	China	Subtropical monsoon	2100	57	Li et al., 2012
Lower Yangtze	China	Subtropical monsoon	1297±901	14.2–54.4	Wang et al., 2007a
Yangtze estuary	China	Subtropical monsoon	650–1440	15.5–34.2	Zhai et al., 2007
Amazon	Brazil	Tropical	3929	162.2	Lauerwald et al. 2015
Ottawa	Canada	Temperate	1200	14.2	Telmer and Veizer, 1999
Hudson	USA	Temperate	1125±403	5.8–13.5	Raymond et al., 1997
York estuary	USA	Temperate	1070±867	6.3	Raymond et al., 2000
Mississippi	USA	Temperate	1335±130	98.5±32.5	Dubois et al., 2010
Yukon	Canada	Subarctic	582–705	11.6–21.2	Lauerwald et al., 2015
Yellow	China	Arid and semiarid	2810±1985	312.4±149.2	Ran et al., 2015b
Xijiang (Pearl)	China	Subtropical monsoon	2600	69.2–130	Yao et al., 2007
Mekong (>100 m wide rivers)	SE Asia	Tropical monsoon	703–1597	32–138	Alin et al., 2011
Godavari estuary	India	Tropical monsoon	<500–33,000	52.6	Sarma et al., 2011
Global rivers			2400	131.2	Lauerwald et al. 2015
Typical reservoirs in the Yangtze River basin					
Wujiang cascade reservoirs			38–3300	-3.3–32.5	Wang et al., 2011
Three Gorges Reservoir (TGR)			/	35.1	Zhao et al., 2013



720 Fig. 1. Maps of the Yangtze River basin showing sampling stations (top) and rock compositions (bottom). Rock information is modified from Chen et al. (2002) and Chetelat et al. (2008).

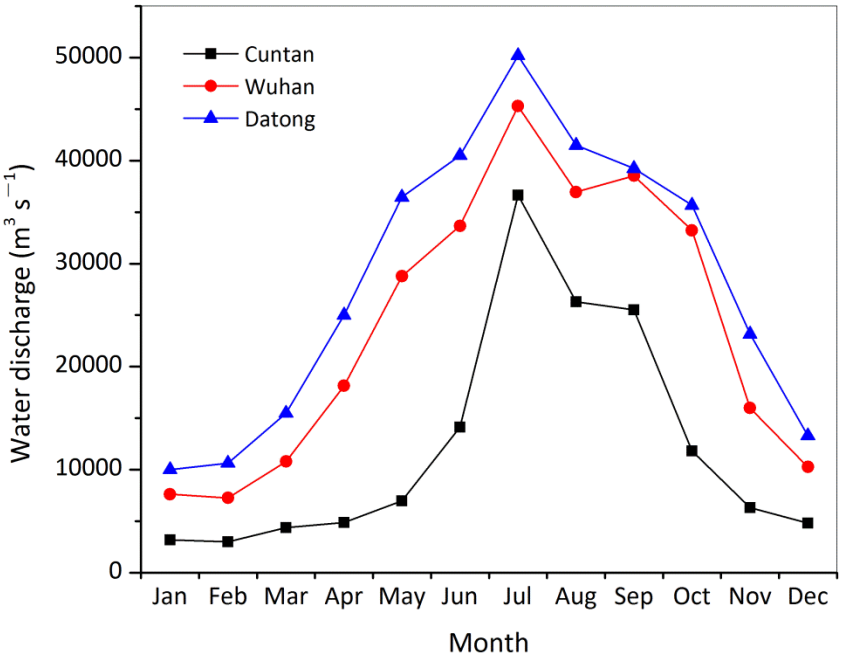


Fig. 2. Monthly variations in water discharge of the Yangtze River at Cuntan (upper reach), Wuhan (middle reach), and Datong stations (lower reach).

725

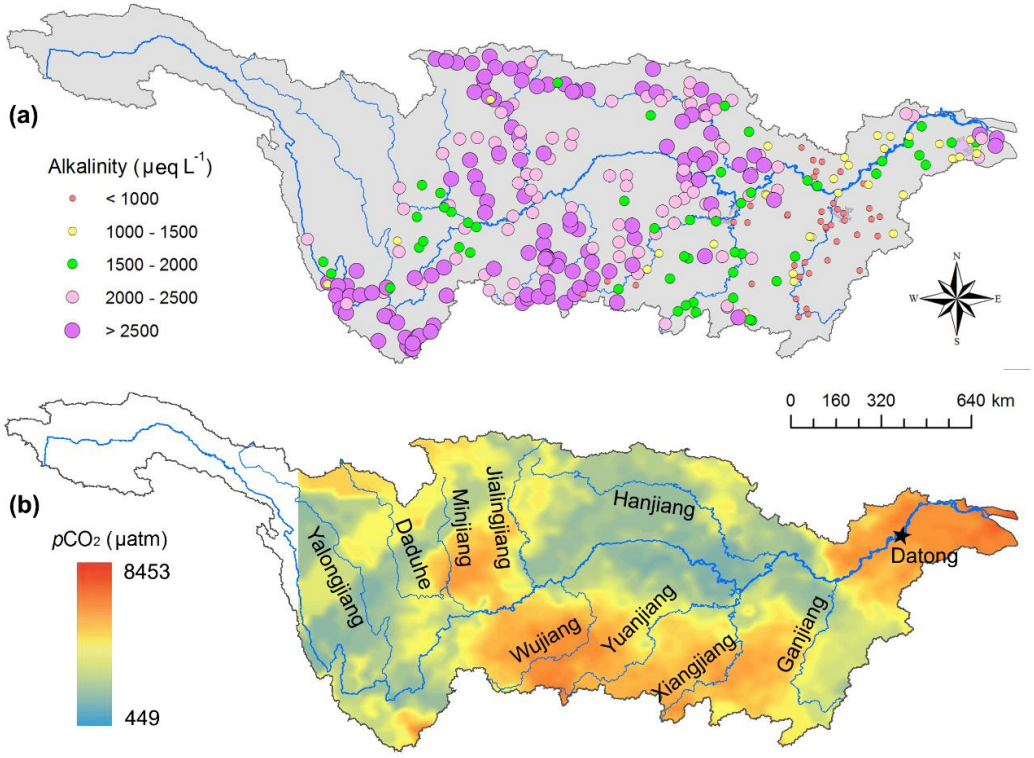


Fig. 3. Spatial distribution of alkalinity (a) and pCO_2 (b) in the Yangtze River basin. The headwater region in (b) was not interpolated because of insufficient stations.

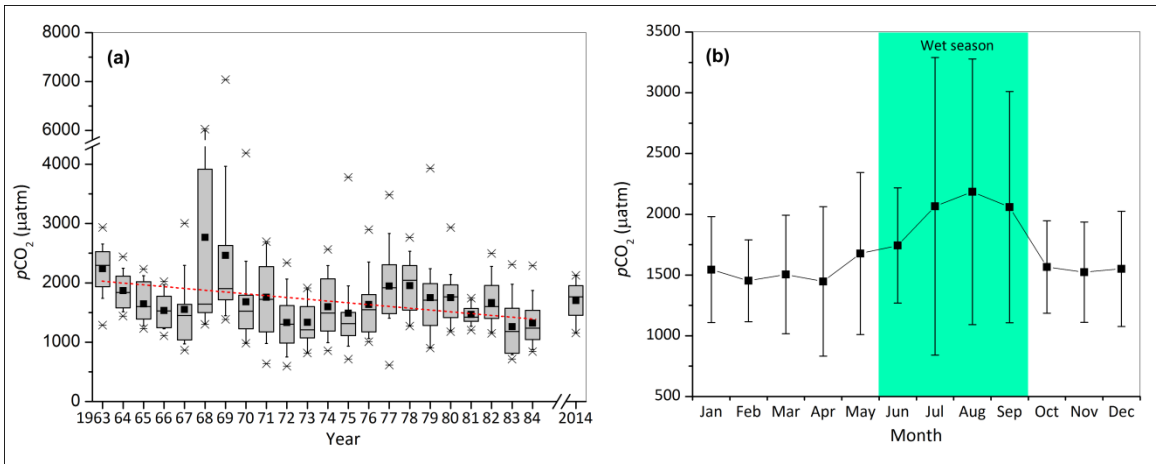


Fig. 4. Temporal variations of pCO_2 at Datong station. (a) box-and-whisker plot shows significant inter-annual changes; (b) seasonal variations. The dash line in (a) represents linear regression and the values for 2014 are derived from Liu et al. (2016). Error bars denote standard deviation.

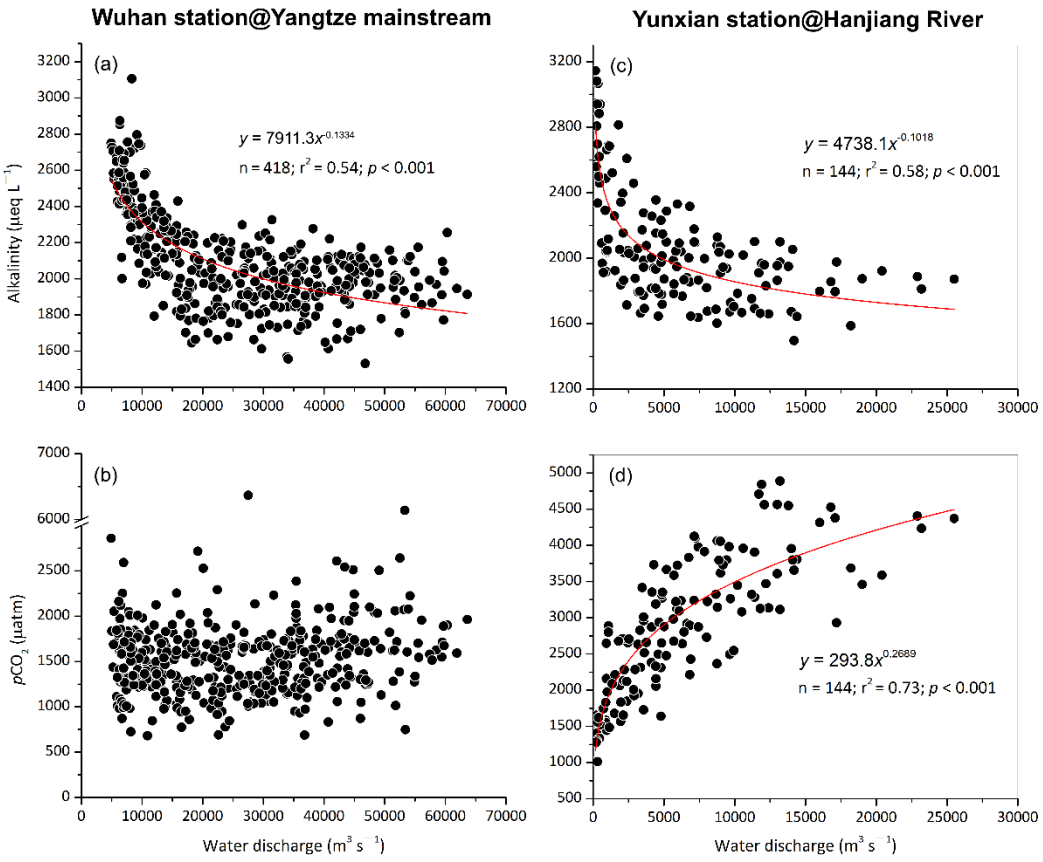


Fig. 5. Correlations between water discharge and instantaneous alkalinity and pCO_2: the mainstem at Wuhan station (a and b) and the Hanjiang River at Yunxian station (c and d).

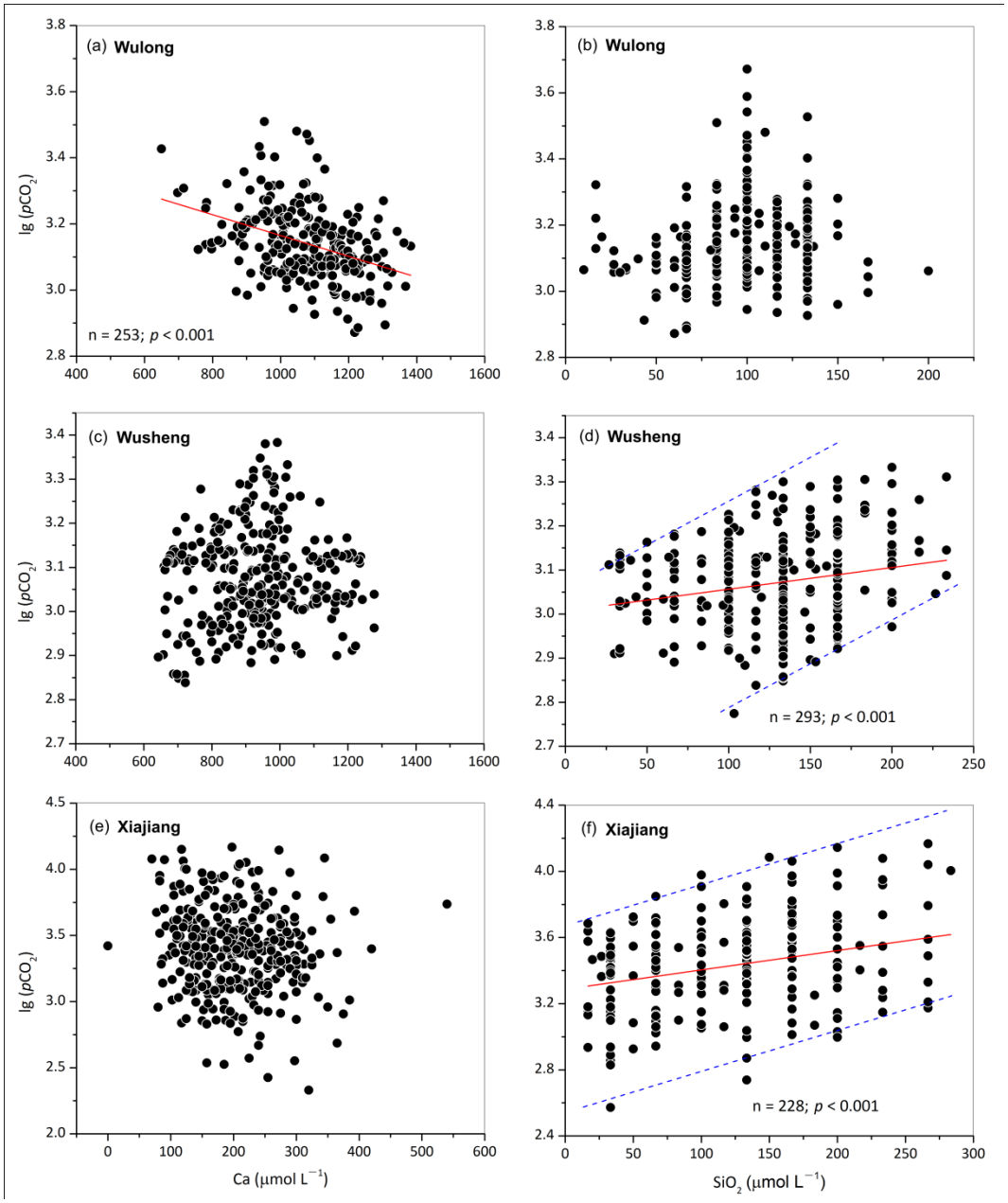
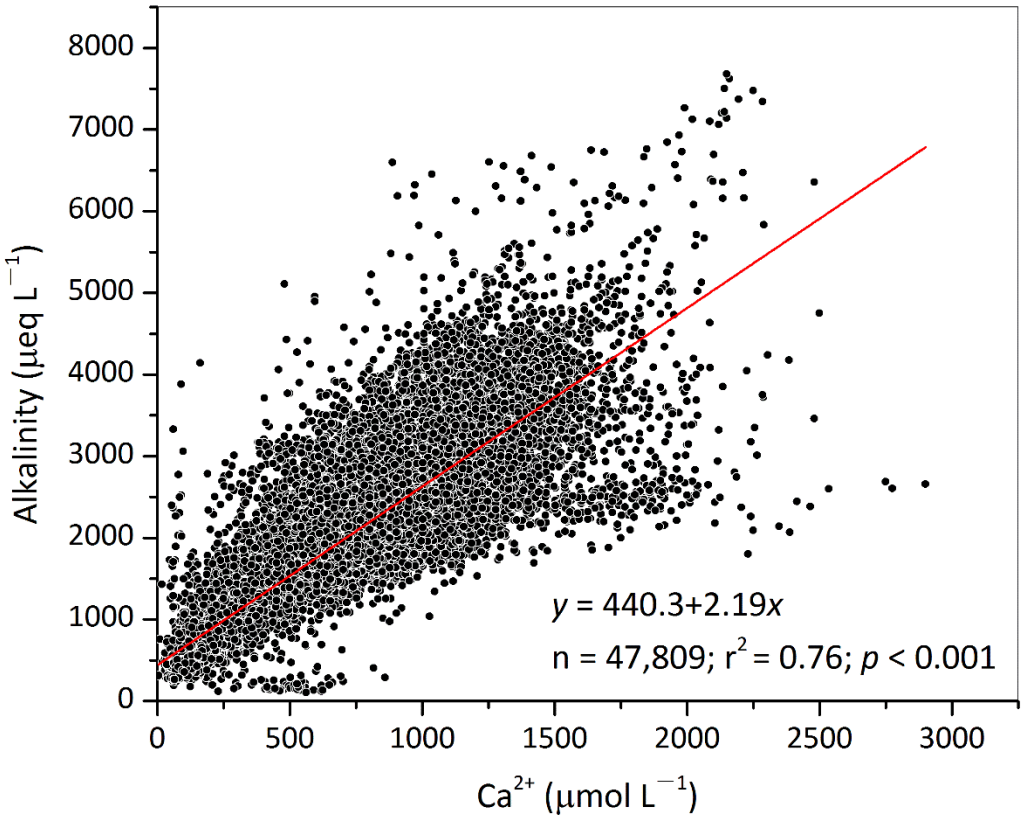


Fig. 6. Responses of pCO_2 to rock weathering products in three typical catchments with distinct rock compositions: a–b: Wujiang River (Wulong station); b–c: Jialiangjiang River (Wusheng station); e–f: Ganjiang River (Xiajiang station). The solid lines represent linear regression.



745 Fig. 7. Strong correlation between chemical weathering, using Ca^{2+} as a proxy, and alkalinity.

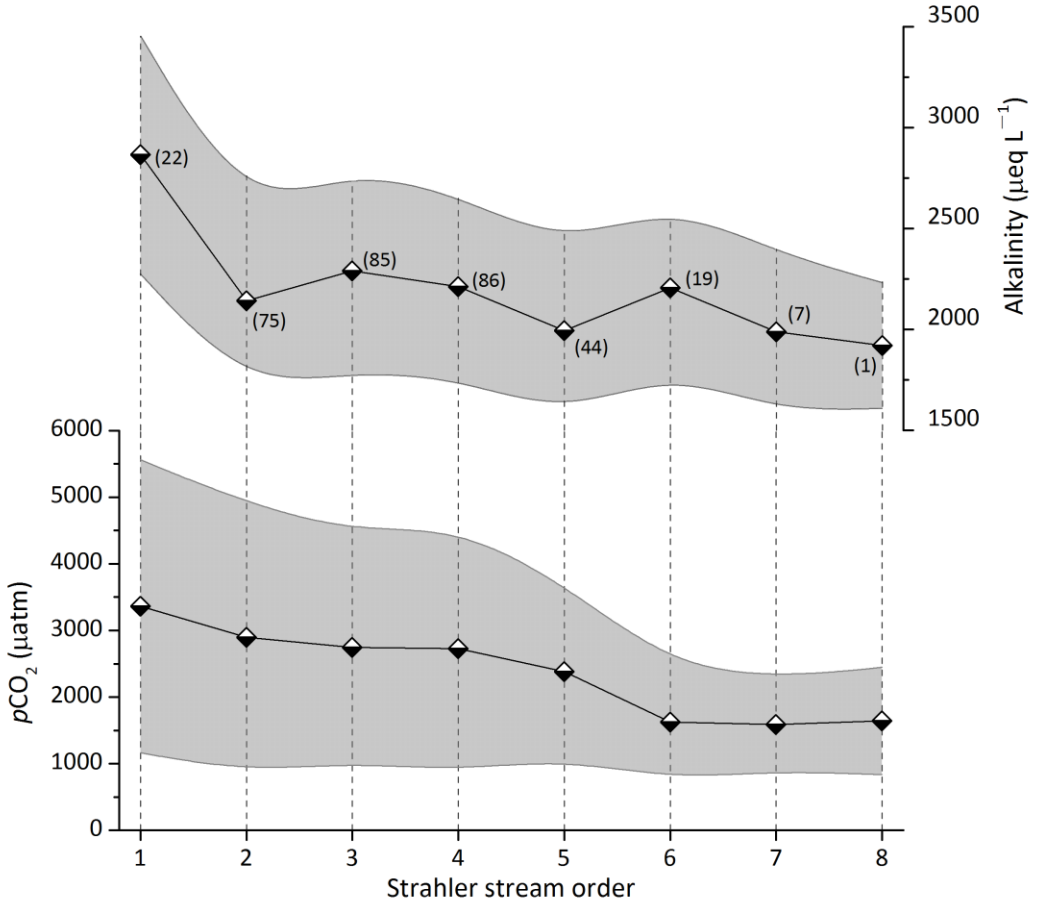


Fig. 8. Decreasing alkalinity (top) and pCO_2 (bottom) with increasing Strahler stream order. The grey shade denotes standard deviation and the numbers in parentheses represent the number of stations aggregated for each stream order.