

Major comments

Method for DIC fluxes calculation

L200 “Total export flux of DIC... multiplying the mean concentration of DIC in an estuary with the annual discharge. Spatial variability of DIC in estuaries was minimized to a large extent by collecting samples from head to mouth of the estuary” Estuarine saline samples contain a fraction of seawater; their DIC is thus a mixture of riverine DIC and marine DIC, with proportions depending to the value of salinity. The concentrations of DIC in these estuarine samples are affected by dilution with seawater and cannot be multiplied by the freshwater discharge to derive a flux to the ocean. According to all textbooks on estuarine hydrology and chemistry, the DIC concentration at the zero salinity end-member must be used. Concentration versus salinity plots can be used to obtain an “apparent zero end-member” (AZE). The method used here is underestimating the real DIC flux when freshwater DIC cc is higher than seawater DIC cc (most cases in these Indian rivers), and, inversely, overestimating the flux when river DIC < ocean DIC.

The samples collected at stations of only near zero salinities (riverine end members) were used in this study and saline samples (salinity >2) were excluded. In a very few medium estuaries where samples were not collected at near zero salinities, the riverine end member was calculated from the DIC versus salinity plot, as you suggested. As we have considered only riverine end members for this study, the text was modified accordingly and confined only to rivers. The export fluxes of DIC are estimated by multiplying DIC concentrations at riverine end member with the discharge of the river.

The use of the term “estuary” all through the MS is often inappropriate. At many places in the MS, in the abstract, introduction and discussion, you mix the two notions of river and estuary. You use the word “estuary” when it should be “river”. See below

Since we have considered only the riverine end member samples for this study, we have used only ‘river’ throughout the manuscript, i.e., in the abstract, introduction and discussion.

Interpretation of ^{13}C DIC

In general, the discussion of the ^{13}C DIC signal is confusing and too superficial. It must be strengthened by more quantitative analysis that allows to evaluate the respective contribution of processes under some specific conditions. You mention weathering of silicate/carbonate and “storage” in dams as major processes. However the relationship between DIC cc and ^{13}C and lithology is only verbal. You must relate DIC concentrations and ^{13}C -DIC signature with lithology and the proportion of carbonate versus silicate rocks on the respective watershed.

The discussion on the ^{13}C DIC was changed completely and re-written. It was given in a separate section 4.2. Since the ^{13}C DIC measured in the riverine end member samples is a mixture of different carbonate species (HCO_3 , CO_3 and CO_2) which are largely

dependent on pH and temperature. Further, in-stream physical and biological processes alter the ^{13}C of source. In order to separate the influence of different in-stream processes on ^{13}C of DIC source, we tried to approximate the ^{13}C of DIC source using two different graphical model techniques, Keeling plot and Miller-Tans plot and interpreted the outcome of the models for DIC sources. Deviations of the measured ^{13}C DIC from the approximated ^{13}C of DIC source were attributed to the influence of in-stream processes. Further, to filter the influence of pH and DIC speciation on bulk ^{13}C DIC, we approximated the ^{13}C of CO_2 using a set of isotopic fractionation enrichment factors across the DIC speciation. With this approach, we found that ^{13}C DIC in most (~75%) of the Indian rivers is influenced by heterotrophic decomposition of organic matter, whereas in the rivers from southeast region of India, it is controlled by autotrophic production. Overall, we tried to explain the ^{13}C DIC in a more quantitative manner.

Include lithology in the map in figure 1 and provide in a table the proportion of carbonate and silicate rocks in each watershed. The table should also include classical information for each watershed (discharge, drainage, presence of dams, eventually population density). All information necessary for the quantitative information of the data should be included.

Lithology was included in the map (Fig. 1), as you suggested. A table (Table 1) with all the necessary information such as catchment area, discharge, length of the river, number of dams on the river and population density in catchment area of the river was provided. However, we could not get the information on proportions of silicate and carbonate rocks in each watershed, and thus not provided in the table.

Sections 4.1.2 and 4.1.3 on the origin of DIC is extremely speculative and sometimes repetitive. We must know what are major processes and minor processes. Pollution by megacities is ignored although it is probably a major driving force on DIC in these rivers.

As mentioned above, the discussion on ^{13}C DIC was changed completely and it was rewritten to present the results in a more quantitative way. The major processes influencing the ^{13}C DIC were identified using graphical model approach (Keeling and Miller-Tans plots). To filter the influence of pH and DIC speciation on the bulk ^{13}C DIC, we have approximated the ^{13}C of CO_2 . Influence of pollution on DIC was also included now as it is also important to be considered.

Detailed comments

Abstract

L14: spatial and/or temporal variability?

It is spatial variability. It was mentioned the text.

L17: “exchange of groundwater with low DIC” this is speculation because groundwater are supposed to have high DIC concentrations

Yes. DIC concentrations are higher in ground waters than the DIC in rivers/estuaries. Spatial variability of ground water DIC showed the lowest mean values in the SW region than the other regions of India. We mean to say here that exchange of ground waters with relatively lower DIC in this region (but not lower than the estuarine DIC) than the other regions. However, the sentence was modified during revision.

L21: “intrusion of marine waters”: intrusion of seawater occurs in all estuaries (not only east-flowing estuaries), and are more or less important depending of sampling strategy and salinity of the samples. Comparison between systems can be done only on the basis of the zero salinity end-member.

DIC concentrations at stations of only near zero salinities in each river (riverine end member) were considered for this study. Since the saline samples were not included in this study, the sentence was modified accordingly.

L27-28: “9.4% of the Asian rivers” unintelligible sentence

Since the Indian rivers are part of the Asian rivers, this part of the sentence was deleted.

Intro

L44 “DIC is the major constituent of carbon species” where, please rephrase

It was rephrased as “Dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) is one of the major constituent of carbon species in rivers”.

L46 “33-400 Tg of DIC” do you mean 330-400 Tg? Please proofread you MS to remove such typos before re-submitting

Sorry for the mistake, it was 330 only but not 33. However, it was given more precisely in the revised text.

L50: should be “rivers” instead of “estuary” here

Since only the riverine end members were used for this study, ‘river’ was used throughout the manuscript.

L51-55: rephrase and specify what process is more important quantitatively

During re-structuring the manuscript, the major processes controlling DIC concentrations in the Indian monsoonal rivers were discussed in the ‘discussion’ chapter. Hence, it was deleted from here.

L62-65: this is too general, how does human alterations of riverine DIC relate with findings of your study?

These two sentences were deleted as our findings are not related with human alterations. However, the influence of population density on DIC concentrations in the Indian monsoonal rivers was discussed in the section 4.1 and shown in Fig. 4g

L70-88: this is too general, and not focussed in relation with the present study. Please rewrite

Entire ‘Introduction’ chapter was re-written. During this process, this section (L.70-88) was deleted.

L88 “their sources” of DIC?

Yes. It is ‘their sources of DIC’. However, this sentence was deleted from the text as it is related to the estuarine export of DIC (including saline samples) to the coastal ocean.

L90 aquatic systems

Corrected to ‘aquatic systems’

L91-93 “due to distinct isotopic composition of different sources” not only as ^{13}C -DIC is also affected by fractionation by internal processes such as aquatic primary production and gas exchange. The figure 5 should be used here (as new figure 2) to support this statement

The section was modified as “Though the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC derived from different sources is well separable (Deines et al., 1974), the isotopic fractionation by in-stream physical and biological processes alters the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC source (Fig. 2). For example, photosynthesis and equilibration with atmospheric CO_2 enriches (O’Leary, 1988; Finlay, 2004; Parker et al., 2005, 2010) while the heterotrophic decomposition of organic matter and photo-oxidation of dissolved organic carbon depletes the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC (Opsahl and Zepp, 2001; Finlay, 2003; Waldron et al., 2007; Vahatalo and Wetzel, 2008) (Fig. 2)”.

The figure 5 was given as figure 2 to explain various in-stream processes influencing the ^{13}C of DIC.

L100: “despite distinct isotopic composition of DIC is expected for different sources, the identification of DIC sources is still challenging due to isotopic fractionation associated with complex mixture of sources and processes such as photosynthesis” awkward sentence. Mixture does not fractionate. All through the MS you must prioritize what is more important among the different processes that impact ^{13}C -DIC

The sentence was shifted to section 4.2 (sources of DIC). It was modified as “Though, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ is a promising tool to decipher the sources of DIC, its interpretation for

source material identification in rivers is still challenging because multiple physical and biological processes within the rivers significantly alter the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC source. The influence of major in-stream processes on the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ must be separated before interpreting the results for major sources of DIC, failing which leads to erroneous conclusions. In order to identify and separate DIC sources, we used here two different graphical mixing model techniques, Keeling plot (Keeling, 1958; Pataki et al., 2003) and Miller-Tans plots (Miller and Tans, 2003). These models approximate the hypothetical $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of source material as an intercept (in Keeling plot) and slope (in Miller-Tans plot) of the least square linear regression equations (Pataki et al., 2003; Campeau et al., 2017). The deviations from the approximated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of source can be interpreted to the influence of in-stream processes”.

Study area

We need a table with all necessary information about each watershed

A table (Table 1) was provided with all necessary information of each watershed.

L121_124 Not sure information on upwelling in the Arabian sea is necessary here

Since the rivers draining into the Arabian Sea were also covered in this study, the information on the Arabian was also provided along with the Bay of Bengal.

L138 rivers instead of “estuaries”?

It was changed to ‘rivers’ as you suggested

L147 when talking about discharge, better refer to “rivers” rather than “estuaries”

The term ‘rivers’ was used throughout the manuscript

Sample collection

We need to know about salinity of your samples. Comparing data with high salinity from an estuary with data with low salinity in another estuary is meaningless. Salinity must appear somewhere in the MS, and what should be compared is DIC and ^{13}C -DIC at the zero salinity end-member.

Salinity samples were not included in this study. Hence, discussion on DIC and ^{13}C -DIC was confined to freshwater regions.

L200: use the AZE DIC concentration to calculate fluxes

Mean of the DIC concentrations measured at stations of near zero salinity in each river was used for DIC export flux estimations. In some cases, where measurements at near zero salinity were not conducted, apparent zero end member was estimated from the relationship of DIC with salinity, as you suggested.

L214: here you mix different information (river composition and dilution with seawater) and the fact that salinity is high in an estuary is due to your sampling strategy. All interpretation

should refer to river end-member, and should not include different proportion of dilution with seawater

DIC concentrations at near zero salinity were used for this study. No saline samples were included in this study and thus no contribution of DIC from seawater. Hence, comparison, discussion and interpretations made in this study were confined only to the river end member.

Section 3.3: re-calculate DIC fluxes using the zero salinity end member

DIC fluxes were re-calculated using the measured DIC concentrations at near zero salinity (river end member). For few medium rivers, where samples were not collected at near zero salinity stations, the riverine end member was obtained from the DIC versus salinity plot, as you suggested.

L258 “no vertical salinity stratification was observed in all estuaries sampled... Mandovi estuary” awkward sentence

The sentence was deleted during revision as the saline samples were not included in this study. Hence, stratification in estuaries is irrelevant here.

L273 “among the estuaries sampled along the indian coast, the SW estuaries are characterized by lower mean concentrations of DIC than the SE, NE...” awkward sentence, please rephrase

The sentence was modified during the revision. ‘Distribution of DIC in the Indian monsoonal rivers showed large spatial variability, with the lowest values in rivers from the SW region of India (Fig. 3a)’.

L279 “the SW region of India receive the highest amount of precipitation during the SW moosoon than the SE, NE and NW regions of India” awkward sentence, please rephrase

The sentence was corrected and rephrased as ‘The spatial distribution of rainfall over the Indian subcontinent (www.imd.gov.in) shows that the SW region receives the highest annual rainfall (~3000 mm) than the rest of India (Soman and Kumar, 1990). ‘

L286 “About three times higher catchment area normalized discharge might have diluted DIC concentration in the SW estuaries” not clear, please rewrite

It was modified to obtain clarity. ‘In order to understand the influence of the density of rainfall on DIC in rivers, we normalized the volume of discharge from the river with its catchment area. . The catchment area normalized volume of discharge was found to be much higher in rivers from the SW region ($1.71 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-2}$) than the rivers from SE ($0.17 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-2}$), NE ($0.6 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-2}$) and NW ($0.32 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-2}$) regions of India. About three times higher catchment area normalized discharge might have diluted DIC concentrations in the rivers of the former region.

L289 rivers instead of “estuaries”

It was changed to rivers. The sentence was re-written as ‘A strong exponential decrease in DIC concentrations with increasing rainfall over the catchment ($r^2= 0.72$, $p<0.001$; Fig. 4a) also suggests that DIC concentration in the Indian rivers are strongly influenced by density of precipitation over the catchment.’

L290-293 not sure dilution will alter the ^{13}C -DIC. You mention “residence time of soil water” but this is not clear: what process will deplete ^{13}C DIC ? Be more precise when referring to Amiotte Suchet 1999

The sentence was deleted during the revision. Discussion on ^{13}C –DIC was provided in a separate section 4.2 (sources of DIC) to maintain the focus of the study.

L296: you mention here “lower catchment area” but the info on catchment areas is missing in the MS

Catchment area of each river was provided in the Table 1

L300-304: rewrite and provide more quantitative evidence for the occurrence of in stream processes. Here the interpretation of the data is only verbal. What instream process are you referring to?

It was re-written and some part of the paragraph was deleted. It was re-written as ‘Since the contribution of DIC from in-stream processes, such as decomposition of organic matter, has been demonstrated to increase along the course of fluvial network (Hotchkiss et al., 2015), possibly due to increase in the residence time of water (Catalan et al., 2016), the lowest DIC concentrations found in rivers from the SW region may also, at least partly, be due to their small size. Fairly good positive correlation between DIC concentrations and length of the rivers ($r^2=0.38$, $p<0.01$) also support this argument.’

L309-311. Comparing low salinity ^{13}C signature in a given estuary with high salinity ^{13}C -DIC signature in another estuary makes no sense. The fact that ^{13}C -DIC correlates with salinity in a given estuary is a truism. These types of statements must be avoided in all the MS

The section on ‘mixing with seawater’ was deleted as the saline samples were not included in the present study.

L320 “exchange of SW estuaries with...” unintelligible sentence: how can you exchange an estuary? All the literature converges to the conclusion that groundwater have high DIC concentrations, so your statement here is pure speculation

The sentence was deleted as the estuarine (saline) samples were not included in this study

L328 “DIC input from the dissolution of atmospheric CO₂ can be ruled out”. Isotopic equilibration of DIC with the atmosphere occurs even if waters are oversaturated with respect to the atmosphere.

Isotopic exchange is true, but here, we meant to say that the addition of DIC to rivers through the dissolution of atmospheric CO₂ is more unlikely. However, the sentence was modified to avoid confusion. It was modified as ‘Since the Indian monsoonal estuaries have been reported to be a source of CO₂ to the atmosphere during the discharge period due to heterotrophic decomposition of organic matter (Sarma et al., 2001, 2011, 2012; Gupta et al., 2008, 2009; Bhavya et al., 2018), the DIC input from the dissolution of atmospheric CO₂ may be unlikely. On the other hand, organic matter decomposition is expected to add significant amount of DIC as enhanced bacterial respiration rates were reported during this period (Sarma et al., 2011; 2012’.

L331-336 this is speculation : the fact that ¹³C DIC correlates positively with DOC does not necessarily mean that oxidation of organic matter predominates. High ¹³C DIC can be due to fractionation by phytoplankton and high DOC to the exudation/hydrolysis of phytoplanktonic cells. The correlation can also be indirect, High DOC and high ¹³C DIC coming from the nature of soils and rocks (or pollution) on the watersheds, or can also be due to the dilution of seawater in the samples. The highest value of DOC in fig 4e at about 13 mg L⁻¹ may also come from contamination by sewage. See also below my comments on figure 4.

Yes. Uptake of DIC by phytoplankton enriches ¹³C DIC and exudation of phytoplankton cells increases DOC concentration, leading to a positive relationship between the two. Yet, it is also due to carried forward signatures from the catchment as you suggested. Hence the section was re-written as follows:

On the other hand, organic matter decomposition is expected to add significant amount of DIC as enhanced bacterial respiration rates were reported during this period (Sarma et al., 2011; 2012). In contrast, significant negative correlation between chlorophyll-*a* and DIC ($r^2=-0.44$, $p<0.01$; Fig. 4c), except few SE rivers where elevated phytoplankton biomass (Chl-*a*: >5 mg m⁻³) was recorded, suggesting that autotrophic removal of DIC is also significant in the Indian monsoonal rivers during the study period. A significant positive relationship was observed between the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ and Chl-*a* ($r^2=0.49$; $p<0.01$; Fig. 4d), supporting this argument because preferential uptake of ¹²C than ¹³C during photosynthesis leaves the residual DIC enriched in ¹³C. On the other hand, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ showed significant positive correlation with DO saturation ($r^2=0.50$, $p<0.01$; Fig. 4e) (depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ values at more under saturation of DO) and DOC concentrations ($r^2=0.43$, $p<0.01$; Fig. 4f) as was observed in the Xi river (Zou et al., 2016). Altogether, enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ are associated with higher DOC, less under saturation of DO and higher phytoplankton biomass (Chl-*a*) while the depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ are associated more under saturation of DO and less DOC. This suggests that both autotrophic removal and heterotrophic addition control DIC in the Indian rivers during the discharge period, with a considerable spatial variability. However, influence of these processes on DIC concentrations is difficult to separate with this bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ data set, as the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ in rivers is also influenced by pollution, catchment lithology and outgassing of CO₂ (Shin et

al., 2011; Brunet et al., 2005; Bouvillion et al., 2009; Zeng et al., 2011; Tamooh et al., 2013). Excluding Sabarmati and Mahisagar rivers, DIC concentrations showed fairly good linear relationship with population density over the catchment of the river ($r^2=0.41$, $p<0.01$; Fig. 4g), suggesting that considerable influence of pollution from the mega cities and industries on DIC in the Indian rivers.

L338 “is distinctly enriched than that...” unintelligible language

The sentence was deleted during revision

L339-342: the contribution of C4 plant material is speculative. Many other processes may enrich DIC in ^{13}C such as carbonate weathering (which also increases alkalinity), gas exchange and mixing with seawater DIC.

This section was modified as ‘These results indicated that DIC in the Indian rivers is largely contributed by chemical weathering of carbonate and silicate minerals by soil CO_2 (-10 to -9‰). Deviations of the measured $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ (-13.0 to -1.4‰) from that of the approximated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC source (-3.0 to -2.0‰) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO_2 (-10.7‰) could be due to the influence of in-stream process. In more than 75% of the Indian rivers sampled, the deviation from the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC source is towards negative side (depletion) ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}} < -3.0‰$), suggesting that heterotrophic decomposition of organic matter is the dominant process controlling DIC in these rivers. While, no (or very little) deviation was observed only in rivers from the SE region of India (mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$: -3.1‰) could be due to the competition between autotrophy, degassing and heterotrophy as these processes influences the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ in opposite directions (Fig. 2); the former two processes causes enrichment while the latter depletes $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$. Relatively higher phytoplankton biomass (mean Chl-a: 4.6 mg m^{-3}) and less unsaturation of DO (98.7%) was observed in these rivers compared to the mean of the rest of the Indian rivers (2.4 mg m^{-3} and 87.5% respectively), suggesting that autotrophy is one of the dominant processes controlling DIC in rivers from the SE region of India. Total number of dams on the rivers from this (SE) region (mean 155, Table 1) is not significantly higher from that of the mean of total number of dams on the Indian rivers sampled (mean 135) , suggesting that degassing due to storage of water may not be the dominant process responsible for enrichment in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ of these rivers’.

We need some quantitative analysis here: what are the contributions of silicate and carbonate rocks on the respective watersheds, and does ^{13}C DIC correlate with alkalinity? High alkalinity is an indication of carbonate weathering

Yes. ^{13}C DIC is correlated with alkalinity and the same was given in figures (Fig. 4h). Since the discussion on ^{13}C -DIC was changed completely, this paragraph was modified during the revision.

L326-377. All the section 4.1.2 is extremely speculative, discussion on processes are only verbal and not quantitative. All the possible processes are mentioned but without giving more emphasis on one process compared to another. Entire section must be rethought and re-written.

It was completely re-written as mentioned in above responses to your comments.

L360 “we could not able to evaluate” please proofread your MS before submitting!

It was deleted during the revision

L362 “the same is correlated with DO saturation and found significant...” revise language “confirming that biological processes enriched ^{13}C DIC in the Indian estuaries. CO_2 outgassing due to heterotrophic decomposition.... In reservoirs/dams...” This is extremely confusing and speculative. In fact you mention all possible processes but you don’t know from your analysis which one is most important. In addition “biological activity” is too general and what most probably makes the ^{13}C become enriched is primary production (autotrophy) and not heterotrophy.

Pollution by megacities is ignored although it is probably a major driving force on DIC in these rivers.

The sentence was deleted, and the entire section was re-written. Influence of pollution on DIC in the Indian rivers was also discussed. During re-structuring of the manuscript, DIC concentrations and ^{13}C -DIC were separated in to two sections, i.e., 4.1 and 4.2, to maintain the focus of our study.

L388 your are repeating the same statements as before

Repeated statement was deleted

L395 “...consumption of atmospheric/soil CO_2 through silicate weathering is lower by 2 times...” is this a rule that applies everywhere? Rephrase

The sentence was modified to obtain clarity. Lateritic soils, which are poor in lime and silicate, occupied the catchment of the rivers in the SW region of India. Relatively lower chemical weathering rates of the lateritic than the non-lateritic soils could be one of the reasons for the observed lower DIC concentration the rivers from SW region of India.

End of section 4.1.3 is too long and repetitive

The discussion of isotopes (end of the section 4.1.3) was deleted as it is a repetition. In order to avoid the repetitions on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC, the entire discussion on this topic has been given in a separate section, 4.2.

L427 80% of DIC and 20% of DOC (what about POC?) is different from other rivers in the world and not “consistent with earlier reports elsewhere”

Here, we meant to say the fluvial dissolved (not particulate) carbon fluxes. However, the sentence was modified to avoid confusion. Contributions of DIC and DOC to dissolved carbon fluxes vary from region to region. For example, DIC dominates, as was observed in this study, in the British rivers and high altitude Swedish rivers while DOC

dominates in the low land Swedish rivers. It is not uniform over world.

L435 “similar those found...” revise language

The sentence was revised. The yield of DIC found in this study (mean $8.7 \pm 5.2 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) is close to those found in rivers from the tropical region of Asia, but significantly higher than those reported from tropical region of the American and African continents (Huang et al., 2012).

L451: you repeating the same statements

As the statement was mentioned previously, it was deleted here to avoid repetition.

L465: “significant correlation between soil organic carbon and DIC yield ... confirms that strong influence of soil and DIC yield...” a correlation does not necessarily prove a process, correlation can be indirect. However, this is probably one interesting finding that deserves more discussion: soil OC oxidation will release DIC in the form of excess CO₂, but it will also enhance weathering and the export of DIC in the form of alkalinity. Deserve more discussion

Yes. Correlation does not necessarily prove a process, but we used correlations to understand the major processes controlling DIC in the Indian rivers. Soil OC was found to be higher in the SW region compared to the SE, NE and NW regions of India. It might have increased the yield of DIC from rivers of the former region as decomposition of soil OC releases CO₂ leading to formation of acidic conditions which subsequently increases the dissolution of carbonate minerals and chemical weathering of carbonate and silicate rocks.

L489 (and abstract) “storage of water in dams” you must consider the probable occurrence of phytoplanktonic production that would decrease DIC and increase ¹³C DIC.

Phytoplankton production in rivers was found to be the dominant processes controlling the ¹³C DIC in rivers from the southeast region of India. Whereas, heterotrophic decomposition was found to be dominant in the other Indian rivers studied. However, the average number of dams on the rivers from SE region is close to the average number of dams on the Indian rivers, suggesting that influence of water storage in dams on ¹³C DIC in these rivers is minimal. It could be due to competition between different processes that enrich (autotrophic production and degassing) and depletes (heterotrophic decomposition of organic matter) the ¹³C DIC in dams.

Owing to the population density in India, DIC is probably largely affected by the release of sewage waters

Yes. DIC concentrations in Indian rivers are affected by the pollution, Population density in the catchment area of the rivers showed linear relationship with DIC concentrations in river as shown in Fig. 4g.

Fig1: please show lithology and calculate the respective proportion of carbonate and silicate in each watershed

Distribution of soils was shown on the map in Fig. 1. However, we could not get the information on respective proportions of carbonate and silicate in each watershed.

Fig2 and 3 can be combined. Please place the west on the left and the east on the right as in figure 1. Reading would be improve by showing DIC yields on a seprated panel

Fig.2 and 3 were combined and given in one panel as Fig. 3. Concentrations, export flux and yield of DIC were shown separately (Fig. 3a,b,c respectively) for better reading. West-flowing rivers were placed on the left and east-flowing rivers were shown on the right, as you suggested.

Figs 4 and 6 are very confusing, number of data points are different from one panel to another, avoid mixing different information in such figure. Prepare one figure with a limited number of variable on the X axis. It is not clear why fig 4a, 6g and 6 h have only 4 data points: insert these ones in a different figure.

Some of the figures were removed and some were modified. All the figures were given in one panel (Fig. 4 a-g) to obtain clarity.

What do ovals represent is not mentioned in the captions

Ovals represent the outliers and were not considered in the regression equations.

In fig 4 you show ^{13}C DIC versus salinity, and ^{13}C dic versus DOC. What about DOC and DIC versus salinity? Salinity plots should appear in a separate figure in order to calculate zero salinity end-members

Since DIC concentrations at stations of only near zero salinities were considered for this study, figures with salinity were deleted.

Fig5 could appear before when mentioning the processes controlling ^{13}C DIC in rivers in the introduction

Figure 5 was given as figure 2 while explaining the in-stream processes influencing ^{13}C DIC in rivers

Table 1 is useless; what is the meaning of comparing DIC concentrations in world rivers with Indian estuaries that include saline samples?

This table was deleted

Table 2 should show the information for individual rivers, not only regions. Quantitative

information on the lithology in the watershed should be included and used for quantitative analysis of the data

A table (Table 1) was provided with all necessary data of each river including the catchment area, discharge, length of the river, number of dams along the course of the river and, population density and annual mean precipitation over the catchment.

1 **Export fluxes of dissolved inorganic carbon to the Northern Indian Ocean**
2 **from the Indian monsoonal rivers**

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10 **Abstract.** Rivers are an important source of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) to the adjacent
11 coastal waters. In order to examine the spatial variability in the distribution and major sources of
12 DIC in the Indian monsoonal ~~estuaries-rivers~~ and to quantify their export flux to the north Indian
13 Ocean, 27 major and medium ~~estuaries-rivers along the Indian coast~~ were sampled during the
14 discharge period. Significant spatial variability ~~in DIC~~ concentrations (3.4 – 73.6 mg l⁻¹) ~~of~~
15 ~~DIC~~ was observed within the Indian ~~estuaries-rivers~~ sampled. It is attributed to (3.4–44.1mg l⁻¹)
16 ~~due to~~ spatial variations in the size of rivers, precipitation pattern, pollution, and lithology ~~in~~
17 the catchments. ~~Dilution with high precipitation (2500±500 mm) and exchange with ground~~
18 ~~waters of low DIC resulted in very low concentrations of DIC in the estuaries located in the~~
19 ~~southwest of India (6.6±2.1 mg l⁻¹) than the estuaries located in the southeast (36.3±6.3 mg l⁻¹),~~
20 ~~northwest (30.3±8.9 mg l⁻¹) and northeast (19.5±6.2 mg l⁻¹) of India.~~ The stable isotopic
21 composition of bulk DIC ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$) indicates that predominant contribution of DIC is largely
22 contributed by from chemical weathering of ~~silicate and carbonate~~ and silicate minerals by soil
23 CO₂. As the in-stream processes significantly alter the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ in rivers, two different graphical
24 mixing model techniques, Keeling plot and Miller-Tans plot, were used to approximate the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
25 of DIC source. Least square linear regression models of both Keeling and Miller-Tans plots
26 approximated similar $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC source (-2.0 and -3.0‰ respectively). Further, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of
27 CO₂ was approximated in order to filter the influence of pH and DIC speciation on the measured

28 bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$. Our results indicated that DIC in the Indian rivers is contributed by chemical
29 weathering of carbonate minerals but largely influenced by autotrophic production in rivers from
30 the southeast region and heterotrophic decomposition of organic matter in the other Indian rivers
31 sampled. The storage of water in dams/reservoirs and intrusion of marine waters appears to be
32 responsible for the enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ in the east flowing rivers.—It is estimated that the Indian
33 monsoonal estuaries-rivers annually export ~ 10.43 Tg of DIC to the northern Indian Ocean, of
34 which the major fraction (74%) enters into the Bay of Bengal and the remaining reaches to the
35 Arabian Sea. This is consistent with the freshwater flux which is three times higher in the Bay of
36 Bengal ($\sim 378 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$) than the Arabian Sea ($122 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$). Despite the discharge from Indian
37 monsoonal rivers account for only 1.3% of the global freshwater discharge, they
38 disproportionately export 2.5% of the total DIC export by the world major rivers, and 9.4% of
39 the Asian rivers to oceans. The yield of DIC (DIC export normalized by the catchment area of
40 the river) was found to be higher in the SW estuaries ($10.8 \pm 6.6 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) than the SE ($5.8 \pm 2.3 \text{ g}$
41 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), NE ($8.6 \pm 5.7 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and NW ($9.5 \pm 4.0 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) estuaries.—Despite the rivers from
42 the SW region of India estuaries export an order of magnitude lower DIC (only 0.3 Tg yr^{-1}) than
43 the rivers from other regions of India, of DIC, which is more than an order of magnitude lower
44 than that of the export by the NE (4.2 Tg yr^{-1}), SE (3.5 Tg yr^{-1}) and NW (2.4 Tg yr^{-1}) estuaries.,
45 highest yield of DIC was found in the former and it is from the SW estuaries is attributed to
46 intense precipitation ($\sim 3000 \text{ mm}$), favorable natural vegetation of tropical moist deciduous and
47 tropical wet evergreen and semi evergreen forests, tropical wet climate, high soil organic carbon
48 and the dominance of red loamy soils in catchments of the SW-rivers from SW region. This
49 study, therefore Our study demonstrates revealed—that significant spatial variability of the
50 hydrological (precipitation), lithological (bed rock and soils) and environmental (vegetation and

51 ~~climate~~) conditions in the catchments and in-stream processes (autotrophic production and
52 heterotrophic decomposition of organic matter) -strongly controls the ~~concentrations and yield of~~
53 DIC ~~in from~~ the Indian monsoonal ~~estuaries~~rivers.

54 *Keywords:* dissolved inorganic carbon, export flux, Indian rivers, Bay of Bengal, Arabian Sea,
55 North Indian Ocean

56 **1. Introduction**

57 Dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) is one of the major constituent of carbon species in
58 rivers. DIC in rivers mainly originates from the geogenic (chemical weathering of carbonate and
59 silicate rocks) and biogenic (decomposition of organic matter in soils) sources as well (Meybeck,
60 1987; Mook and Tan, 1991; Gaillardet et al., 1999, Dessert et al., 2001; Viers et al., 2007;
61 Raymond et al., 2008; Tamooh et al., 2013). The former consumes atmospheric carbon dioxide
62 (CO₂) while the latter releases CO₂ fixed by the terrestrial plants. In addition to these major
63 sources from the catchment, DIC is also contributed by various physical and biological processes
64 within the rivers. For instance, heterotrophic decomposition of organic matter, photo-oxidation
65 of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), autotrophic respiration and dissolution of atmospheric CO₂
66 contribute DIC to rivers. ~~However, DIC contribution from dissolution of atmospheric CO₂ in~~
67 river is reportedly negligible (-). On the other hand, autotrophic production by aquatic plants
68 (photosynthesis) and evasion of CO₂ to atmosphere with draw DIC from rivers. All these
69 processes in the catchments and within the rivers as well are strongly coupled to atmospheric
70 CO₂ as they act as either sink (chemical weathering, photosynthesis and dissolution of CO₂) or
71 source (decomposition of organic matter and autotrophic respiration) of atmospheric CO₂ (e.g.
72 Berner et al., 1983; Mook and Tan, 1991; Gaillardet et al., 1999; Raymond et al., 2008).
73 issolution of atmospheric CO₂ also contributes to DIC in rivers. The DIC in rivers and its riverine

74 export of to the coastal oceans is thus intimately linked to the global carbon cycle (Campeau et
75 al., 2017) the hydrosphere. More than one third (and accounts for 38%) of the total fluvial
76 carbon transport to the global oceans (Meybeck, 1993; Cai, 2011; Jarvie et al., 2017) is in the
77 form of DIC.

78 Export fluxes of DIC from rivers to the coastal regions of the world oceans have been
79 estimated on the global (Gaillardet et al., 1999; Raymond et al., 2013) and regional scales
80 (Richey et al., 2002; Wallin et al., 2013; Crawford et al., 2014; Campeau et al., 2014; Kokic et
81 al., 2015) to understand the component of DIC in the global carbon budget. Annual export flux
82 of DIC from the wWorld major river systems to the gloabal ocean export annually has been
83 estimated as ~330327 - 400-385 Tg (1Tg=10¹²g) of DIC to the global oceans (Ludwig et al.,
84 1998; Mackenzie et al., 2004; Lerman et al., 2007Meybeck and Vorosmarty, 1999). However,
85 many of the regional studies on DIC export fluxes were limited to the major river systems only
86 (e.g. Gaillardet et al., 1999; Raymond et al., 2013), for example, the Mississippi (Raymond and
87 Cole, 2003; Raymond et al., 2008; Cai et al., 2008), Changjiang and Pearl (Cai et al., 2008) and
88 Congo (Wang et al., 2013) rivers etc. Regional studies on the riverine export fluxes of DIC are
89 very important for the global carbon cycle and budget as the export fluxes are largely dependent
90 on the hydrological, lithological and environmental conditions, which are highly variable on
91 regional scales. However, DIC measurements are still lacking in several medium rivers from
92 different regions of the world in general and the Asian rivers in particular. Chemical weathering
93 of carbonate and silicate rocks and soils in the drainage basin are the major sources of DIC into
94 rivers (Meybeck, 1987; Gaillardet et al., 1999, Dessert et al., 2001; Viers et al., 2007; Raymond
95 et al., 2008; Tamooh et al., 2013). The DIC concentrations in rivers the estuaries are largely
96 influenced by (i) the hydrological (precipitation and runoff), lithological (type and dominance of

97 ~~rocks and soils) and environmental (temperature, climate and vegetation) conditions, (ii)~~
98 ~~anthropogenic activities (deforestation and land use change) in the catchment and (iii) physical~~
99 ~~and biological processes such as exchange with ground water (Finlay, 2003; Shin et al., 2011;~~
100 ~~Maher et al., 2013), atmosphere, autotrophic production and heterotrophic utilization of organic~~
101 ~~matter (McConnaughey et al., 1994; Abril et al., 2003; Finlay and Kendall, 2007; Hotchkiss et~~
102 ~~al., 2015; Zou, 2016) in rivers and estuaries. Weathering of carbonate and silicate rocks in the~~
103 ~~catchment, uptake of DIC by aquatic plants in rivers are the sinks for the atmospheric CO₂ (e.g.~~
104 ~~Berner et al., 1983; Raymond et al., 2008) while the oxidation of organic carbon is the source of~~
105 ~~CO₂ to the atmosphere. Due to human interferences, DIC fluxes from the world major rivers are~~
106 ~~found to increase dramatically in the last century (Cai, 2003; Raymond and Cole, 2003;~~
107 ~~Raymond et al., 2008; Ren et al., 2015). It has been noted that substantial alterations in the~~
108 ~~lateral transport of DIC from land to sea occurred after the industrialization (Regnier et al., 2013;~~
109 ~~Bauer et al., 2013). The increase in riverine DIC flux has a significant impact on the chemical~~
110 ~~composition (Williamson et al., 1994; Raymond and Cole, 2003; Findlay, 2010; Tank et al.,~~
111 ~~2010) and carbon budget in the coastal waters (Cole et al., 2007; Dhillon and Inamdar, 2013).~~
112 ~~The identification of major sources of DIC in the estuaries and quantification of their export~~
113 ~~fluxes to the coastal oceans are important in understanding the carbon cycling both in the~~
114 ~~regional as well global scales (Campeau et al., 2017).~~

115 Studies on the sources and export fluxes of DIC from the Indian rivers are very limited.
116 Though DIC measurements were conducted in some Indian estuaries, for example, Mandovi and
117 Zuari (Sarma et al., 2001), Godavari (Sarma et al., 2011), Cochin (Gupta et al., 2009; Bhavya et
118 al., 2018), Hooghly (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2002; Samanta et al., 2015), Mahanadi (Pattanaik et
119 al., 2017) and Chilka (Gupta et al., 2008; Muduli et al., 2013), they were confined only to the

120 internal cycling of DIC and exchange of CO₂ at the air-water interface, but not focused on
121 sources and export fluxes of DIC. The major sources of DIC in the Indian rivers remain unclear,
122 except only a couple of rivers, Krishna (Das et al., 2005; Laskar et al., 2014) and Ganges
123 (Samanta et al., 2015), . Further, the quantity of annual DIC export by the Indian rivers to the
124 coastal regions is unknown. Here, we made an attempt to understand the major sources of DIC
125 in the Indian monsoonal rivers (Fig. 1) using $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ as a potential tracer, and to estimate the
126 riverine export flux of DIC to the north Indian Ocean from the Indian subcontinent.

127 ~~Fluvial carbon fluxes from rivers in the tropical region (30°N to 30°S) are critical for~~
128 ~~global carbon budgets because they contribute significant fraction to the global riverine DIC (48-~~
129 ~~64%) and freshwater discharge (66.2%) to the world oceans despite they occupy only 43% of~~
130 ~~the world's land area (Huang et al., 2012). Furthermore, humid tropical climate over the tropical~~
131 ~~region supports the export of fluvial carbon from the continental land masses than the other~~
132 ~~climates in the world (Meybeck 1993; Ludwig et al., 1998). However, the fluvial DIC fluxes~~
133 ~~from rivers in the tropical region, except a few large river systems, to the global ocean are~~
134 ~~unknown due to the paucity of data.~~

135 ~~Numerous studies have been documented on DIC export flux from the world major rivers, for~~
136 ~~example, the Mississippi (Raymond and Cole, 2003; Raymond et al., 2008; Cai et al., 2008),~~
137 ~~Changjiang and Pearl (Cai et al., 2008), Congo (Wang et al., 2013) and large river systems in the~~
138 ~~world (e.g. Gaillardet et al., 1999; Raymond et al., 2013). Though some measurements were~~
139 ~~carried out on DIC in the Indian estuaries, for example, Mandovi and Zuari (Sarma et al., 2001),~~
140 ~~Godavari (Sarma et al., 2011), Cochin (Gupta et al., 2009; Bhavya et al., 2018), Hooghly~~
141 ~~(Mukhopadhyay et al., 2002; Samanta et al., 2015), Mahanadi (Pattanaik et al., 2017) and Chila~~
142 ~~lake, a brackish water estuarine system (Gupta et al., 2008), the focus was mainly on internal~~

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143 ~~ycling of carbon and exchange at the air-water interface. Carbon export fluxes from the Chilka~~
144 ~~lake (Gupta et al., 2008) and Cochin estuary (Gupta et al., 2009) on east and west coast of India~~
145 ~~respectively were reported but their sources were not evaluated.~~

146 The stable isotopic composition of DIC ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$) is widely used to identify the major
147 sources of DIC in the aquatic systems (e.g. Singh et al., 2005; Tamoooh et al., 2013; Samanta et
148 al., 2015; Zou, 2016). ~~due to distinct isotopic composition of different sources (Deines et al.,~~
149 ~~1974).~~ The isotopic composition of DIC originated by dissolution of atmospheric CO_2 is about
150 0‰ (Coplen et al., 2002) whereas it is about -27 to -26‰ if the DIC is derived from oxidation of
151 organic matter produced by C_3 plants (O’Leary, 1988). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC generated by ~~soil CO_2~~
152 ~~dissolved~~ carbonic acid (formed by soil CO_2 dissolution) weathering of silicates is about -21 to -
153 17‰ (Solomon and Cerling, 1987) while it is in the range of -10 to -9‰ for carbonate rocks
154 because half of the carbon comes from carbonate rocks (0‰, Land, 1980) during weathering.
155 The weathering of silicate and carbonate minerals yield $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ in the range of -8 to -7‰ and -4
156 to -3‰, respectively, if the carbonic acid formed by the dissolution of atmospheric CO_2 . Though
157 the isotopic composition of DIC derived from different sources is distinctly differentis well
158 separable (Deines et al., 1974), the isotopic fractionation by internalin-stream physical and
159 biological processes alters the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ of source material (Fig. 2). For example, photosynthesis
160 and equilibration with atmospheric CO_2 enriches (O’Leary, 1988; Finlay, 2004; Parker et al.,
161 2005, 2010) while the heterotrophic decomposition of organic matter and photo-oxidation of
162 dissolved organic carbon depletes the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC (Opsahl and Zepp, 2001; Finlay, 2003;
163 Waldron et al., 2007; Vahatalo and Wetzel, 2008) (Fig. 2). Of these processes, equilibrium with
164 atmospheric CO_2 is of less significance because rivers are generally in disequilibrium with
165 atmospheric CO_2 (Raymond et al., 2013) and emit CO_2 to atmosphere due to oversaturation

166 (Oquist et al., 2009; Campeau et al., 2017). Nevertheless, the influence of internal processes
167 within the rivers must be considered ~~in the while~~ interpreting the ~~of~~ $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ results for
168 identification of DIC sources.

169 ~~Despite distinct isotopic composition of DIC is expected for different sources, the~~
170 ~~identification of DIC sources is still challenging (Amiotte Suchet et al., 1999; Campeau et al.,~~
171 ~~2017) due to isotopic fractionations associated with complex mixture of sources and processes~~
172 ~~such as photosynthesis (O'Leary, 1988; Finlay, 2004; Parker et al., 2005, 2010), respiration~~
173 ~~(Finlay, 2003; Waldron et al., 2007), DOC photo-oxidation (Opsahl and Zepp, 2001; Vahatalo~~
174 ~~and Wetzel, 2008), anaerobic metabolism (Waldron et al., 1999; Maher et al., 2015) and~~
175 ~~equilibration with atmospheric CO_2 .~~

176 ~~We made an effort for the first time to identify the major sources of DIC in the Indian~~
177 ~~monsoonal estuaries and quantify their export fluxes to the north Indian Ocean. The main~~
178 ~~objectives of this study are to (i) identify the major sources of DIC in the Indian monsoonal~~
179 ~~rivers, and (ii) estimate the export fluxes and yield of DIC in-to the north Indian Ocean and (iii)~~
180 ~~examine the major processes in the catchments and within the rivers controlling the DIC export~~
181 ~~fluxes byin the Indian monsoonal rivers, potential reasons responsible for DIC variability in the~~
182 ~~Indian monsoonal estuaries during the discharge (wet) period, and (iii) estimate the DIC export~~
183 ~~fluxes to the north Indian Ocean from the Indian monsoonal rivers.~~

184 **2. Study region, sampling and methods**

185 **2.1 Study Area**

186 The Indian peninsula bifurcates the north Indian Ocean into the Bay of Bengal and the
187 Arabian Sea. Although these two basins occupy the same latitudinal belt, their oceanographic

188 processes were reported to be remarkably different due to higher freshwater flux into the Bay of
189 Bengal ($1.63 \times 10^{12} \text{ m}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$) than to the Arabian Sea ($0.3 \times 10^{12} \text{ m}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$; Subramanian, 1993;
190 Gauns et al., 2005). The large freshwater influx leads to the formation of a strong vertical
191 salinity stratification in the Bay of Bengal (Varkey et al., 1996) that prevents vertical mixing of
192 nutrient rich sub-surface water with the surface (Prasanna Kumar et al., 2004). As a result, the
193 Bay of Bengal is considered to be relatively less productive (Prasannakumar et al., 2002) than
194 the adjacent Arabian Sea, which is one of the highly productive zones in the world (Madhupratap
195 et al., 1996; Smith, 2001; Barber et al., 2001) due to injection of nutrients into the surface
196 through the seasonal upwelling and convective mixing (Shetye et al., 1994; Madhupratap et al.,
197 1996; Muraleedharan and Prasannakumar, 1996).

198 Discharge from the Indian monsoonal rivers is largely fed by the monsoon induced
199 precipitation over the Indian subcontinent, which receives >80% of its annual rainfall during the
200 southwest (SW) monsoon period (June-September) (Soman and Kumar, 1990). Though some
201 amount of rainfall occurs during the northeast (NE) monsoon (December-March), it does not
202 generate discharge as it will be stored within the dam reservoirs for domestic, industrial and
203 irrigation purposes. Discharge from the Indian monsoonal rivers mainly occurs during the SW
204 monsoon season (Vijith et al., 2009; Sridevi et al., 2015) hence, these rivers are called as
205 monsoonal rivers. Since the major portion of the annual freshwater discharge ~~from Indian~~
206 ~~monsoonal rivers~~ occurs only during the SW monsoon, the entire estuary is filled with freshwater
207 (Vijith et al., 2009; Sridevi et al., 2015) during this period. As discharge is small during the rest
208 of the year, the discharge during the SW monsoon (wet period) is considered to be equivalent to
209 the annual discharge of the monsoonal rivers. Based on rainfall intensity, forest cover, vegetation
210 and soil type in the catchment, estuaries sampled in the present study were categorized into 4

211 groups, namely the ~~northeast-northwest~~ (NENW), ~~southeast-southwest~~ (SESW), ~~southwest~~
212 ~~southeast~~ (SWSE) and ~~northwest-northeast~~ (NWNNE) ~~estuaries-rivers~~ of India (Fig. 1). The SW
213 region of India is characterized by the intense rainfall during SW monsoon (~3000 mm)
214 following ~~the~~ NE (1000-2500 mm), SE (300-500 mm) and NW (200-500 mm) regions of India
215 (Soman and Kumar, 1990). The SW rivers drain red loamy soils while the NW rivers drain black
216 soils. Except the major rivers Godavari and Krishna, all the rivers reaching Bay of Bengal (NE
217 and SE ~~estuariesrivers~~) drain red loamy and alluvial soils in their upper and lower catchments
218 respectively. The Godavari and Krishna rivers drain black soils in their upper catchment ~~along~~
219 ~~withwhereas~~ red loamy and alluvial soils in their middle and lower catchments respectively
220 (Geological Survey of India; www.gsi.gov.in). Based on discharge, the monsoonal ~~estuaries~~
221 ~~rivers~~ in this study were divided into two types, namely, the major ($>150 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$) and medium
222 ($<150 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$) ~~estuariesrivers~~.

223 2.2 Sample collection

224 Water samples were collected ~~within the~~ ~~from the freshwater regions of the~~ estuaries
225 rather than from ~~mid-or-upstream rivers head waters~~ to obtain reliable export fluxes of DIC to the
226 coastal ocean. ~~Samples were collected at 2 to 3 locations to minimize the spatial variability~~
227 ~~within the freshwater zone of the estuary.~~ Further, to minimize the inter-annual variability in
228 DIC concentrations, sampling was conducted in two different years and the mean ~~is-was~~ used for
229 export flux estimations. ~~Each estuary was sampled at 3 to 5 locations between the upper (head)~~
230 ~~and lower (mouth) estuaries in order to minimize the spatial variability in DIC concentrations,~~
231 ~~and the mean concentrations are used for flux estimates.~~ Further, samples were collected in mid-
232 stream of the ~~estuary-river~~ using a local mechanized boat to avoid the contamination from river
233 banks.

234 *In-situ* measurements and sample collection were conducted in 27 ~~estuaries-rivers of the~~
235 ~~along the~~ Indian ~~east-subcontinent~~ (Fig. 1) during the SW monsoon season of the years, 2011
236 and 2014. Surface water samples at each location were collected for phytoplankton biomass
237 (Chl-*a*), DIC and dissolved oxygen (DO). Samples for DIC were collected in air-tight crimp-top
238 glass bottles and added poison (mercuric chloride) to arrest the biological activity. DO analysis
239 was carried out at a temporary shore laboratory set up for sample processing after the completion
240 of sampling on each day. Water samples were filtered through GF/F (nominal pore size of
241 0.7µm) under moderate vacuum and stored in liquid nitrogen for Chl-*a* analysis.

242 **2.3. Methods**

243 Temperature and salinity at the sampling locations were measured using a conductivity-
244 temperature-density (CTD) profiling system (Sea Bird Electronics, SBE 19 plus, United States of
245 America). Concentration of DO was determined by a Winkler's method (Carritt and Carpenter,
246 1966) using an auto titrator (Metrohm, Switzerland) with potentiometric end point detection.
247 The analytical precision of the method was ±0.07% (RSD). Dissolved oxygen saturation is
248 computed following formulations given by Garcia and Gordon (1992). DIC concentrations in
249 water samples were measured at our Institute laboratory using Coulometer (UIC Inc., USA)
250 connected to an automatic sub-sampling system. Based on the repeated analysis of samples and
251 standards, the precision of the method was ±0.02 mg l⁻¹. The certified reference materials
252 (CRM) supplied by Dr. A.G. Dickson, Scripps Institute of Oceanography, USA and internal
253 standards were used to test the accuracy of our DIC measurements and it was found to be within
254 ± 0.2 to 0.3%. Potentiometric Gran titration method (Metrohm, Switzerland) was used for
255 determination of pH and total alkalinity and followed the standard operating procedures given by
256 Department of Energy (DOE) (1998).

257 | The stable carbon isotopic composition of DIC in the water was measured on Gas Bench
258 | coupled with isotope ratio mass spectrometer (EA-IRMS-Delta V, Finnigan, Germany). 50 ml
259 | air-tight bottles with rubber septa were filled with 0.5 ml of high purity ortho-phosphoric acid
260 | and purged with high purity helium. About 1 ml of water sample is injected to the bottle and
261 | incubated at constant temperature of 50°C for 12 hours. The CO₂ extracted into the head space is
262 | injected to the IRMS through gas bench. The results are expressed relative to conventional
263 | standards, that is, Pee Dee Belemnite (PDB) limestone for carbon (Coplen, 1996) as δ values,
264 | defined as:

265 |
$$\delta R = [(X_{\text{sample}} - X_{\text{standard}}) / X_{\text{standard}}] \times 10^3 \text{ ‰}$$

267 | where R refers to ¹³C and X stands for ¹³C/¹²C. The high-purity tank of CO₂ was used as working
269 | standard for carbon. These gases were calibrated with IAEA standards. Standard deviation on 20
270 | aliquots of the same sample was lower than 0.05‰ for δ¹³C. Chlorophyll-*a* (Chl-*a*) on the filter
271 | was extracted into di-methyl formamide (DMF) and measured the extract fluorometrically using
272 | a spectrofluorometer (Varian Eclipse, Varian Electronics., UK) following Suzuki and
273 | Ishimaru (1990). Annual mean discharge data of the rivers was taken from Meybeck and Ragu
274 | (1995, 1996), Central Water Commission, New Delhi (2006, 2012) and Kumar et al. (2005).
275 | Catchment area of the rivers was obtained from Water Resources Information System of India
276 | (WRIS, www.india-wris.nrsc.gov.in). Soil organic carbon data was taken from Kishwan et al.
277 | (2009) and Sreenivas et al. (2016), and the rainfall data was obtained from Soman and Kumar
278 | (1990). Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) data for the Indian estuaries-rivers was taken from
279 | Krishna et al. (2015)

280 | Total export flux of DIC from each river was estimated by multiplying the mean
281 | concentrations of DIC in an estuary at near zero salinity (river end member) with the annual

282 discharge. Spatial variability of DIC concentrations ~~in estuaries~~within the river was minimized
283 to a large extent by collecting samples from ~~head to mouth of the estuary~~2 to 3 locations in each
284 river while the inter-annual variability by collecting samples during discharge periods of two
285 years. However, variability in DIC concentrations within the discharge period results in some
286 uncertainties in our estimations of DIC export fluxes. Time series measurements in the Godavari
287 estuary (our unpublished results) revealed that the variability in DIC concentrations within the
288 discharge period is up to 10%. Therefore, the error associated with our DIC flux estimates may
289 be about 10%. DIC fluxes normalized by catchment area (yield) ~~were~~was calculated by dividing
290 the total DIC export flux of the river by its catchment area.

291 3. Results

292 3.1. Hydrographic characteristics

293 Surface water temperatures ~~was~~were higher in rivers from the NE and SE regions (mean
294 30.9±1.2°C) than in rivers from the SW and NW regions (27.3±1.5°C) of India~~estuaries located~~
295 ~~on the east coast (mean 30.9±1.2°C) than the west coast (27.3±1.5°C) of India.~~ Salinity varied
296 broadly from near zero (0.1) to 28.8 during the study period. Relatively higher salinities (>20)
297 were recorded by the medium estuaries, which receives relatively lower freshwater discharge
298 from the upstream river, for example, Nagavali (28.8), Vaigai (24.6) and Rushikulya (20.7).
299 Mean salinities were lower in the west-flowing NW (0.1±0.02) and SW (2.1±2.8) estuaries than
300 the east flowing SE (9.5±7.8) and NE (8.5±11) estuaries. Dissolved oxygen saturation varied
301 from as low as 63% to as high as 105%, with a mean saturation of 90±11% in the ~~estuaries~~rivers
302 sampled. The rivers from the SW region of India ~~estuaries recorded slightly lower DO~~more
303 unsaturation of DO (82±7%) than the rivers located in the NE (89±15%), NW (93±3%) and SE
304 (96±11%) ~~estuaries~~regions of India. Chlorophyll-*a* (Chl-*a*) concentrations varied broadly from

305 0.8 to 7.5 mg m⁻³, with relatively higher mean concentrations in the rivers of the SE region
306 (4.7±2.5 mg m⁻³) followed by the SW (2.8±0.7 mg m⁻³) estuaries regions of India. On the other
307 hand, relatively low Chl-*a* was observed in the medium (2.6±1.3 mg m⁻³) than in the major
308 estuaries (3.2±2.1 mg m⁻³).

309 3.2 DIC concentrations and $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$

310 DIC concentrations in the Indian monsoonal estuaries-rivers widely varied from 3.4
311 (Bharathappuzha) to ~~44.4~~ 73.6 mg l⁻¹ (Vellar), with a significant spatial variability (Fig. 23a;
312 Table 1). ~~More than five times higher~~ Highest mean DIC concentrations ~~were was~~ observed in rivers
313 of the SE region (36.337.4±6.3 mg l⁻¹) while the lowest was found in the SW region (5.2±2.1 mg
314 l⁻¹) of India. Intermediate values were found in rivers of the and NW estuaries (30.328.4±8.9 mg
315 l⁻¹) than in the SW (6.6±2.1 mg l⁻¹) and NE estuaries (19.517.1±6.2 mg l⁻¹) regions of India. DIC
316 concentrations were found to be similar in the major (22.7±13.6 mg l⁻¹) and medium (21.1±13.2
317 mg l⁻¹) estuaries-rivers (homoscedastic Student's t-test; p=0.76). Mean DIC concentration found
318 in this study (21.4±16.3 mg l⁻¹) is similar to those observed earlier in the major river systems in of
319 India (Brahmaputra; Singh et al., 2005) and elsewhere in the world, for example, British rivers
320 (Jarvie et al., 2017) and Swedish rivers (Campeau et al., 2017) . However, DIC concentrations in
321 the present study are higher than those found in some of the Asian rivers of tropical region (12.7
322 mg l⁻¹, Huang et al., 2012) and the global mean DIC (10.3 mg l⁻¹, Meybeck and Vorosmarty,
323 1999) (Table 1), but lower than those reported in the rivers draining into the Gulf of Trieste (N
324 Adriatic; 37-66 mg l⁻¹, Tamse et al., 2014). The $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ varied from -13.0 to 2.5 1.4‰, with a
325 significant spatial variability (Fig. 3d) in the estuaries rivers sampled. Relatively depleted $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$
326 values were observed in the west flowing estuaries rivers of the NW region (-11.1±2.3‰) while
327 enriched $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ and was found in rivers of SW (-7.4±1.9‰) than the east flowing estuaries of

328 ~~NE (-3.5±2.8%) and the SE region (-2.76±5.2%) regions of India. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ values found in~~
329 ~~this study are well within the range of values reported earlier in rivers of India (Das et al., 2005)~~
330 ~~and elsewhere in the world, for example, Swedish streams (-27.6 to -0.6‰; Campeau et al.,~~
331 ~~2017).~~

332 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ varied from -13.0 to -1.4‰, with a significant spatial variability (Fig. 3d;
333 Table 1) in the rivers sampled. Relatively depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ values were observed in the rivers of
334 the NW region (-11.1±2.3‰) while enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ was found in rivers of the SE region (-
335 3.5±2.3‰) of India (Fig. 3d). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ values found in this study are well within the range of
336 values reported earlier in rivers of India (Das et al., 2005) and elsewhere in the world, for
337 example, Swedish streams (-27.6 to -0.6‰; Campeau et al., 2017) and rivers from Italy and
338 Slovenia (-12.8 to -7.7‰, Tamse et al., 2014).

339

340 3.3. Export fluxes and yield of DIC

341 Annual export flux of DIC to the coastal ocean from the individual estuaries-rivers varied
342 broadly from 0.01 Tg (Chalakkudi) to as high as 2.33 Tg (Krishna) (Fig. 3b; Table 1). Among the
343 rivers sampled, The rivers of the NE region of India-estuaries export higher DIC flux (4.26.52 Tg
344 yr⁻¹) while the lowest was found from rivers of the SW region of India (0.24 Tg yr⁻¹) (Table 1).
345 followed by the SE (3.5 Tg yr⁻¹) and NW estuaries (2.4 Tg yr⁻¹). In contrast, the SW estuaries
346 recorded the lowest export flux of 0.3 Tg yr⁻¹ which is an order of magnitude lower than that of
347 the export flux by other estuaries (Fig. 2). The Indian monsoonal estuaries-rivers together export
348 about 10.432 Tg yr⁻¹ of DIC to the northern Indian Ocean, of which 7.781 Tg (7475%) enters
349 into the Bay of Bengal and the remaining into the Arabian Sea (2.751 Tg). The estuaries

350 ~~Krishna (2.3 Tg yr⁻¹), Godavari (1.5 Tg yr⁻¹) and Haldia (1.2 Tg yr⁻¹) together responsible for the~~
351 ~~transport of 65% of total riverine DIC export to the Bay of Bengal. The yield of DIC ranged~~
352 ~~from 2.7–8 (Bharathapuzha) to 21.6–20.7 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ (MandoviBaitarani) (Fig. 3c; Table 1),~~
353 ~~excluding the exceptionally high yield of 113–119.4 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ from Haldia estuaryriver. The mean~~
354 ~~yield was found to be more or less similar in rivers from all the four regions of India, i.e. NW~~
355 ~~(8.4 g m⁻² yr⁻¹), SW (8.8 g m⁻² yr⁻¹), SE (6.6 g m⁻² yr⁻¹) and SE (7.7 g m⁻² yr⁻¹) regions. The west~~
356 ~~flowing rivers to the Arabian Sea are characterized by relatively higher yield of DIC (mean~~
357 ~~10.4±5.6 g m⁻² yr⁻¹) than the east flowing rivers to the Bay of Bengal (7.3±4.6 g m⁻² yr⁻¹).~~
358 ~~Despite the export flux of DIC is lowest from rivers of the SW region (0.24 Tg yr⁻¹),~~
359 ~~interestingly, the yield from rivers of this region is on par (even slightly higher) with the other~~
360 ~~Indian monsoonal rivers (Table 1; Fig. 3b&c). The yields of DIC found in this study are similar~~
361 ~~to those observed in rivers elsewhere in the world (Huang et al., 2012). Among the estuaries~~
362 ~~sampled, the SW and SE estuaries recorded higher (10.8±6.6 g m⁻² yr⁻¹) and lower (5.8±2.3 g m⁻²~~
363 ~~yr⁻¹) yields of DIC respectively whereas intermediate values were noticed in the NW (9.5±4.0 g~~
364 ~~m⁻² yr⁻¹) and NE (8.6±5.7 g m⁻² yr⁻¹) estuaries.~~

3.4 Stable C isotopes of DIC ($\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$)

366 ~~The $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ varied from -13.0 to -1.4‰, with a significant spatial variability (Fig. 3d;~~
367 ~~Table 1) in the rivers sampled. Relatively depleted $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values were observed in the rivers of~~
368 ~~the NW region (-11.1±2.3‰) while enriched $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ was found in rivers of the SE region (-~~
369 ~~2.6±5.2‰) of India (Fig. 3d). The $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values found in this study are well within the range of~~
370 ~~values reported earlier in rivers of India (Das et al., 2005) and elsewhere in the world, for~~
371 ~~example, Swedish streams (-27.6 to -0.6‰; Campeau et al., 2017) and rivers from Italy and~~
372 ~~Slovenia (-12.8 to -7.7‰, Tamse et al., 2014).~~

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374 4. Discussion

375 Hydrographic characteristics of the Indian monsoonal estuaries during the study
376 (discharge) period were described elsewhere (Sarma et al., 2012, 2014; Krishna et al., 2015).
377 Strong flow from upstream rivers due to heavy precipitation over the catchment makes most of
378 the estuaries less saline (near zero) during the study period, except the medium estuaries,
379 Nagavali, Vaigai and Rushikulya. No vertical salinity stratification was observed in all estuaries
380 sampled during the study period and it is consistent with earlier observations in Godavari and
381 Mandovi estuaries (Vijith et al., 2009; Sridevi et al., 2015). This is the unique feature of the
382 Indian estuaries as strong stratification occurs in the European and American estuaries following
383 discharge (Christopher et al., 2002). This difference is mainly caused by high discharge in
384 shorter period in the Indian than other estuaries in the world (Vijith et al., 2009).

385 4.1 Distribution and sources of DIC in the Indian monsoonal estuaries rivers

386 Mean DIC concentration found in this study ($21.9\text{--}13.2\text{ mg l}^{-1}$) is similar to those
387 observed earlier in the Indian estuaries such as Ganga Brahmaputra and Hooghly (Singh et al.,
388 2005, Samanta et al., 2015), and in estuaries elsewhere in the world, for example York, Yangtze,
389 Seri and Xi etc (Raymond and Bauer, 2000, Cai et al., 2008, Ishikawa et al., 2015; Zou, 2016)
390 (Table 1). The DIC concentrations in the Indian estuaries are higher than those found in some of
391 the Asian rivers of tropical region (12.7 mg l^{-1} , Huang et al., 2012) and the global mean (10.3 mg
392 l^{-1} , Meybeck and Vorosmarty, 1999) (Table 1), but lower than those reported in the rivers
393 draining into the Gulf of Trieste (N Adriatic; $37\text{--}66\text{ mg l}^{-1}$, Tamse et al., 2014) (Table 1).
394 Distribution of DIC concentrations in the Indian monsoonal rivers showed large spatial

395 variability, with the lowest values in rivers from the SW region of India (Fig. 3a). DIC
396 concentrations in rivers are known to be influenced by the intensity of precipitation over the
397 catchment, basin lithology, length of the fluvial network (Hotchkiss et al., 2015) and in-stream
398 physical and biological processes (Mook and Tan, 1991; Raymond et al., 2008). The spatial
399 distribution of rainfall over the Indian subcontinent (www.imd.gov.in) shows that the SW region
400 receives the highest annual rainfall (2500±500~3000 mm) than the rest of the India (Soman and
401 Kumar, 1990). Among the estuaries sampled along the Indian coast, the SW estuaries are
402 characterized by significantly lower mean concentrations of DIC (6.6±2.1 mg l⁻¹) than the SE
403 (36.3±6.3 mg l⁻¹), NE (19.5±6.2 mg l⁻¹) and NW (30.3±8.9 mg l⁻¹) estuaries (Table 2). This
404 could be due to considerable spatial variations in the (i) hydrological, lithological and
405 environmental conditions in the catchments and (ii) in stream physical and

406 biogeochemical processes.

407 *4.1.1. The impact of hydrological conditions*

408 The SW region of India receives the highest amount of precipitation during the SW
409 monsoon (2500±500 mm) than the SE (400±50 mm), NE (1000±200 mm) and NW (750±250
410 mm) regions of India (Table 2) (Soman and Kumar, 1990). The intense precipitation in over the
411 SW region is expected to cause higher weathering rates and therefore thus higher DIC in rivers
412 (e.g., Gupta et al., 2011), but lower DIC concentrations were found in rivers from of this (the
413 SW) region estuaries. This is attributed It could be due to the influence of dilution because the
414 dense precipitation over the small catchment area of the rivers from this region (Table 1) might
415 have diluted DIC concentrations in rivers of this region. In order to understand the influence of
416 the density of rainfall on DIC in rivers, we normalized the volume of discharge from the river

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417 with its catchment area. The catchment area -normalized volume of discharge was found to be
418 much higher in the SW estuaries rivers from the SW region ($1.71 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-2}$) than ~~in the rivers~~
419 ~~from the~~ SE ($0.17 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-2}$), NE ($0.6 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-2}$) and NW ($0.32 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-2}$) estuaries regions of India.
420 About three times higher catchment area normalized discharge might have diluted DIC
421 concentrations in the SW estuaries rivers of the former region. A strong negative
422 ~~correlation~~ exponential decrease in DIC concentrations with increasing the rainfall over the
423 catchment ~~between precipitation in the catchment and DIC concentration in estuaries~~ ($r^2 = -$
424 0.8972 , $p < 0.001$; Fig. 4a) also suggests that DIC concentration in Indian estuaries rivers are
425 ~~rather controlled~~ strongly influenced by the intensity density of precipitation over the catchment.
426 Dilution of DIC by heavy precipitation in the SW region can also be seen from relatively
427 depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ values ($-7.4 \pm 1.9\%$) in the SW estuaries because the shorter residence time of
428 soil water depletes the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ due to preferential dissolution of $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ over $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ (Amiotte
429 Suchet et al., 1999).

430 Since many of the hydrological processes are largely dependent on the size of the river
431 and its catchment area, these two factors may govern the concentrations of DIC in estuaries. The
432 lower concentrations of DIC in the SW estuaries may possibly due to smaller catchment area
433 as The rRivers from of the SW rivers region are relatively small in size, both in terms of
434 discharge ($46 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and catchment area (total catchment area: $0.0220 \times 10^3 \text{ M km}^2$) and the
435 length of the river (mean length: 126 km), than the rivers from other regions (that of SE, NE and
436 NW) of India (Table 1) rivers (Table 2). Since the contribution of DIC from in-stream processes,
437 such as decomposition of organic matter, has been demonstrated to increase along the course of
438 the fluvial network (Hotchkiss et al., 2015), possibly due to increase in the residence time of
439 water (Catalan et al., 2016), the lowest DIC concentrations found in rivers from the SW region

440 may also, at least partly, be due to their small size. Fairly good positive correlation between DIC
441 concentrations and length of the rivers ($r^2=0.38$, $p<0.01$; Fig. 4eb) also support this argument.
442 The concentrations of DIC in the Indian estuaries showed a significant positive relationship with
443 catchment area ($r^2=0.76$; $p<0.001$; Fig. 4b) and a negative relationship with volume of discharge
444 ($r^2=0.57$; $p<0.001$; Fig. 4c) only in the medium estuaries (discharge: $<150\text{ m}^3\text{ s}^{-1}$), suggesting
445 that an area of catchment and magnitude of discharge controls DIC concentrations largely in the
446 medium estuaries rather than in the major estuaries. It could be due to the influence of in-stream
447 processes as the major rivers are long compared to the medium rivers.

448 ~~Mixing with seawater and exchange of submarine ground water also influence DIC~~
449 ~~concentrations in the estuaries. Since this study was conducted during the SW monsoon, many~~
450 ~~of the estuaries are filled with freshwater (salinity >1) due to maximum discharge during this~~
451 ~~period. On the other hand, higher salinities (>20) were observed in some medium estuaries,~~
452 ~~namely, Rushikulya, Nagavali and Vaigai recorded higher salinities (>20) due to low flow from~~
453 ~~upstream river. A strong positive correlation was found between $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ and salinity (Fig. 4d;~~
454 ~~$r^2=0.71$, $p<0.001$), suggesting that DIC in the Indian estuaries is also influenced by the intrusion~~
455 ~~of marine waters particularly in medium estuaries. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ values were found to be $>0\text{‰}$ in~~
456 ~~Rushikulya, Nagavali and Vaigai estuaries (0.1, 0.7 and 2.5‰ respectively) suggesting that~~
457 ~~major contribution of DIC in these estuaries is from intrusion of marine water.~~

458 ~~As found in many estuaries over the world, submarine groundwater discharge is found to~~
459 ~~contribute up to 52% of DIC in the Godavari estuary (Rengarajan and Sarma, 2015) due to~~
460 ~~higher concentrations of DIC by 3 to 4 times in in the ground water than estuary. The~~
461 ~~measured DIC concentrations in ground waters along the entire Indian coast suggest relatively~~
462 ~~lower concentrations in the SW (mean $32\pm 19\text{ mg l}^{-1}$) than the SE, NE and NW regions of India~~

463 ~~(Table 2) during discharge period (Dr. BSK Kumar, personal communication). Exchange of~~
464 ~~SW estuaries with ground water with relatively lower DIC concentrations might have possibly~~
465 ~~yielded low DIC concentrations. Nevertheless it is difficult to ascertain the impact of ground~~
466 ~~water exchange yielded low DIC in the SW estuaries due to lack of submarine ground water~~
467 ~~discharge rates.~~

468 *4.1.2. The impact of in-stream processes*

469 The major physical and biological processes ~~within the rivers that controlling the DIC~~
470 concentrations ~~in rivers~~ are the exchange with atmospheric CO₂, autotrophic removal and
471 heterotrophic addition of DIC. Since the Indian monsoonal estuaries have been reported to be a
472 source of CO₂ to the atmosphere during the discharge period ~~due to heterotrophic decomposition~~
473 ~~of organic matter~~ (Sarma et al., 2001, 2011, 2012; Gupta et al., 2008, 2009; Bhavya et al., 2018),
474 the DIC input from ~~the~~ dissolution of atmospheric CO₂ ~~can be ruled out~~ ~~thus may be unlikely.~~
475 ~~On the other hand, CO₂ release due to heterotrophic decomposition of organic matter~~
476 ~~decomposition is expected to~~ adds significant amount of DIC ~~to the Indian estuaries during this~~
477 ~~period~~ as enhanced bacterial respiration rates were reported ~~in the Indian estuaries during the~~
478 ~~study period~~ (Sarma et al., 2011; 2012). ~~In contrast, significant negative correlation between~~
479 ~~chlorophyll-*a* and DIC (r²=-0.44, p<0.01; Fig. 4c), except few SE ~~estuaries rivers~~ where elevated~~
480 ~~phytoplankton biomass (Chl-*a*: >5 mg m⁻³) was recorded, suggesting that autotrophic removal of~~
481 ~~DIC is also significant in the Indian monsoonal rivers during the study period. A significant~~
482 ~~positive relationship was observed between the δ¹³C_{DIC} and Chl-*a* (r²=0.5049; p<0.01; Fig. 4d),~~
483 ~~supporting this argument because preferential uptake of ¹²C than ¹³C during photosynthesis~~
484 ~~leaves the residual DIC enriched in ¹³C. On the other hand, δ¹³C_{DIC} showed significant positive~~
485 ~~correlation with DO saturation (r²=0.50, p<0.01; Fig. 4e); (depleted δ¹³C_{DIC} values at more under~~

486 saturation of DO) and DOC concentrations ($r^2=0.43$, $p<0.01$; Fig. 4f) as was observed in the Xi
487 river (Zou et al., 2016). Altogether, enriched $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ are associated with higher DOC, less under
488 saturation of DO and higher phytoplankton biomass (Chl-a) while the depleted $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ are
489 associated more under saturation of DO and less DOC. This suggests that both autotrophic
490 removal and heterotrophic addition control DIC in the Indian rivers during the discharge period,
491 with a considerable ~~regional~~spatial variability. However, influence of these processes on DIC
492 concentrations is difficult to separate with this bulk $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ data set, as the $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ in rivers is
493 also influenced by pollution, catchment lithology and outgassing of CO_2 (Shin et al., 2011;
494 Brunet et al., 2005; Bouvillion et al., 2009; Zeng et al., 2011; Tamooh et al., 2013). Excluding
495 Sabarmati and Mahisagar rivers, DIC concentrations showed fairly good linear relationship with
496 population density over the catchment of the river, suggesting that considerable influence of
497 pollution from the mega cities and industries on DIC in the Indian rivers. A fairly good positive
498 correlation between DIC and DOC concentrations ($r^2=0.34$, $p<0.01$; Fig. 4e), except few medium
499 estuaries, suggests that DIC addition through microbial degradation of organic matter seems to
500 be possible source in the Indian estuaries. A positive correlation between $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ and DOC was
501 observed, with different slope for NW estuaries ($r^2=0.43$, $p<0.01$; Fig. 4f), confirming that
502 oxidation of organic matter may be one of the major DIC sources in the Indian monsoonal
503 estuaries. Similar relationship was also observed in the Xi river (Zou et al., 2016). The range of
504 $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ (-13.0 to 2.5‰) in the Indian monsoonal estuaries is distinctly enriched than that of the
505 $\delta^{13}C$ of DIC derived from decomposition of terrestrial C_3 plant derived organic matter (-27 to-
506 26‰, O'Leary, 1988; Fig. 5), suggesting that DIC might have been contributed from
507 decomposition of terrestrial C_4 plants (-17 to -13‰, Krishna et al., 2015) and weathering of
508 silicate and carbonate rocks. In addition, if weathering occurs due to dissolution of silicate and

509 carbonate rocks due to atmospheric CO₂, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ yields -8 to -7‰ and -4 to -3‰
510 respectively. On the other hand, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ would be -10 to -9‰ and -21 to -17‰ (Solomon and
511 Cerling, 1987) if the dissolution of silicate and carbonate rocks occurs due to soil CO₂
512 respectively. As discussed above, flux of CO₂ from atmosphere to river cannot be expected due
513 to super saturation of riverine CO₂, weathering of silicate and carbonate rocks by dissolution of
514 soil CO₂ may be possible. Though isotopic composition of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ derived from decomposition
515 of C₄ plants and weathering due to soil CO₂ are similar and difficult to separate, Sarma et al.
516 (2014) measured isotopic composition of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{POC}}$ and found that >90% of the POC is contributed
517 by C₃ plants. Hence possible contribution of DIC through decomposition of C₄ plants may be
518 negated.

519 Significant negative correlation between chlorophyll *a* and DIC ($r^2=0.44$, $p<0.01$; Fig.
520 6a), except few SE estuaries where elevated phytoplankton biomass (Chl *a*: >5 mg m⁻³) was
521 recorded, suggesting that autotrophic removal of DIC may be possible sink in the Indian
522 monsoonal estuaries during the study period. This process would enrich $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ of residual DIC
523 due to preferential removal of ¹²CO₂ over ¹³CO₂ during photosynthesis. A positive relationship
524 was observed between $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ and Chl *a* in the Indian estuaries ($r^2=0.50$; $p<0.01$), suggesting
525 that biological removal of DIC enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$. In contrast, heterotrophic decomposition of
526 organic matter (respiration) depletes $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ due to release of ¹²CO₂ over ¹³CO₂ during this
527 process. Due to lack of respiration rates data, we could not able to evaluate its influence.
528 Nevertheless, the dissolved oxygen saturation stores the net effect of biological production and
529 heterotrophic respiration. In order to confirm the net biological influence on $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$, the same
530 is correlated with DO saturation and found significant positive correlation ($r^2=0.50$, $p<0.01$; Fig.
531 6b), (depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ values at low DO saturation), except NW estuaries, which recorded

532 depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ ($< -10.0\%$) confirming that biological processes enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ in the Indian
533 monsoonal estuaries. CO_2 out gassing due to heterotrophic decomposition of organic matter and
534 equilibrium with atmospheric CO_2 results in the enrichment of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ in reservoirs/dams and
535 stored water bodies (Shin et al., 2011; Brunet et al., 2005; Bouvillion et al., 2009; Zeng et al.,
536 2011; Tamooh et al., 2013). As many of the east flowing river (e.g. Godavari, Krishna and
537 Cauvery etc) were dammed at many locations for domestic, industrial and irrigation purposes.,
538 relatively enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ in these estuaries might have been influenced by storage of water
539 besides sources of DIC. A significant positive correlation between DIC concentrations and
540 $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ ($r^2=0.76$; $p<0.001$; Fig. 6e), excluding the positive $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ values, indicate that
541 significant contribution of DIC is from oxidation of organic carbon in dams/reservoirs or stored
542 water bodies. Therefore, DIC in the Indian estuaries are contributed by weathering of silicate
543 and carbonate rocks due to soil CO_2 , biological production, organic matter decomposition and
544 exchange of CO_2 to the atmosphere.

545 *4.1.3. The impact of catchment lithology*

546 ~~Spatial distribution of bedrocks and soils over the Indian subcontinent shows that~~
547 ~~Narmada and Tapti rivers located in the NW region of India and upper reaches of Godavari and~~
548 ~~Krishna rivers drain over the igneous rocks (Deccan traps) while the other rivers flow over the~~
549 ~~metamorphic rocks (Pre-Cambrian), which are the predominant rock type in south India.~~
550 ~~However, Haldia and lower reaches of the SE rivers drain over the sedimentary rocks~~
551 ~~(Geological Survey of India, <https://www.gsi.gov.in>). Though higher chemical weathering~~
552 ~~rates were reported in the Deccan Trap basalts (Das et al., 2005; Singh et al., 2005), higher DIC~~
553 ~~concentrations were also observed in estuaries draining over the metamorphic rocks, suggesting~~
554 ~~that other factors may also be governing the concentrations of DIC, than the bedrocks in the~~

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555 ~~catchment. The broad range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ found in this study (-13.0 to -2.5‰) also indicates that~~
556 ~~DIC contribution is from variable sources such as weathering of carbonate and silicate rocks by~~
557 ~~carbonic acid derived from dissolution of soil CO_2 (10 to 9‰ and 21 to 17‰ respectively,~~
558 ~~Solomon and Cerling, 1987), decomposition of organic matter and marine water (0 to 2‰) (Fig.~~
559 ~~5).~~

560 ~~—— Spatial distribution of soils shows that rivers of the NW region of India and upper reaches~~
561 ~~of Krishna and Godavari rivers drain the lime-rich black soils (Fig. 1) while rivers from the SW~~
562 ~~region drain red loamy soils. Whereas, the east-flowing rivers drain the lime-poor red sandy soils~~
563 ~~in the upper but lime-rich alluvial soils in the lower reaches (Fig.1). Lateritic soils, which are~~
564 ~~poor in lime and silicate, occupied the catchment of the rivers in the SW region of India. rivers.~~
565 ~~Relatively lower chemical weathering rates are relatively lower inof the lateritic than the non-~~
566 ~~lateritic soils and the consumption of atmospheric/soil CO_2 through silicate weathering is lower~~
567 ~~by 2 times in the former than the latter (Boeglin and Probst, 1998)could be one of the reasons~~
568 ~~for the observed lower DIC concentration the rivers from SW region of India. A significant~~
569 ~~positive correlation was found between total alkalinity (TA) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ ($r^2=0.52$; $p<0.01$; Fig.~~
570 ~~4gh), suggesting that significant contribution of DIC is from weathering of carbonate minerals in~~
571 ~~the catchment. Though the higher chemical weathering rates were reported for the Deccan Trap~~
572 ~~basalts (Das et al., 2005; Singh et al., 2005) which occupied the catchments of rivers of the NW~~
573 ~~region of India and upper reaches of Godavari and Krishna, higher DIC concentrations were also~~
574 ~~observed in rivers draining over the metamorphic rocks. This suggests that the influences of~~
575 ~~factors other than bedrock are also significant on the concentrations of DIC in the Indian rivers.~~
576 ~~The upper reaches of the east flowing rivers (NE and SE) drain over the lime poor red and~~
577 ~~yellow soils, while lower reaches drain predominantly the lime rich alluvial soils. Upper reaches~~

578 of Krishna and Godavari also drain over the lime-rich black soils. The dominance of lateritic
579 soils, which are relatively less susceptible to chemical weathering than the non-lateritic soils in
580 the catchments of the SW rivers could be possible reason for lower DIC concentrations in SW
581 estuaries. The enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ in the SW estuaries ($-7.4 \pm 1.9\%$) may also be due to less
582 contribution of DIC from lateritic soils as these soils are poor in lime (-10 to -9%) and silicate ($-$
583 21 to -17%) and less susceptible to chemical weathering rates.

584 **4.2 Major sources of DIC in the Indian Monsoonal rivers**

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585 The range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ (-13.0 to -1.4%) in the Indian monsoonal rivers is distinctly
586 different from that of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC derived from dissolution of soil CO_2 produced by the
587 decomposition of terrestrial C_3 plant organic matter ($\sim 22\%$, O'Leary, 1988; Campeau et al.,
588 2017; Fig. 5), suggesting that contribution of DIC from dissolution of soil CO_2 is of less
589 significance. However, the observed range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ is close to the range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ derived
590 from weathering of silicate and carbonate rocks by atmospheric CO_2 (-8 to -7% and -4 to -3%
591 respectively) and soil CO_2 (-10 to -9% and -21 to -17% , respectively) (Solomon and Cerling,
592 1987), suggesting the major fraction of DIC is of geogenic origin in general and weathering of
593 carbonate mineral in particular.

594 Though, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ is a promising tool to decipher the sources of DIC, its interpretation
595 for source material identification in rivers is still challenging due to the influence of multiple
596 physical and biological processes within the rivers, which significantly alter the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ of
597 source. The influence of major in-stream processes on the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ must be separated before
598 interpreting the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ results for interpretation of major sources of DIC, failing which leads to
599 erroneous conclusions. In order to identify and separate DIC sources, we used here two

600 ~~independent~~~~different~~ graphical mixing model techniques, Keeling plot (Keeling, 1958; Pataki et
601 al., 2003) and Miller-Tans plots (Miller and Tans, 2003). These models approximate the
602 hypothetical $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of source material as an intercept (in Keeling plot) and slope (in Miller-Tans
603 plot) of the least square linear regression equations (Pataki et al., 2003; Campeau et al., 2017).
604 The deviations from the approximated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of source ~~material~~ can be interpreted to the influence
605 of in-stream processes. Further, we approximated the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO_2 using a set of enrichment
606 factors of isotopic fractionation across the carbonate species (Zhang et al., 1995) in order to filter
607 the impact of DIC speciation and pH on the bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ values. This approach has already
608 been used by Quay et al. (1992), Mayorga et al. (2005) and recently by Campeau et al. (2017).

609 Significant negative relationships were observed in both Keeling plot ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ as a
610 function of $1/\text{DIC}$; Fig. 5a) and Miller-Tans plot ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}} \times \text{DIC}$ as a function of DIC ; Fig. 5b)
611 ($r^2=0.61$, $p<0.01$ and $r^2=0.72$, $p<0.01$ respectively) of ~~DIC in the~~ Indian rivers, except the rivers
612 draining the Deccan Trap basalts. Both graphical mixing models, Keeling and Muller-Tans plots,
613 approximated the similar $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of source material (-3.0‰ and -2.0‰ respectively; Fig. 5a&b-d),
614 suggesting that weathering of carbonate minerals is the predominant source of DIC in the Indian
615 monsoonal rivers rather than biogenic soil CO_2 . Calculated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO_2 ranged from -21.5 to
616 9.6‰ in the Indian rivers with a mean value of $-13.0 \pm 2.7\%$. ~~Calculated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO_2 is linearly~~
617 ~~correlated with measured bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$, but correlation coefficient (r^2) is only 0.51 (Fig. 5c),~~
618 ~~suggesting that significant spatial variability in the influence of in-stream processes on $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$.~~
619 The Miller-Tans plot of CO_2 ($\delta^{13}\text{C}-\text{CO}_2 \times \text{CO}_2$ as a function of CO_2) showed highly significant
620 ($r^2=0.97$; $p<0.001$) linear regression model with a slope of -10.7‰ ($r^2=0.97$; $p<0.001$; Fig. 5e-d).
621 These results indicated that DIC in the Indian rivers is largely contributed by chemical
622 weathering of carbonate and silicate minerals by soil CO_2 (-10 to -9%). ~~D. However, deviations~~

623 ~~of the bulkmeasured $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ observed in the rivers (-13.0 to -1.4‰) from that of the~~
624 ~~approximated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC source (-3.0 to -2.0‰) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO_2 (-10.7‰) could be due to the~~
625 ~~influence of in-stream process. In more than 70% of the Indian rivers sampled, Since the~~
626 ~~deviation from the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC source is towards negative side (depletion) in many rivers~~
627 ~~($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}} < -3.0\%$), suggesting that h₂Heterotrophic decomposition of organic matter is the~~
628 ~~dominant process that controls DIC in these rivers in 70% of the Indian rivers sampled because~~
629 ~~$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ in these rivers is depleted than the approximated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC source. While, no (or very~~
630 ~~little) deviation was observed only in- rivers from the SE region of India (mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$: -3.1‰)~~
631 ~~could be due to the competition between autotrophy, degassing and heterotrophy as these two~~
632 ~~processes influences the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ in opposite directions (Fig. 2); the former two processes causes~~
633 ~~enrichment while the latter depletes $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$. It is consistent with Relatively higher phytoplankton~~
634 ~~biomass (mean Chl-a: 4.6 mg m⁻³) and nearless unsaturation of DO (98.7%) was observed in~~
635 ~~these rivers compared to the mean of the rest of the Indian rivers from other region of India (2.4~~
636 ~~mg m⁻³ and 87.5% respectively), suggesting that autotrophy is one of the dominant processes~~
637 ~~controlling the DIC in rivers from the SE region of India. Total number of dams on the rivers~~
638 ~~from this (SE) region (mean 155, Table 1) is not significantly higher from that of the mean of~~
639 ~~total number of dams on the Indian rivers sampled (mean 135) , suggesting that degassing due to~~
640 ~~storage of water may not be the dominant process responsible for enrichment in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ of these~~
641 ~~rivers.~~

643 **4.2.3 Total DIC export by the Indian monsoonal rivers to the north Indian Ocean**

644 Indian monsoonal rivers annually export ~10.4-3 Tg of DIC to the north Indian Ocean.
645 Nearly three fourth of this amount (7.7-8 Tg) reaches to the Bay of Bengal while the remaining

646 into the Arabian Sea. This is consistent with the higher magnitude of freshwater discharge to the
647 Bay of Bengal ($378 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$) from the catchment area of about $0.96970 \times 10^3 \text{ M-km}^2$ than the
648 Arabian Sea ($122 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ from the catchment area of $0.23244 \times 10^3 \text{ M-km}^2$). The total DIC
649 export by the Indian monsoonal ~~estuaries-rivers~~ (10.34 Tg yr^{-1}) is only 2.5% of the total DIC
650 export by the world major rivers (400 Tg yr^{-1}), ~~and 9.4% of the export by the Asian rivers (111
651 Tg yr^{-1} ; Huang et al., 2012).~~ The DIC export from the Indian ~~estuaries-monsoonal rivers~~ is far
652 less than the DIC export by the American (61.4 Tg yr^{-1}) and African (17.7 Tg yr^{-1}) rivers and
653 major rivers draining to the tropical Atlantic from South America and Africa (53 Tg yr^{-1} , Araujo
654 et al. 2014). It is mainly due to the fact that freshwater discharge from the Indian monsoonal
655 rivers is very low ($\sim 500 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$) compared to the American ($11,799 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and African
656 ($3,786 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$) rivers. However, the Indian monsoonal rivers are exporting disproportionately
657 higher DIC ~~to the north Indian Ocean~~ because they account for only 1.3% of the global river
658 discharge but export 2.5% of the global riverine DIC export to the oceans. Though American
659 and African rivers account for 30% and 10% of the global river discharge, they export only 15%
660 and 4.4% of global riverine DIC to oceans, respectively. Disproportionately higher DIC flux from
661 the Indian rivers could be due to relatively higher weathering rates of silicate and carbonate
662 minerals in their drainage basins (Das et al., 2005; Gurumurthy et al., 2012; Pattanaik et al.,
663 2013). Higher DIC fluxes from the tropical regions are mainly attributed to the favourable
664 climatic conditions, lithology and land use cover (Huang et al., 2012) ~~in-of~~ this region for higher
665 dissolution. ~~Relatively as higher weathering rates of silicate and carbonate minerals were~~
666 ~~reported in the drainage basins of the Indian rivers (Das et al., 2005; Gurumurthy et al., 2012;~~
667 ~~Pattanaik et al., 2013)~~

668 Krishna et al. (2015) reported that Indian monsoonal ~~estuaries-rivers~~ export 2.32 Tg yr^{-1}
669 of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) to the north Indian Ocean. The total fluvial dissolved carbon
670 flux (DIC+DOC) would be 12.7 Tg yr^{-1} in which DIC flux contributed up to ~81%. The
671 predominance of DIC has also been found in rivers ~~and it is consistent with earlier reports~~
672 elsewhere in the world, for example, the British rivers (80%, Jarvie et al., 2017) and high altitude
673 Swedish rivers (Campeau et al., 2017). Since the catchment area of the Indian monsoonal rivers
674 ranged widely from as low as $0.001 \times 10^3 \text{ M-km}^2$ to as high as $0.313313 \times 10^3 \text{ M-km}^2$, the export
675 fluxes of DIC were normalized with the catchment area of the river (yield) in order to examine
676 various factors controlling the ~~lateral~~ DIC export to the north Indian Ocean.

677 4.3 Yield of DIC from the Indian monsoonal rivers

678 The yield (~~export flux normalized by catchment area~~) of DIC found in this study (mean
679 $8.7 \pm 5.2 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) is ~~similar~~ close to those found ~~earlier~~ in ~~the~~ rivers from the tropical region of
680 ~~the Asian continent~~, but significantly higher than those reported from tropical region of the
681 American and African continents (Table 3) (Huang et al., 2012). The yield was highest (8.8 ± 5.6
682 $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) in rivers from the SW estuaries region of India, annually despite they export relatively
683 lower DIC ~~to the north Indian Ocean~~ (0.3 Tg yr^{-1}) due to their low volume of discharge (46 km^3
684 yr^{-1}) and relatively smaller catchment area ($0.0220 \times 10^3 \text{ M-km}^2$) than the rivers from SE, NE and
685 NW ~~estuaries regions of India~~ (Table 1-2 & 3), ~~in contrast, the higher yield of DIC was found~~
686 ~~higher in the former ($10.8 \pm 6.6 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) than the latter (Table 3)~~. DIC yield showed a
687 significant positive correlation with the volume of discharge ($r^2=0.67$, $p<0.001$; Fig. 6e6a) in
688 medium ~~estuaries-rivers~~ and no such relationship was found in the major ~~estuaries rivers~~.
689 Significant negative relationships ~~were was~~ observed between DIC yield and catchment area of
690 river (in the medium ($r^2 = -0.49$, $p<0.001$; Fig. 6e6b) and major estuaries ($r^2 = -0.43$, $p<0.001$;

691 Fig. ~~6f6c~~ for medium and major rivers respectively), suggesting the smaller rivers export more
692 DIC per unit area of catchment compared to the major river systems, and thus inclusion of DIC
693 data from medium rivers in the world significantly alters the global estimations of DIC. This
694 suggests that high precipitation over small catchments increases DIC yield because the dense
695 precipitation increases the extraction of DIC from soils and rocks in their catchment. A fairly
696 good linear relationship between the yield of DIC and the intensity of precipitation ($r^2=0.43$,
697 $p<0.01$ Fig. 6d) was observed only in the rivers which receives >2000 mm of annual mean
698 precipitation. Higher precipitation over the catchment increases the yield of DIC because the
699 dense precipitation enhances the extraction of DIC from soils and rocks in their catchment
700 Therefore, high precipitation (~~2500+500~3000~~ mm) over the small catchment (~~0.0220x10³ M~~
701 km²) could have increased DIC yield from the rivers of SW estuaries region of India. A strong
702 linear relationship between the yield of DIC and the intensity of precipitation ($r^2=0.64$, $p<0.001$
703 Fig. 6g6d) confirms that dense precipitation increases the export yield of DIC from rivers of the
704 SW region estuaries.

705 Existing natural vegetation of tropical moist deciduous and tropical wet evergreen and
706 semi evergreen forests in the SW region of India could also have increased DIC yield from rivers
707 of this region the SW estuaries as this vegetation favors the export fluxes of DIC. The drainage
708 basins of the Indian monsoonal rivers are largely under the tropical dry and wet climate except
709 the SW rivers, Narmada and Tapi. The rivers Narmada and Tapi are under the arid and semiarid
710 climate while the SW rivers are under the tropical wet climate which was also reported to
711 facilitate the riverine export of material from drainage basin to the coastal ocean.

712 Sreenivas et al. (2016) and Krishwan et al. (2009) found that the soil organic and
713 inorganic carbon contents in the surface (100cm) soils in the catchment of SW rivers in the SW

714 region were higher and lower, respectively, than the catchments of the rivers from SE, SW and
715 NE rivers-region of India (Table 2). Decomposition of soil organic matter releases excess CO₂
716 and the increase in d-soil CO₂ leads to the formation of acidic conditions in soils. This would
717 increase the DIC yield by ~~This indicates that~~ more dissolution of soil carbonates ~~by acidic~~
718 ~~conditions formed by release of CO₂ through decomposition of soil organic carbon in catchments~~
719 ~~of the SW rivers and chemical weathering of carbonate and silicate rocks by the acidic~~
720 ~~conditions.~~ A significant linear correlation was found between soil organic carbon content and
721 DIC yield in this study ($r^2=0.65$, $p<0.001$; Fig. 6e), suggesting that ~~Hence, the~~ higher soil
722 organic carbon in the catchment of the rivers from SW region ~~than the SE, NE and NW rivers~~
723 ~~(Kishwan et al., 2009; Sreenivas et al., 2016)~~ could have elevated the yield of DIC from rivers of
724 this region. ~~SW estuaries through dissolution of soil carbonates.~~ ~~A significant linear correlation~~
725 ~~between soil organic carbon content and DIC yield in this study ($r^2=0.65$, $p<0.001$; Fig. 6h)~~
726 ~~confirms that strong influence of soil organic carbon content in the catchment on DIC yield from~~
727 ~~the Indian monsoonal rivers.~~ ~~The basin scale studies are, however,~~ required for comprehensive
728 understanding of the influence of environmental and anthropogenic factors on DIC-export fluxes
729 and yield of DIC from the Indian monsoonal rivers.

730 5. Summary

731 In order to examine the spatial variability in the sources and distribution of dissolved
732 inorganic carbon (DIC) in the Indian monsoonal estuariesrivers, and to estimate their riverine
733 export fluxes of DIC to the north Indian Ocean, we sampled a total of 27 major and medium
734 estuaries-rivers along the Indian coast during wet period. An order of magnitude variability was
735 found in DIC concentrations among the estuaries-rivers sampled (3.4 - ~~44.1~~73.6 mg l⁻¹), with a
736 lower mean concentration of 6.6±2.1 mg l⁻¹ in estuaries-rivers located in the SW region of India.

737 It is attributed to significant spatial variability in the size of rivers, precipitation pattern, pollution
738 and lithology in their catchments. The approximated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC source from the Keeling and
739 Miller-Tans plots (-2.0 and -3.0‰ respectively) and, the calculated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO_2 which filters the
740 influence of pH and DIC speciation, suggested that DIC in the Indian rivers is mainly originated
741 from chemical weathering of carbonate minerals but largely affected by autotrophic production
742 in rivers from the southeast region of India and heterotrophic decomposition of organic matter in
743 the other Indian rivers sampled. Magnitude of discharge, catchment area and in-stream processes
744 appears to be the controlling factors for concentration and yield of DIC in the medium estuaries
745 rather than the major estuaries. This is probably due to a significant spatial variability in
746 lithology and hydro-geological and environmental conditions in the catchments. Indian
747 monsoonal estuaries-rivers together annually export $\sim 10.4\text{--}3 \text{ Tg yr}^{-1}$ of DIC to the north Indian
748 Ocean, of which $7.7\text{--}8 \text{ Tg yr}^{-1}$ enters in to the Bay of Bengal while the Arabian Sea receives only
749 2.57 Tg yr^{-1} . It is mainly attributed to the volume of river discharge as the former receives ~ 378
750 $\text{km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ while the latter receives only $122 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ from the Indian monsoonal rivers. The range
751 of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ found in this study suggests that major contribution of DIC is from weathering of
752 silicate and carbonate minerals by carbonic acid formed by dissolution of soil CO_2 . However,
753 relatively enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ in the east flowing river estuaries indicated the storage of water in
754 dams/reservoirs and intrusion of marine waters. Dense rainfall and higher soil organic carbon
755 content in the catchment of rivers from the SW rivers-region than in the catchment of the other
756 Indian rivers resulted in higher yield of DIC from the former than the latter.

757 **6. Acknowledgements**

758 We would like to thank the Director, CSIR - National Institute of Oceanography (NIO),
759 Goa, and the Scientist-In-Charge, NIO-Regional Centre, Visakhapatnam for their kind support

760 and encouragement. We also acknowledge Dr. M. Dileep Kumar, NIO, Goa for his guidance and
761 encouragement. The work is part of the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR),
762 funded research project. This publication has NIO contribution number

763 **7. Data Availability**

764 The data set used in the current study can be obtained from the corresponding author by an e-
765 mail request.

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1149 **Figure captions**

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1151 **Figure 1:** Map showing the study region. ~~Estuaries of the r~~Rivers sampled in this study were
1152 indicated by solid black line. ~~Distribution of soils in catchments of the Indian monsoonal rivers~~
1153 ~~sampled were shown. The rivers draining the four regions northwest (NW), southwest (SW),~~
1154 ~~southeast (SE) and northeast (NE) were shown by solid black arrows.~~

1155

1156 **Figure 2:** Schematic diagram showing the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of different end members of dissolved inorganic
1157 carbon (DIC) sources. Various major processes influencing the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$) within the
1158 rivers were also shown. Black arrows (\leftarrow and \rightarrow) indicates the direction of change in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$
1159 due to the influences different in-stream process mentioned against arrows.

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1161 **Figure 23:** ~~Spatial variability in c~~Concentration (mg l^{-1} ; 3a), export flux (Tg yr^{-1} ; 3b) and yield
1162 ($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$; 3c) of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) ~~and its stable isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$, 3d)~~ in the
1163 Indian monsoonal ~~estuariesrivers studied. Estuaries–Rivers~~ geographically located in the
1164 north~~westeastern~~ (NENW), ~~southwest (SW),~~ southeastern (SE) ~~and, southwestern (SW) and~~
1165 north~~eastwestern~~ (NENE) regions of India were also shown. ~~Rivers draining into the Bay of~~
1166 ~~Bengal (east-flowing rivers) were shown by gray shade Estuaries draining into the Bay of Bengal~~
1167 ~~and the Arabian Sea were also providedwhile rivers draining into the Areabian Sea (west-~~
1168 ~~flowing) were shown by no shade.~~

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1170 **Figure 3:** Spatial variability in stable carbon isotopes of dissolved inorganic carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$, ‰)
1171 in the Indian monsoonal estuaries during the study period.

1172 **Figure 4:** (a) Exponential decrease and (b) linear increase of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC)
1173 concentrations with increasing the rainfall over the catchment and length of the river
1174 respectively. (c) Inverse and (d) linear relationships of chlorophyll-a (Chl-a) with concentrations
1175 and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC respectively. Significant linear relationships of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC with (e) dissolved
1176 oxygen saturation, (f) dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentration, (g) total alkalinity and (h)
1177 DIC in the Indian monsoonal rivers during the study period. Ovals with dashed line indicate that
1178 outliers which were not included in the regression equations. Rivers of the northwest region of
1179 India showed linear relationships as shown by other Indian rivers but with a different slope (Fig.
1180 f-h) ~~Correlation between mean DIC concentration and precipitation in the four regions (NE, SE,~~
1181 ~~SW and NW) of India. Relationship of DIC concentrations with (b) catchment area and (c)~~
1182 ~~discharge volume of rivers in the medium estuaries. (d) Correlation between $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ and salinity~~
1183 ~~in the in the Indian monsoonal estuaries during the study period.~~

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1185 **Figure 5:** A schematic showing the range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC)
1186 derived from various sources. Different physical and biogeochemical processes influencing the
1187 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC were also shown. The forward arrow (\rightarrow) indicates enrichment while the reverse
1188 arrow (\leftarrow) indicates depletion in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC ~~Least square linear regression models of (a)~~
1189 ~~$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ as a function of $1/\text{DIC}$ (Keeling plot) and (b) $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}} \times \text{DIC}$ as a function of DIC~~

1190 concentrations (Miller-Tans plot) in the Indian monsoonal rivers. Linear relationship between
1191 calculated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO_2 and the measured bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ (c) and Miller-Tans linear regression
1192 model of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{CO}_2$ as a function of CO_2 concentration (d) in the Indian rivers sampled in
1193 this study.

1194
1195 **Figure 6:** Significant relationships dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) yield with (a)
1196 river discharge in medium estuaries, (b) catchment areas of the medium rivers, (c) catchment
1197 areas of the major rivers, (d) rainfall over the catchment of all rivers sampled and (e) soil organic
1198 carbon (OC) content in catchments of the Indian monsoonal rivers studied. Since the data on soil
1199 OC data is not available for each watershed (e) was plotted using the available soil OC data on
1200 regional scale (NW, SW, SE and NE regions of India), Hence, it contains only four points.
1201 chlorophyll-a and concentration of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), (b) $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ and dissolved
1202 oxygen (DO) saturation and (c) $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ and concentrations of DIC in the Indian monsoonal
1203 estuaries during the study period. The relationships of DIC yield from medium estuaries with (d)
1204 volume of discharge and (e) catchment area of the rivers. (f) Correlation between the yield of
1205 DIC and catchment area of the rivers in the major estuaries. Relationships of DIC yield from the
1206 Indian monsoonal estuaries with (g) precipitation and (h) soil organic carbon in the four regions
1207 (NE, SE, SW and NW) of India.

1208
1209 **Table captions**

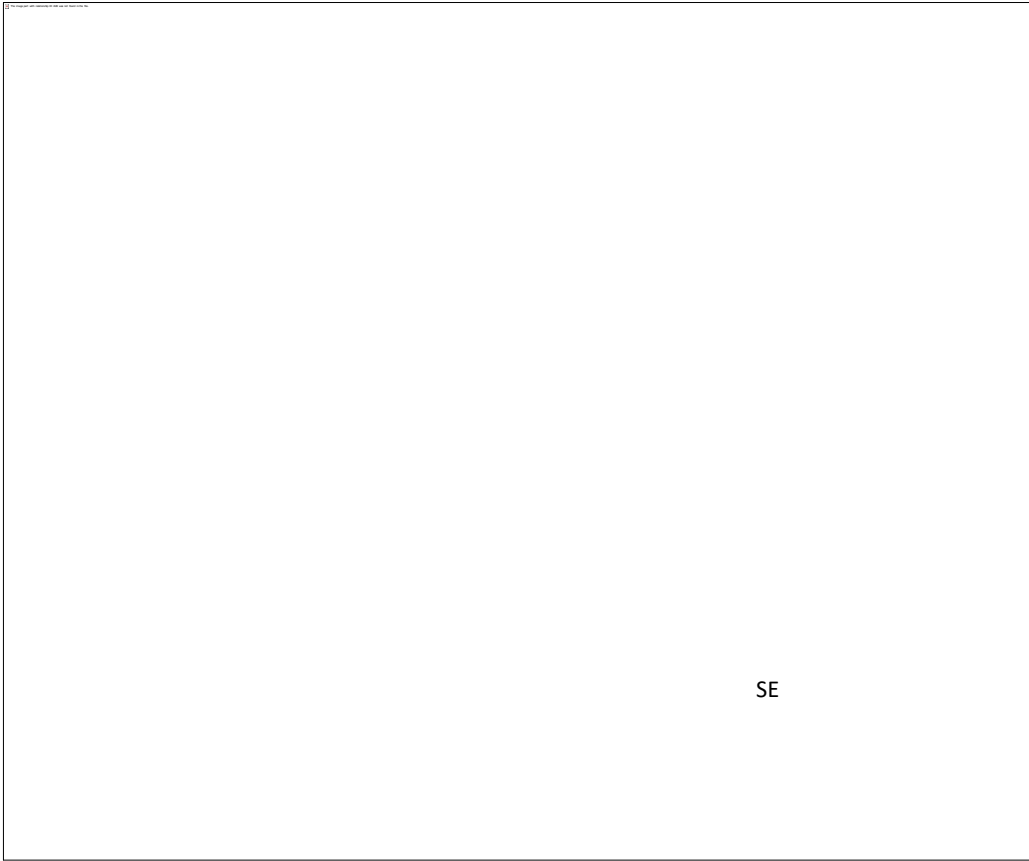
1210
1211 **Table 1:** Catchment area, discharge, length and elevation of each river and, annual mean rainfall,
1212 number of dams and population density in each watershed of the Indian monsoonal rivers
1213 sampled. Concentrations, export fluxes and yields of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and its
1214 stable isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$) of Indian rivers were given. Measured pH and calculated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO_2
1215 from isotopic fractionation factors across DIC speciation were also provided. Mean or range of
1216 concentrations of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC, mg l^{-1}) in the Indian monsoonal estuaries and
1217 elsewhere in the world.

1218
1219 **Table 2:** Total catchment area (million square kilometre), annual discharge volume (km^3) and
1220 export flux (Tg yr^{-1}) of the estuaries located in the NE, SE, SW and NW regions of India. Mean
1221 ($\pm\text{SD}$) values of concentration, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and yield of DIC in estuaries of these four regions were
1222 given. Annual mean rainfall (mm) and soil organic carbon content (ton ha^{-1}) in surface soils of
1223 these regions were also shown. Mean ($\pm\text{SD}$) concentrations of DIC in the ground waters of these
1224 four regions were also provided.

1225
1226 **Table 3:** Export flux (Tg yr^{-1}) and yield ($\text{gC m}^{-2}\text{-yr}^{-1}$) of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) from
1227 the Indian monsoonal rivers and from the rivers elsewhere in the world.

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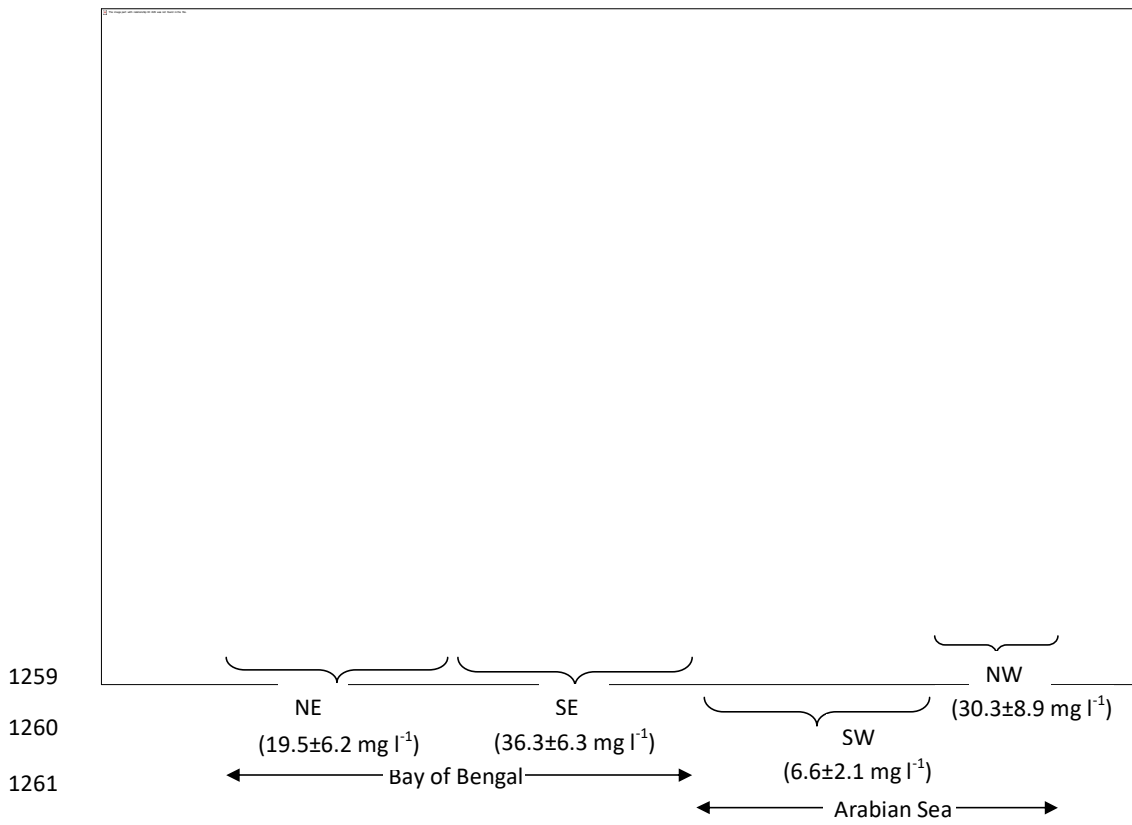
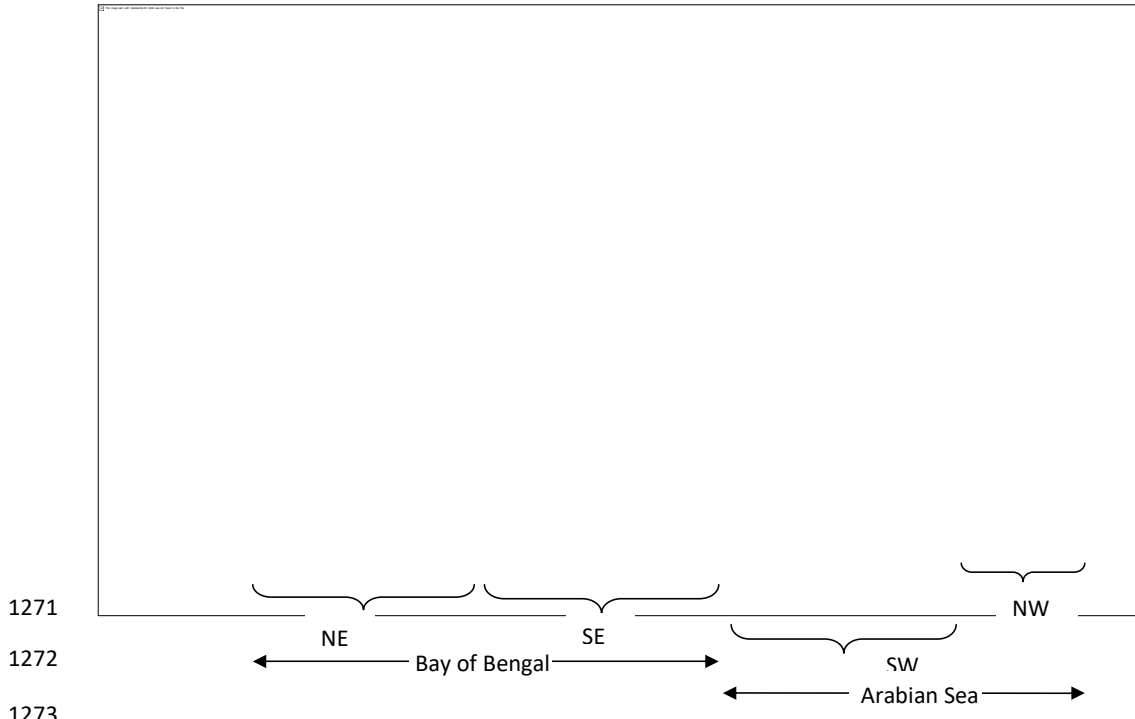


Fig. 2

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Fig. 3:

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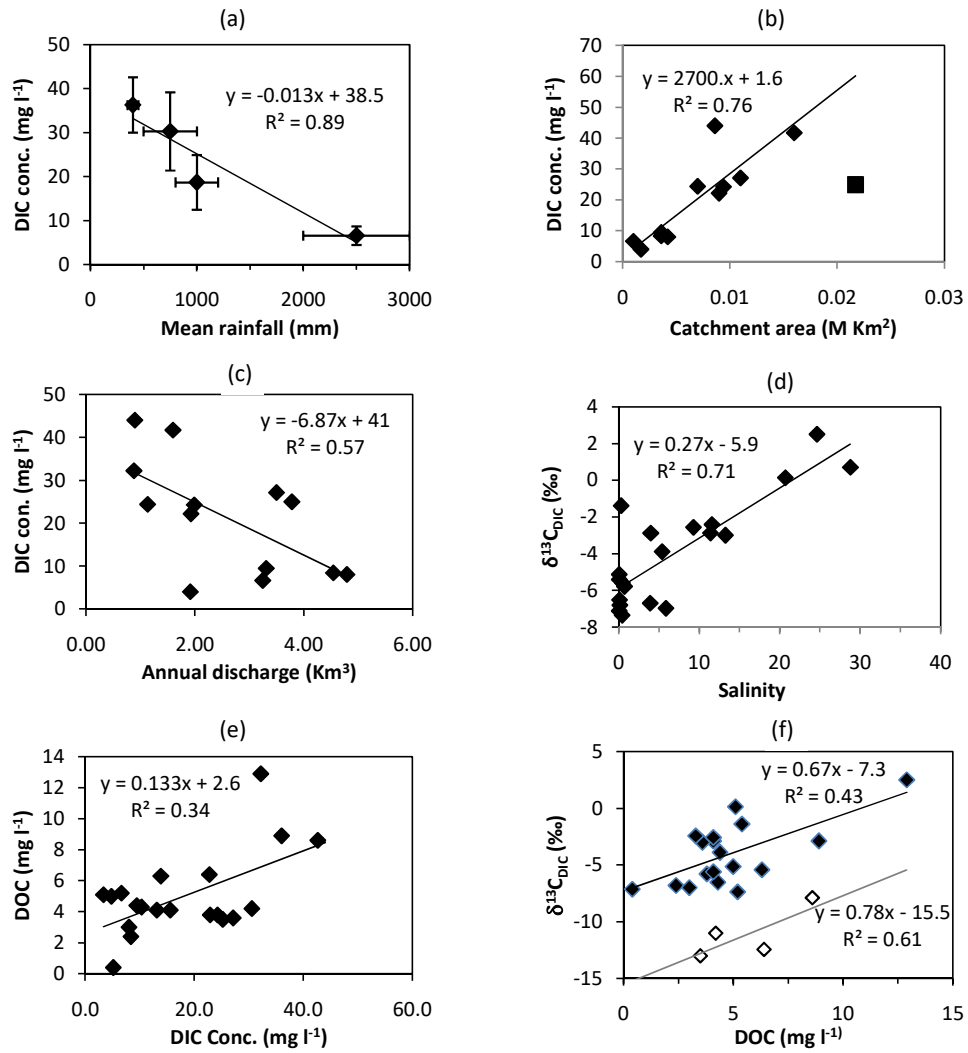
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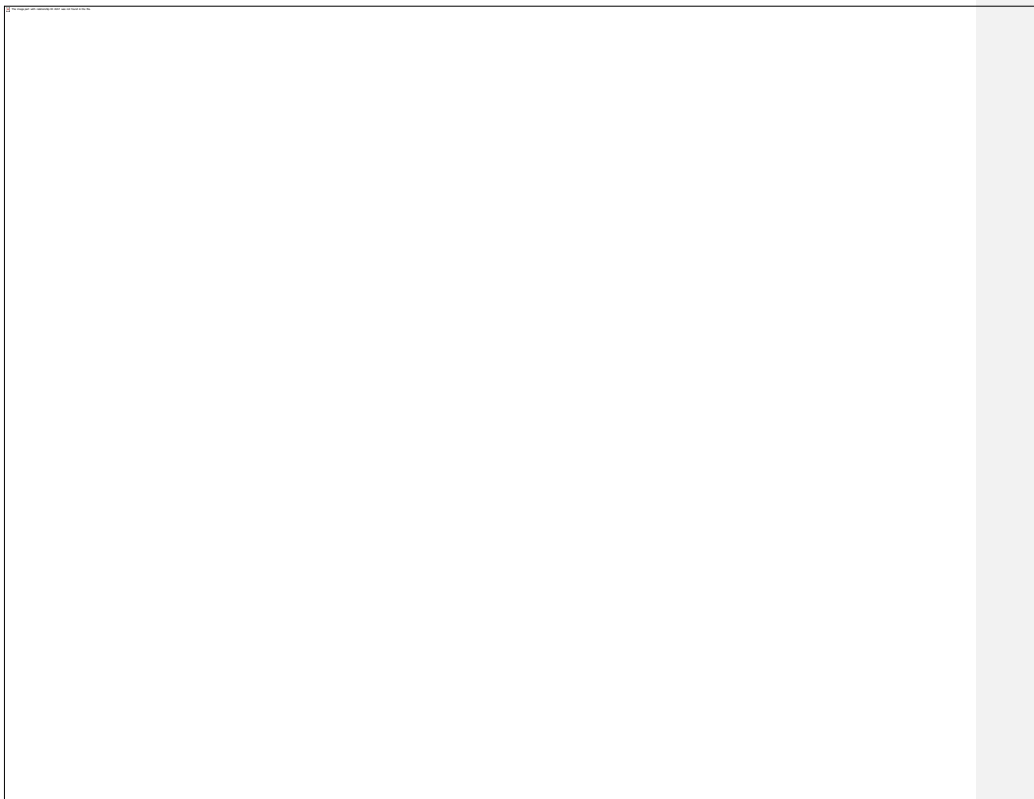
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Fig. 5

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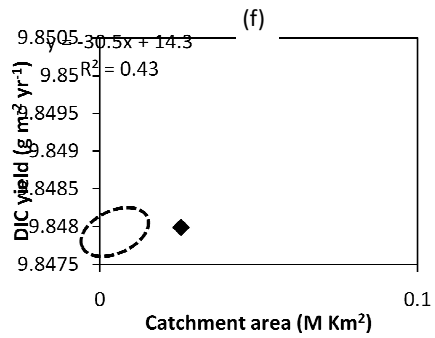
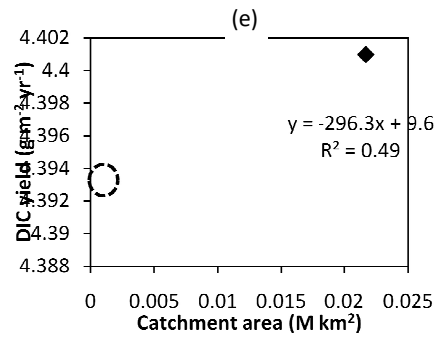
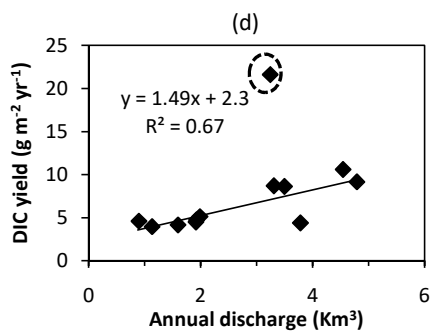
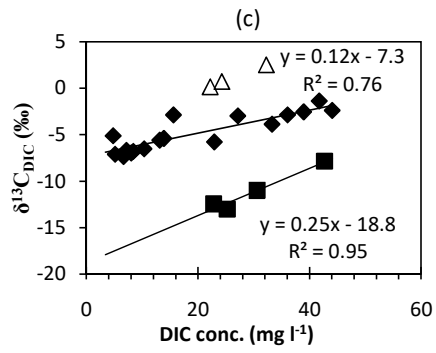
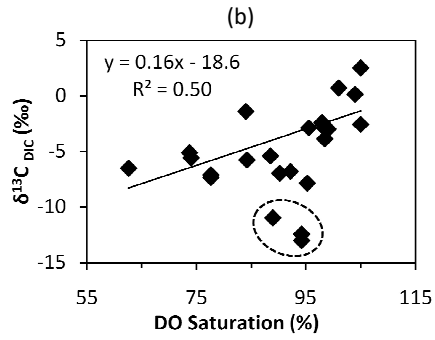
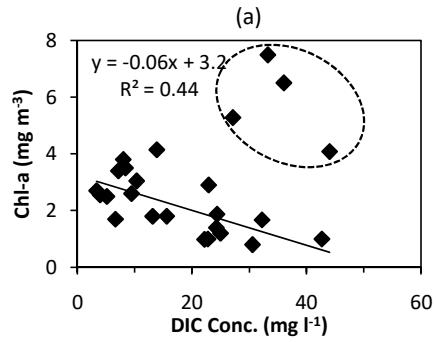
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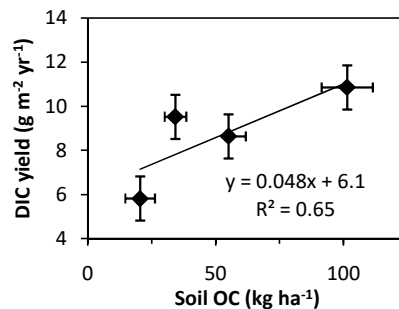
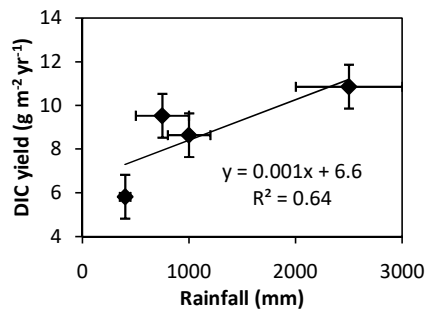
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(g)

(h)



1302 Fig. 6:

S. No.	Mean DIC conc. (mg l ⁻¹)	River	Reference
1	23	Ganga-Brahmaputra	Singh et al., 2005
2	22	Hooghly	Samanta et al., 2015
3	15	Mahanadi	Pattanaik et al., 2017
4	6-21	York river estuary	Raymond and Bauer, 2000
5	28	Yangtze river	Cai et al., 2008
6	4 - 43	British rivers	Jarvie et al., 2017
7	18 - 22	Seri, central Japan	Ishikawa et al., 2015
8	9 - 30	Red river, Vietnam	Quynh et al., 2016
9	18 - 46	Xi river, southwest China	Zou, 2016
10	37 - 66	rivers draining into the Gulf of Trieste	Tamse et al., 2014
11	10.3	Global mean	Meybeck and Vorosmarty, 1999
12	12.7	Asian rivers in tropical region	Huang et al., 2012
13	3.4 to 44	Indian estuaries	Present study

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1304 Table 1

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S. No.	Region of India	Total catchment area (M km ²)	Annual Discharge (km ³)	Mean±SD of DIC conc. (mg l ⁻¹)	Mean±SD DIC yield (g m ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Annual DIC export flux (Tg)	Mean±SD δ ¹³ C _{DIC} (‰)	Mean (±SD) annual rainfall (mm)	Mean±SD GW DIC (mg l ⁻¹)*	Soil OC (ton ha ⁻¹)
1	NE	0.53	276	19.5±6.2	8.6±5.7	4.2	-3.5±2.8	1000±200	92±31	55
2	SE	0.45	102	36.3±6.3	5.8±2.3	3.5	-2.7±5.2	400±50	106±56	20
3	SW	0.02	46	6.6±2.1	10.8±6.6	0.3	-7.4±1.9	2500±500	32±19	101
4	NW	0.21	75	30.3±8.9	9.5±4.0	2.4	-11.1±2.3	750±250	84±54	34

*data has been taken from Dr. BSK Kumar, personnel communication.

Table 2

S. No.	Rivers	DIC export flux (Tg yr ⁻¹)	DIC yield (gC m ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Reference
1	World major rivers	385	2.58	Meybeck and Vorosmarty, 1999
2	Asian rivers	111	9.79	Huang et al., 2012
3	American rivers	61.4	3.3	Huang et al., 2012
4	African rivers	17.7	0.63	Huang et al., 2012
5	Rivers draining to the tropical Atlantic from South America and Africa	53	-	Araujo et al. 2014
6	Tropical rivers	210	3.3	Huang et al., 2012
7	Indian monsoonal rivers*	10.4	8.7	Present study

Table 3