

Geomorphologic controls and anthropogenic impacts on dissolved organic carbon from mountainous rivers: Insights from optical properties and carbon isotopes

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Abstract. Mountainous rivers are critical in transporting dissolved organic carbon (DOC) from terrestrial environments to downstream ecosystems. However, how geomorphologic factors and anthropogenic impacts control the composition and export of DOC in mountainous rivers remains largely unclear. Here, we explore DOC dynamics in three subtropical mountainous catchments (i.e., the Yinjiang, Shiqian, and Yuqing catchments) in southwest China which are heavily influenced by anthropogenic activities. Water chemistry, stable and radioactive carbon isotopes of DOC ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ and $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$), and optical properties (UV absorbance and fluorescence spectra) were employed to assess the biogeochemical processes and controlling factors on riverine DOC. The radiocarbon ages of DOC in the Yinjiang River varied widely from 928 years before present to modern. Stepwise multiple regression analyses and partial least square path models revealed that geomorphology and anthropogenic activities were the major drivers controlling DOC concentrations and DOM characteristics. Catchments with higher catchment slope gradients were characterized by lower DOC concentrations, enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ and $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$, and more aromatic dissolved organic matter (DOM), which were opposite to those with gentle catchment slopes. Variabilities in DOC concentrations were also regulated by land use with higher DOC concentrations in urban and agricultural areas. Furthermore, DOM in catchments with a higher proportion of urban and agricultural land uses was less aromatic, less recently produced and exhibited a higher degree of humification and more autochthonous humic-like DOM. This research highlights the significance of incorporating geomorphologic controls on DOC sources and anthropogenic impacts on DOM composition into the understanding of DOC dynamics and quality of DOM in mountainous rivers which are globally abundant.

1 Introduction

Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) plays a fundamental role in the riverine carbon cycle with approximately 0.26 Pg (1Pg

32 =10¹⁵g) of DOC exported from global rivers to the ocean each year, accounting for more than half of the total organic carbon
33 export (Cai, 2011; Raymond and Spencer, 2015). Owing to continued climate warming and rapid land use changes, it is
34 important to gain a better understanding of the spatial and temporal dynamics of DOC transport in river systems (Butman et
35 al., 2014; Fasching et al., 2016; Zhong et al., 2021). For example, the elevated temperature has a dominant effect on DOC
36 concentration and dissolved organic matter (DOM) composition by enhancing decomposition and photochemical
37 degradation rates of DOM (Zhou et al., 2018), contributing to significant CO₂ emissions from inland waters (Raymond et al.,
38 2013). Additionally, DOM provides energy and nutrient sources for aquatic biota (Findlay et al., 1998), adsorbing heavy
39 metals and organic pollutants (Aiken et al., 2011). Riverine DOC can also restrict in-stream primary production by reducing
40 light penetration and lowering temperature in the water column, thereby serving as an important determinant in shaping the
41 ecological and biogeochemical processes in aquatic environments (Ask et al., 2009). Therefore, disentangling the processes
42 controlling riverine DOC dynamics is crucial for a greater understanding of aquatic ecosystem functioning and the global
43 carbon cycle. Recent advances in spectroscopic techniques, especially the UV-visible spectrophotometry and fluorescence
44 spectroscopy, and widespread application of stable and radioactive carbon isotopes on bulk DOC have provided insights into
45 the composition, source, and age of DOM in freshwater ecosystems (Fellman et al., 2010; Marwick et al., 2015; Minor et al.,
46 2014). These new techniques have led to significant improvements in our understanding of the biogeochemical processes of
47 DOC in river systems, which will continue to be effective tools for researchers to gain deeper insights into the riverine
48 carbon cycle.

49 The biogeochemical processes of DOM in river systems have been extensively studied, which depend largely on the
50 sources and composition of DOM (Toming et al., 2013). Riverine DOM is a mixture generated from autochthonous and
51 allochthonous sources. Among them, autochthonous DOM is a pool of dead and living microbial and algal biomass that is
52 derived within the aquatic ecosystem (Devesa-Rey and Barral, 2011), which mainly consists of non-humic substances that
53 are more bioavailable (Toming et al., 2013). In comparison, allochthonous DOM refers to DOM that originates from outside
54 of the aquatic ecosystem and is typically composed of higher plants and soil organic matter (Zhang et al., 2023), which may
55 also contain organic waste of anthropogenic origin (Ramos et al., 2006; Toming et al., 2013). Consequently, allochthonous
56 DOM is generally characterized by high lignin content and high molecular weight, making it refractory to decomposition
57 (Devesa-Rey and Barral, 2011).

58 Recent studies have indicated the significance of geomorphologic factors, such as elevation and catchment slope, in
59 influencing the export of DOC and riverine carbon cycling (Connolly et al., 2018; Li Yung Lung et al., 2018). Compared
60 with high-relief catchments, low-relief regions with longer water residence time, stronger hydrologic connectivity to rivers,
61 and greater development of wetlands are typically characterized by increased concentration of riverine DOC (Harms et al.,
62 2016; McGuire et al., 2005). Specifically, DOC supply is likely regulated by the amount of stored soil organic carbon (SOC)

63 in a catchment (Lee et al., 2019; Rawlins et al., 2021). However, this supply is limited by shallow soil depth and high flow
64 velocity in high-relief regions (Lee et al., 2019). The varying extent of hydrologic connectivity due to changing water
65 residence time with different catchment slopes may also have significant influences on DOC dynamics (Connolly et al.,
66 2018). Typically, it is anticipated that as the slope increases towards higher elevation areas, where residence time is relatively
67 short and soil organic matter is well-connected to hydrologic pathways, the composition of DOM pools in inland waters will
68 shift towards a more “terrestrial” characteristic. This shift involves larger molecules with high molecular weight and
69 aromatic structures (Creed et al., 2018; Xenopoulos et al., 2021). Although geomorphologic characteristics have proved to be
70 useful in estimating DOC concentrations (Harms et al., 2016; Mzobe et al., 2020), the underlying mechanisms that regulate
71 DOC dynamics in small mountainous rivers remain poorly understood. Therefore, a deep understanding of the
72 geomorphologic controls on DOC dynamics is urgently needed. Subtropical small mountainous rivers are characterized by
73 steep catchment slopes, high erosion rates, frequent rainfall events in wet seasons, and rapid change in hydrology during
74 these rainfall events (Lee et al., 2019; Leithold et al., 2006), yet have received little research attention regarding their DOC
75 dynamics. Moreover, runoff, catchment slope gradient, and SOC have been recognized as good predictors for DOC export in
76 small mountainous rivers (Lee et al., 2019). Yet, the extent to which these factors, along with land use patterns, effectively
77 regulate the DOC dynamic is still far from well-understood (Lee et al., 2019; Moyer et al., 2013).

78 Anthropogenic impacts, such as urban and agricultural land uses, have led to significant alterations to the flux of DOC
79 and the fate and quality of DOM in global streams and rivers (Coble et al., 2022; Wilson and Xenopoulos, 2008; Xenopoulos
80 et al., 2021). Agricultural streams and rivers are dominated by microbial-derived, protein-like DOM, while urban freshwater
81 ecosystems are characterized by microbial, humic-like or protein-like, and autochthonous DOM (Hosen et al., 2014;
82 Williams et al., 2016; Xenopoulos et al., 2021). Agricultural and urban land uses tend to increase nutrient loading in streams,
83 resulting in enhanced bacterial production and DOM decomposition (Quinton et al., 2010; Williams et al., 2010). As a result,
84 microbial-derived DOM plays a crucial role in agricultural and urban rivers. In addition, DOM tends to have a more reduced
85 redox state and is likely more labile and accessible to the microbial community in agricultural streams when compared to the
86 DOM found in natural streams (Fasching et al., 2019; Williams et al., 2010). On the scale of years to decades, anthropogenic
87 impacts can accelerate terrestrially sourced DOC export to aquatic ecosystems (Xenopoulos et al., 2021). On the scale of
88 decades to centuries, however, anthropogenic impacts would shift natural DOM to forms of low-molecular weight, enhanced
89 redox state with potentially increased liability, or increased aromaticity due to warmer climate and altered hydrology
90 (Stanley et al., 2012; Xenopoulos et al., 2021).

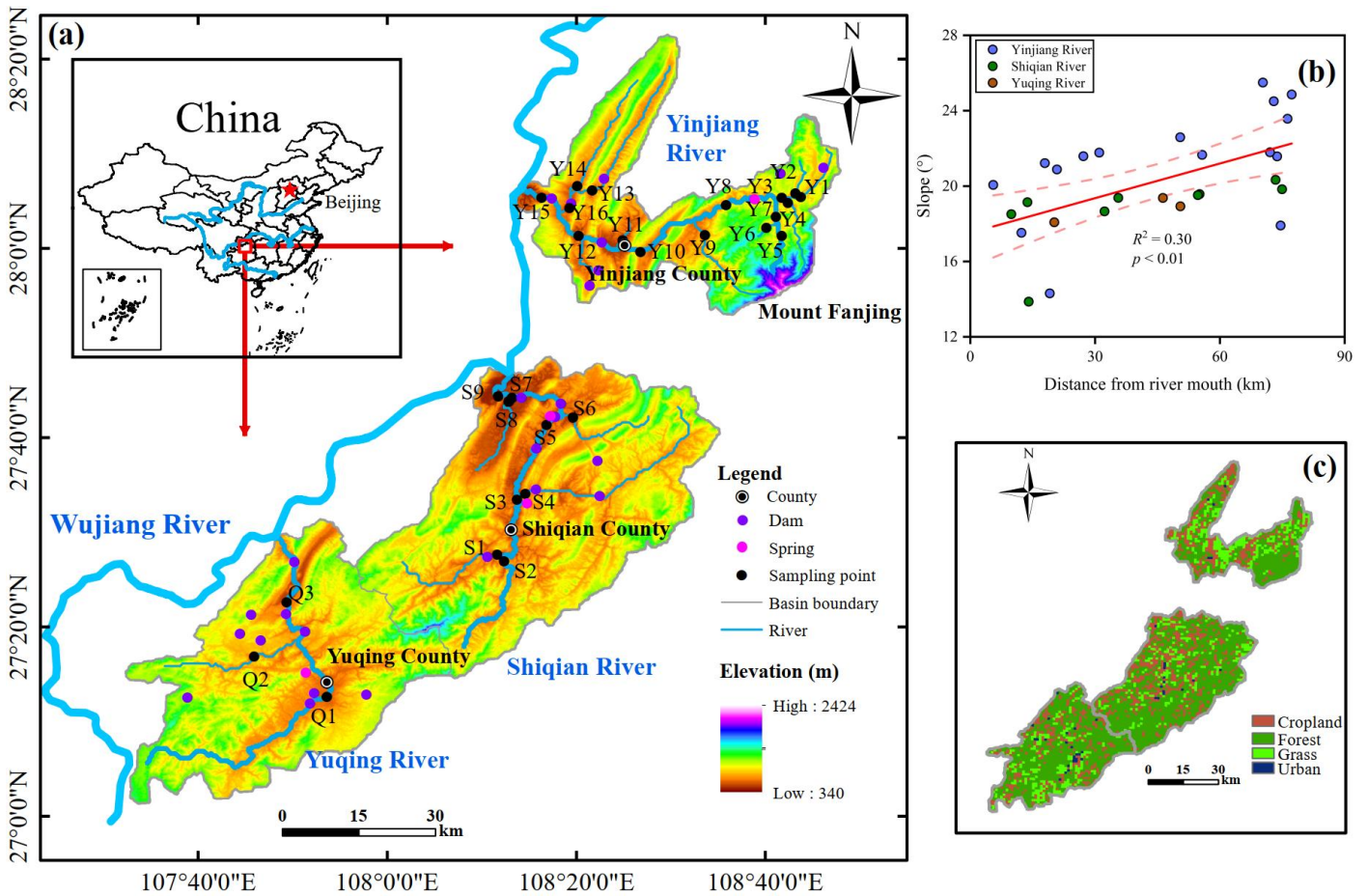
91 In this study, we evaluated how geomorphologic controls (i.e., mean catchment slope and mean drainage elevation) and
92 anthropogenic impacts (i.e., land use patterns) affect the DOC dynamics and DOM characteristics in three subtropical
93 catchments encompassing numerous small to medium mountainous rivers in southwest China. Our prior observations from

94 these catchments showed that particulate organic carbon (POC) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) dynamics were highly
95 affected by in-stream photosynthesis, as evidenced by stable carbon isotope and radioactive carbon isotope of POC and DIC
96 (Chen et al., 2021). We hypothesize that catchments with a higher proportion of agricultural and urban land use, gentler
97 catchment slope, and lower elevation would exhibit higher riverine DOC concentrations and more autochthonous microbial
98 humic-like DOM than steeper catchments at high elevations with fewer influences by agricultural and urban land uses.
99 Relationships of DOC concentrations, stable isotopic values of DOC, DOM quality assessed through optical metric, nutrient
100 concentrations, and land use patterns versus geomorphologic characteristics (i.e., mean catchment slope and mean drainage
101 elevation) were examined. We also examined relationships between geomorphologic characteristics and radiocarbon for nine
102 sampling sites in the Yinjiang River. This study allows us to gain a deeper insight into the geomorphologic controls and
103 anthropogenic impacts on DOC dynamics and DOM quality in the subtropical, anthropogenically influenced mountainous
104 rivers.

105 **2 Materials and Methods**

106 **2.1 Study area**

107 Yinjiang River (Y), Shiqian River (S), and Yuqing River (Q) are tributaries of the Wujiang River (Fig. 1a), the largest
108 tributary on the south bank of the upper Changjiang River. The drainage area is 1231, 2101, and 1561 km² for the Yinjiang,
109 Shiqian, and Yuqing rivers, respectively. Data on land use types and air temperature in 2015, as well as a 90 m digital
110 elevation model (Shuttle Radar Topography Mission, SRTM) were obtained from the Resource and Environment Data Cloud
111 Platform of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (<http://www.resdc.cn/>). The SOC content in the surface layer (0–5 cm) was
112 collected from the SoilGrids1km database (a global soil information system at 1 km resolution) (Hengl et al., 2014).
113 Information on dams was retrieved from Wang et al. (2022), and their location was identified by Google Earth. Furthermore,
114 the distance from the river mouth (i.e., the Yinjiang, Shiqian, and Yuqing rivers) to the sampling sites was also estimated
115 using Google Earth. We further delineated the sub-catchments, which constitute the contributing area upstream of sampling
116 sites, by spatial analyst tools of ArcGIS (version 10.2). The mean catchment slope (degrees; 3D analysis tools) and elevation
117 for sub-catchments were extracted from the digital elevation model using ArcGIS. Annual air temperature (T_{air}), catchment
118 slope, topsoil SOC, and proportion of urban and agricultural land use for these sub-catchments were also determined using
119 ArcGIS. The mean drainage elevation of these three catchments ranges from 340 m to 2424 m, with the lowest and highest
120 elevations both reported in the Yinjiang River catchment, showing the greatest change in relief (Figs. 1a and S1a). The



121
 122 **Figure 1.** Map of the study area. (a) Overview of the sampling sites and elevation characteristics in the three study catchments, including
 123 the Yinjiang, Shiqian, and Yuqing catchments, (b) correlation between mean catchment slope and the distance from the river mouth (i.e.,
 124 the Yinjiang, Shiqian, and Yuqing rivers) to the sampling site, and (c) spatial variation in land-use patterns.

125 topsoil SOC exhibited a spatial distribution that resembled elevation, with regions with higher elevation displaying higher
 126 SOC contents (Fig. S2). Similar to elevation, the Yinjiang River catchment has a greater variation in mean catchment slope
 127 (from 14.3° to 25.5°), while the Shiqian and Yuqing river catchments have a mean catchment slope of approximately 20°,
 128 except the segment above site S8 (13.9°; Figs. 1b and S1b). Carbonate rock is widely distributed in the three catchments,
 129 accounting for a large proportion of the exposed strata (Han and Liu, 2004). The remaining areas are mainly covered by
 130 elastic rocks, igneous rocks, and low-grade metamorphic rocks. Forest, agriculture, and urban areas are the three dominant
 131 land uses in these studied catchments (Fig. 1c). Forest is generally distributed in high-elevation regions, while urban and
 132 agricultural land uses are mainly located in low-elevation regions. The proportion of urban and agricultural land uses in the
 133 Yuqing River catchment varies from 17.3% to 23.1% (Figs. 1c and S1c). This catchment has a higher % urban/agriculture
 134 land use than other studied catchments and less variability in land use compared to the Yinjiang and Shiqian river catchments
 135 (from 4.5% to 46.5% and from 9.6% to 41.3%, respectively). There are three mountainous agricultural counties (i.e.,
 136 Yinjiang, Shiqian, and Yuqing; Fig. 1a) in this study area, where crops are mainly C4 (e.g., corn and sorghum) and C3 (e.g.,
 137 rice, wheat, and potato) plants. Dams and reservoirs are widely distributed in the three catchments, and these dams are

138 primarily used for agricultural irrigation and power generation (Fig. 1a). This study area is highly affected by
139 monsoon-influenced humid subtropical climate with April to October being the rainy season, and the average annual
140 precipitation, runoff, and discharge are 1100 mm, 1004 mm yr⁻¹ and 14.4 m³ s⁻¹, respectively, in the Yinjiang River
141 catchment. Further details on the regional setting of the study area and the sources and methods for catchment characteristics
142 delineation are provided in our previous study (Chen et al., 2021).

143 2.2 Field sampling

144 Surface water samples (n = 28) along the mainstem and major tributaries of the Yinjiang River, Shiqian River, and Yuqing
145 River and spring water samples (n = 4) were collected in September 2018 (Fig. 1a). During the sampling period, two water
146 samples (sites Y12 and Y15) were significantly affected by rainfall events, and an additional sample was collected at site
147 Y12 before the rainfall event as it is close to the hydrological station. Unless stated otherwise, the data used in this study
148 from site Y12 are based on the sample collected after rainfall events due to the availability of carbon isotopes. Electrical
149 conductivity (EC) and dissolved oxygen (DO) were measured by a multi-parameter water quality probe (WTW, pH
150 3630/Cond 3630, Germany) in the field. For the analysis of ion concentrations, total phosphorus (TP), ammonium (NH₄⁺-N),
151 and total nitrogen (TN), water samples were filtered through 0.45 μm cellulose acetate membranes. Water samples for the
152 concentrations and isotopes of DOC and DOM absorbance and fluorescence were filtered through pre-combusted glass fibre
153 filters (Whatman, 0.7 μm). The filtered water was stored in a Milli-Q water and sampling water pre-washed brand-new
154 low-density polyethylene container at low temperature (4°C) in the dark within one week before optical properties analysis
155 and acidified by phosphoric acid to pH = 2 for DOC analysis. Water samples were also filtered for determining DIC (through
156 0.45 μm cellulose acetate membranes) through titration with hydrochloric acid and analyzing POC using retained suspended
157 particles on the filter membranes. The water samples filtered through 0.22 μm cellulose-acetate filter membranes were used
158 to determine water isotopes (δ¹⁸O and δD). Detailed information on sampling methods was provided in Chen et al. (2021)
159 and Zhong et al. (2020).

160 2.3 Laboratory analysis

161 The main cations (K⁺, Na⁺, Ca²⁺, and Mg²⁺) were measured by inductively coupled plasma emission spectrometer
162 (ICP-OES), and the main anions (Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, and NO₃⁻) were measured by ion chromatography (Thermo Aquion; Chen et al.,
163 2020). The normalized inorganic charge balance is within 5%, indicating the accuracy of the measured data. The
164 concentrations of NH₄⁺-N were analyzed using an automatic flow analyzer (Skalar Sans Plus Systems), and the relative
165 deviations of the results of NH₄⁺-N were less than 5%. DOC concentrations were determined with a total organic carbon
166 analyser (OI Analytical, Aurora 1030W, USA) with duplicates (±1.5%, analytical error) and a detection limit at 0.01 mg L⁻¹.
167 Water isotopes were measured by a Liquid Water Isotope Analyzer (Picarro L2140-i, USA) with measurement precisions at ±

168 0.3 ‰ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. The above analyses were carried out at the Institute of Surface Earth System Science, Tianjin University.

169 For the determination of stable carbon isotope and radiocarbon isotope of DOC ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ and $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$), water samples
170 were first concentrated using a rotary evaporation and then oxidized through the wet oxidation method (Leonard et al., 2013).
171 In this study, nine water samples collected from the Yinjiang River were selected for $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ analysis as the Yinjiang River
172 catchment has the greatest change in geomorphologic characteristics (i.e., elevation and catchment slope) and the highest
173 proportion of agricultural and urban land uses among the three catchments. The generated CO_2 was purified in a vacuum
174 system for $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ and $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ analyses, respectively. $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ was directly determined by the MAT 253 mass spectrometer
175 with an analysis accuracy of ± 0.1 ‰. For $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ analysis, the purified CO_2 was transformed into graphite following the
176 same method of $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{POC}}$ analysis (Chen et al., 2021) and measured by an accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) system
177 within 24 hours with an analytical error of ± 3 ‰ (Dong et al., 2018).

178 Optical analyses on DOM were conducted on river samples. DOM absorbance of river water samples was measured from
179 250 to 750 nm at 1 nm intervals using a UV (ultraviolet)-visible spectrophotometer (UV-2700, Shimadzu) with a 1 cm quartz
180 cuvette. The UV-visible spectrophotometer was blanked with Milli-Q water prior to data collection. Decadic absorbance
181 values were used to calculate decadic absorption coefficients as below (Poulin et al., 2014):

$$182 \quad \alpha_{254} = \text{Abs}_{254}/L, \quad (1)$$

183 Where, α_{254} is the decadic absorption coefficient (m^{-1}), Abs_{254} is the absorbance at 254 nm, and L represents the path
184 length (m). Specific UV absorbance at 254 nm (SUVA_{254} ; reported in units of $\text{L mg C}^{-1} \text{m}^{-1}$) was determined according to
185 Weishaar et al. (2003; Table 1):

$$186 \quad \text{SUVA}_{254} = \alpha_{254}/\text{DOC}. \quad (2)$$

187 DOM fluorescence was determined with a fluorescence spectrophotometer (F-7000, Hitachi, Japan) to quantify
188 humic-like, fulvic-like, and protein-like fluorescences (Fellman et al., 2010). The fate of humic-like fluorescences may be
189 self-assembly particles or be adsorbed onto minerals, while protein-like fluorescences are tightly associated with biological
190 processes, and biodegraded into inorganic matter (Fellman et al., 2010; He et al., 2016). The excitation wavelengths ranged
191 from 220 to 400 nm at 5 nm increments, and the emission wavelength from 280 to 500 nm at 2 nm increments. Blanks were
192 measured daily with the same settings to correct excitation-emission matrices (EEMs). Parallel factor analysis (PARAFAC)
193 was performed using the N-way toolbox in Matlab (MathWorks, USA) to determine peaks (Andersson and Bro, 2000;
194 Mostofa et al., 2019; Stedmon and Bro, 2008). Detailed procedures and criteria for applying and validating the PARAFAC
195 model are available in Yi et al. (2021). Identified PARAFAC model components were further compared with relevant
196 published and reported fluorophores in the OpenFluor database (Table 1; Murphy et al., 2014). Several common indices of
197 DOM composition were determined from EEMs, including fluorescence index (FI; McKnight et al., 2001), humification
198 index (HIX; Ohno, 2002), and freshness index (β/α ; Parlanti et al., 2000; Table 2).

200 **Table 1.** Description of the three components identified by PARAFAC and comparison with previous studies from the
 201 OpenFluor database with a minimum similarity score of 0.95 (Murphy et al., 2014).

Component	$E_{X_{max}}$ (nm)	$E_{m_{max}}$ (nm)	Description and likely structure	Number of matches in Openfluor	Previous studies
C1	295	402	Similar to traditionally defined peak M, marine humic-like components, are products from microbial processes or autochthonous production.	6	C6 (Walker et al., 2009); C4 (Kim et al., 2022); C4 (Li et al., 2016)
C2	275	338	Protein-like (Tryptophan-like) components, commonly found in anthropogenically affected rivers, are associated with recent biological production and breakdown products of lignin.	30	C3 (DeFrancesco and Guéguen, 2021); C7 (Lambert et al., 2017); C2 (Du et al., 2019)
C3	325	440	Traditional fulvic-like peaks A and C, humic-like and terrestrial delivered OM, autochthonous, or microbial source.	70	C1 (Amaral et al., 2016); C1 (Ryan et al., 2022); C1 (Shutova et al., 2014)

202

203 2.4. Statistical analysis

204 Normality of the data was first examined by a Shapiro-Wilk test using SPSS 26. Normally distributed data were analyzed by
 205 one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-test for multiple comparisons. Nonparametric data with three or more comparisons were
 206 made by Kruskal–Wallis test followed by Holm's Stepdown Bonferroni correction. The Mann–Whitney U test was used for
 207 comparison of distributions between two groups. The correlations among DOC concentrations, DOM properties, carbon
 208 isotopes, ion concentrations, and catchment characteristics (i.e., mean catchment slope, the proportion of different land uses,
 209 mean annual air temperature, and mean drainage elevation) were computed by Pearson's correlation coefficients (R) by
 210 OriginPro 2021 (student version). Values are presented as the mean \pm standard deviation (SD). All statistical tests were
 211 performed at a 0.05 significance level. In addition, all the statistical analyses were performed again after data from site Y12
 212 were removed to test the possible skew of findings, as the sample was significantly affected by rainfall events. If not
 213 mentioned otherwise, the results from site Y12 did not skew the findings at the significance level of 0.05.

214 We performed a stepwise multiple linear regression (MLR) modeling to identify significant environmental factors of
 215 DOC concentrations and DOM properties using SPSS 26. All environmental factors were included in the models except for
 216 SOC because we aim to examine the impacts of human activities and geomorphology rather than the direct influence of SOC
 217 on DOC concentrations and DOM properties. The objective model with the highest adjusted R^2 value was used to infer the
 218 DOC concentrations and DOM properties. In addition to the MLR and Pearson correlation analyses to explore the

219 relationships between environmental factors and DOC, we further performed the partial least squares path model (PLS-PM)
 220 to infer direct and indirect effects of multiple factors (e.g., geomorphologic and anthropogenic impacts) on DOC
 221 concentrations and DOM properties. The PLS-PM analysis was performed using the R package “plsmpm” (Sanchez, 2013).
 222 Because PLS-PM offers the advantage of not imposing any distributional assumptions on the data, which enhances its broad
 223 applicability (Sanchez, 2013), and allows for the exploration of complex cause-effect relationships involving latent variables,
 224 it is a suitable technique for multivariate analyses. Each latent variable consists of one or more manifest variables (e.g.,
 225 geomorphology, including elevation and slope). The environmental factors used in the model were categorized into seven
 226 latent variables, including geomorphology (elevation and slope), anthropogenic activities (e.g., urban and agricultural land
 227 uses and anthropogenically derived Cl^- ($\text{Cl}^-_{\text{anthro}}$, calculated as the total Cl^- concentration minus atmospheric contributed Cl^-
 228 concentration, which is the lowest Cl^- concentration at site Y5 in the Yinjiang River; Gaillardet et al., 1997; Meybeck, 1983)),
 229 climate (T_{air}), SOC (SOC content), water chemistry (pH), POC (POC concentrations), and nutrient ($\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ and TN). The
 230 environmental factors and their manifest variables included in the model were the most critical variables identified based on
 231 the Pearson correlation results. These variables were selected after reducing the full models (initial models with more
 232 variables) to meet the requirements of the PLS-PM analysis (Du et al., 2023; Sanchez, 2013; Tian et al., 2019). In addition,
 233 the structure of the model was simplified to focus on the major effect of environmental factors on DOC concentrations rather
 234

235 **Table 2.** DOM optical parameters used in this study.

Index Name	Calculation	Description	Reference
SUVA ₂₅₄	$\text{SUVA}_{254} = \alpha_{254} / \text{DOC}$ concentration. α_{254} is the decadic UV absorbance at 254 nm.	An indicator for the degree of aromaticity. It is positively correlated with aromaticity.	Weishaar et al. (2003)
Fluorescence index (FI)	FI = Em450/Em500, at Ex 370 nm.	A proxy for DOM source. Higher values (~1.9) were associated with microbial sources, and lower values (~1.4) correlated with terrestrial sources.	McKnight et al. (2001)
Humification index (HIX)	HIX = $\sum 435-480 / (\sum 300-345 + \sum 435-480)$, at Ex 254 nm.	Indicator of humification status of DOM. Higher HIX values indicate an increasing degree of humification.	Ohno (2002)
Freshness index (β/α)	$\beta/\alpha = \text{Em}380 (\beta) / \text{the Em intensity}$ maximum between 420 and 435 nm at Ex 310 nm (α).	Higher β/α values are commonly associated with the increasing contribution of recently microbially produced DOM.	Parlanti et al. (2000)

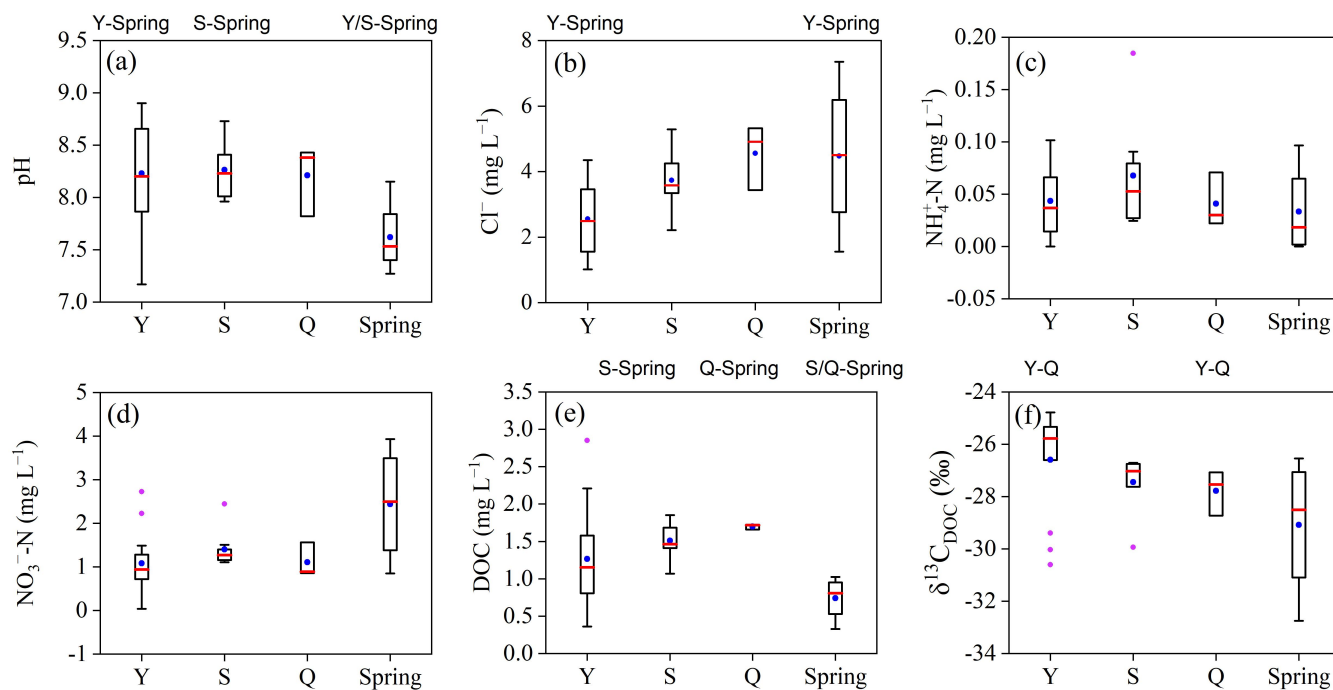
236 than to explore the effects on other factors (e.g., the geomorphologic controls on POC were ignored). The significance of the
 237 path coefficients was determined through a nonparametric bootstrap resampling of 1000 times.

238 3 Results

239 3.1 Spatial variations in water chemistry, DOC concentrations, and isotopes of DOC

240 Both river water and spring water were mildly alkaline with pH varying from 7.2 to 8.9, and the pH in the Yinjiang and
 241 Shiqian rivers was higher than that in the spring water (Fig. 2a). The Cl^- concentration showed an increasing trend in the
 242 Yinjiang, Shiqian, and Yuqing rivers, with an average of $2.56 \pm 1.03 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, $3.76 \pm 0.83 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, and $4.55 \pm 0.81 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$,
 243 respectively (Fig. 2b). In addition, the Cl^- concentration in the spring water ($4.48 \pm 2.08 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) was significantly higher
 244 than that in the Yinjiang River ($p < 0.05$; Fig. 2b). Within the rivers and springs, the water displayed similar $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$
 245 concentrations with the mean value at $0.04 \pm 0.03 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, $0.07 \pm 0.05 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, $0.04 \pm 0.03 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, and $0.03 \pm 0.04 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ in
 246 the Yinjiang, Shiqian, Yuqing rivers, and spring water (Fig. 2c). In springs, the average $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ concentration was $1.93 \pm$
 247 0.93 mg L^{-1} , higher than the average in the three rivers ($1.15 \pm 0.36 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$), though there were no significant differences for
 248 the overall $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ concentration between the rivers and springs ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 2d).

249



250

251 **Figure 2.** Spatial variations in water chemistry in the Yinjiang (Y), Shiqian (S), and Yuqing (Q) rivers and springs. (a) pH, (b) Cl^- , (c)
 252 $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$, (d) $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$, (e) DOC, and (f) $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$. In each box plot, the end of the box represents the 25th and 75th percentiles, the blue solid
 253 dot represents the mean, the horizontal line inside the box represents the median, and the whiskers represent 1.5 times the upper and lower
 254 interquartile ranges (IQR). The magenta solid dot represents the outlier (data points outside of the 1.5 interquartile ranges). Letters above
 255 the boxes represent significant differences between the grouping of river and/or spring water based on statistical analyses at the
 256 significance level of 0.05 (e.g., Y-Spring above panel (b) indicates that the Cl^- in river water of the Yinjiang River was significantly
 257 different from that in the spring water).

258 DOC concentrations in the three study rivers varied from 0.36 to 2.85 mg L⁻¹ with the highest mean concentration in the
 259 Yuqing River (1.70 ± 0.04 mg L⁻¹; Fig. 2e), followed by the Shiqian River (1.51 ± 0.22 mg L⁻¹) and the Yinjiang River (1.27
 260 ± 0.66 mg L⁻¹). The DOC concentrations in spring water were significantly lower than those in the surface water of the
 261 Shiqian and Yuqing rivers ($p < 0.05$; Fig. 2e), and the average DOC concentration in spring water (0.74 ± 0.30 mg L⁻¹) was
 262 also lower than the average DOC concentration in the Yinjiang River, indicating there must be other sources of DOC besides
 263 groundwater.

264 For $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$, although the average $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ values showed a decreasing trend in the Yinjiang River, Shiqian River, Yuqing
 265 River, and springs, averaging at $-26.6 \pm 1.8 \text{ ‰}$, $-27.5 \pm 1.1 \text{ ‰}$, $-27.8 \pm 0.9 \text{ ‰}$, and $-29.1 \pm 2.7 \text{ ‰}$, respectively, there were
 266 no statistically significant differences on the overall $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ values between the three rivers and springs ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 2f).
 267 The $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ of the Yinjiang River varied widely from -109 ‰ to 33 ‰ with an average of $-54.7 \pm 39.9 \text{ ‰}$ (Table 3). The
 268 radiocarbon ages of the DOC ranged from 928 years BP (i.e., before present) to present, and the youngest $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ (33.3 ‰)
 269 was found at site Y12.

270 **Table 3.** $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ and age of DOC in the Yinjiang River.

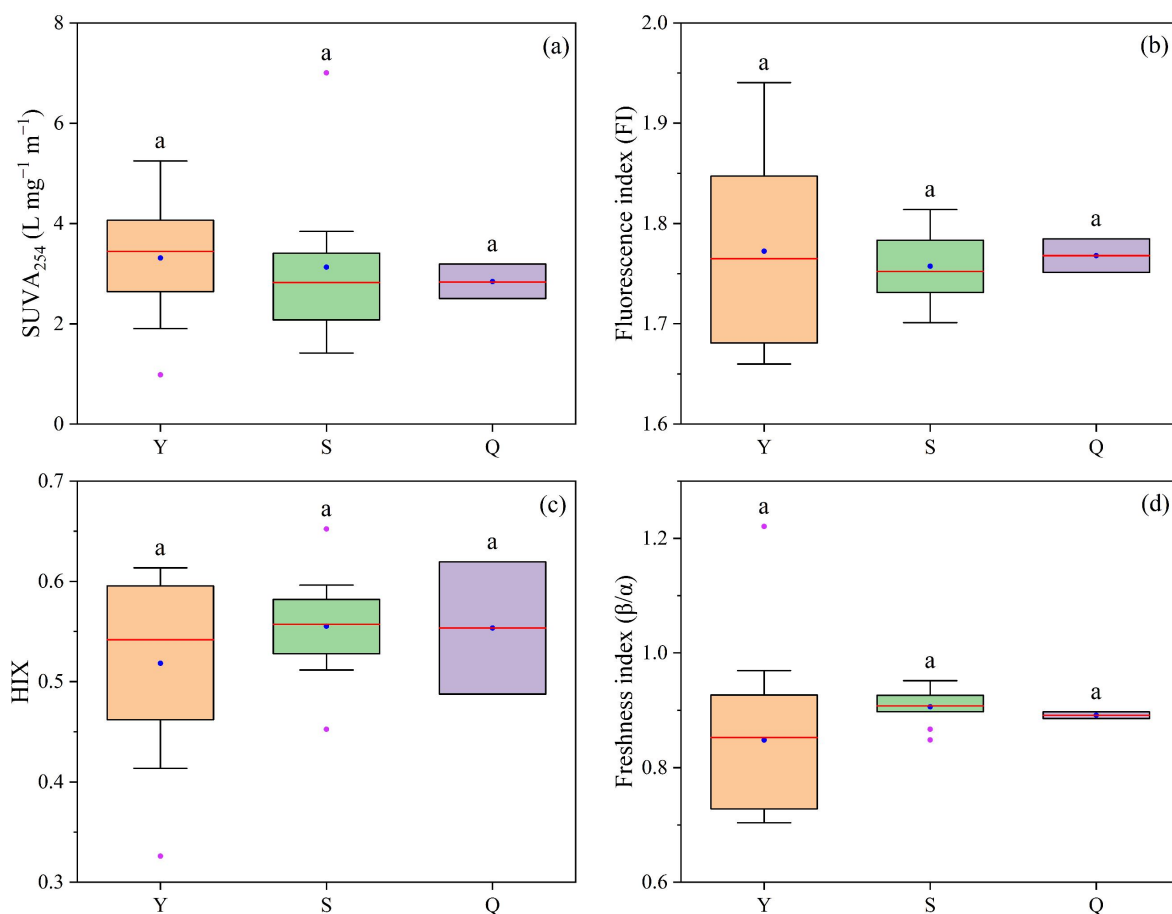
River	Samples	$\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ (‰)	DOC-Age (yr BP)	SD of DOC-Age (yr BP)
Yinjiang River	Y1	-92	774	25
	Y2	-74	616	23
	Y3	-52	430	27
	Y5	-40	326	27
	Y9	-59	491	27
	Y11	-51	417	27
	Y12	33	Modern	28
	Y13	-49	401	24
	Y14	-109	928	28

271 3.2. Riverine DOM optical properties

272 Two humic-like components (C1 and C3) and one protein-like component (C2) were identified by the PARAFAC
 273 model in these three rivers (Fig. S3; Table 1). Component C1 is similar to traditionally defined peak M and sourced
 274 from microbial processes or autochthonous production (Kim et al., 2022; Li et al., 2016; Walker et al., 2009). Component
 275 C2 was previously related to recent biological production (DeFrancesco and Guéguen, 2021; Du et al., 2019; Lambert et al.,
 276 2017). C3 was the most widely found component in previous research among three fluorescent components and was

277 identified as traditional fulvic-like peaks A and C, representing terrestrial delivered OM or autochthonous microbial
 278 sourced OM (Amaral et al., 2016; Ryan et al., 2022; Shutova et al., 2014). Although C1 and C2 varied more widely in the
 279 Yinjiang River compared with the Shiqian and Yuqing rivers, the two fluorescent components did not show a statistical
 280 difference among the three rivers ($p > 0.05$; Figs. S3a and b). However, a greater proportion of C3 was found in the
 281 Shiqian River, exhibiting a distinctive signature compared with the Yinjiang River (Fig. S3c). The proportion of C3 did
 282 not show any significant differences between the Yuqing River and the other two rivers (i.e., the Yinjiang and Shiqian
 283 rivers).

284 The average $SUVA_{254}$ were 3.3 ± 1.1 , 3.1 ± 1.8 , and 2.8 ± 0.3 $L\ mg^{-1}\ m^{-1}$ in the Yinjiang, Shiqian, and Yuqing
 285 rivers, respectively, without significant spatial differences across the three rivers ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 3a). For the
 286 fluorescence indexes, the overall fluorescence property did not vary significantly among the three rivers ($p > 0.05$; Figs.
 287 3b, c, and d). FI varied in a narrow range compared with β/α and HIX. FI of DOM ranged from 1.66 to 1.94, averaging
 288 1.78 (Fig. 3b), indicating a mixture of DOM of terrestrial and microbial origins. In comparison, β/α varied from 0.70 to
 289 1.22 (Fig. 3d), and HIX varied from 0.33 to 0.65 (Fig. 3c), with greater variability among the three rivers.

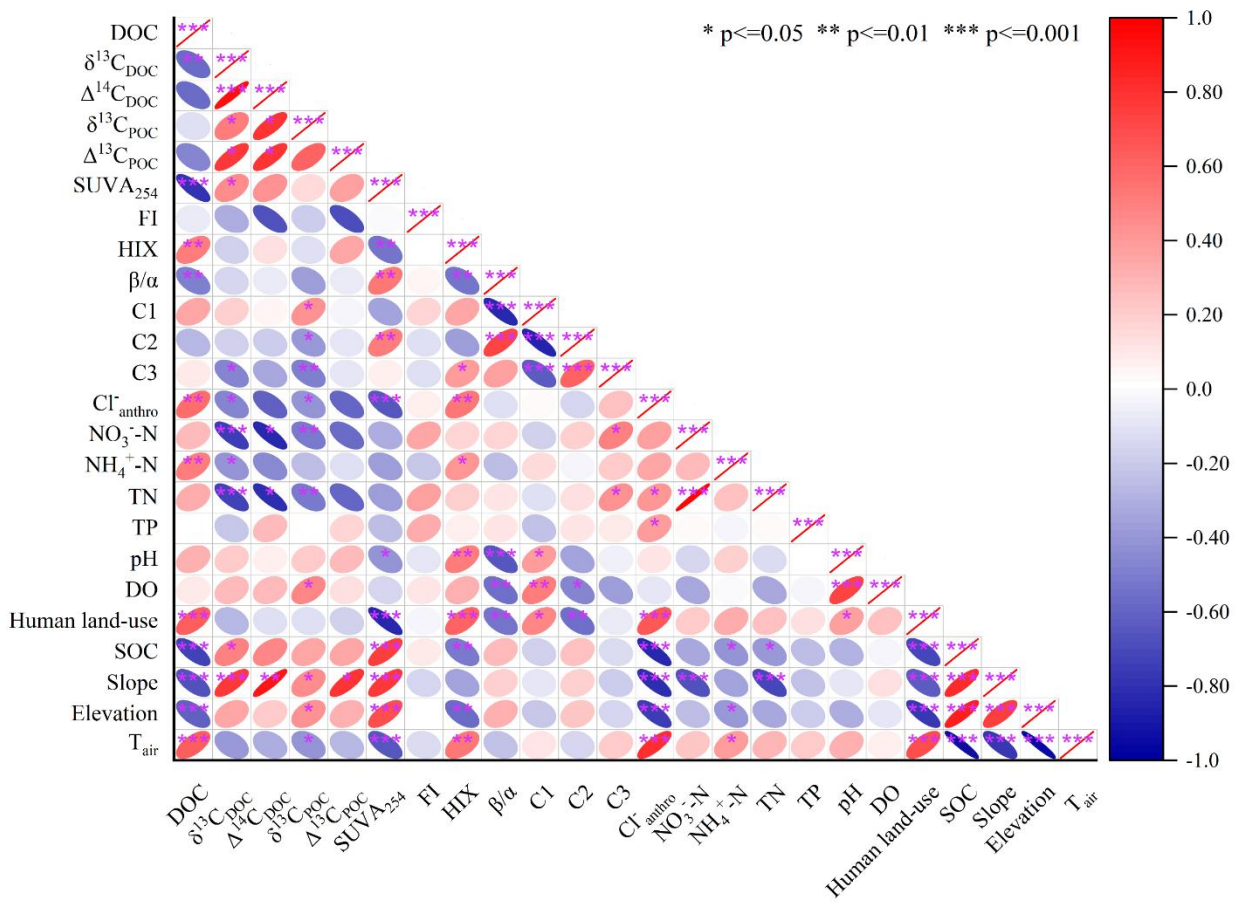


290
 291 **Figure 3** Spatial variations in DOM property in the Yinjiang (Y), Shiqian (S), and Yuqing (Q) catchments. (a) $SUVA_{254}$, (b) fluorescence
 292 index (FI), (c) HIX, and (d) freshness index (β/α). In each box plot, the end of the box represents the 25th and 75th percentiles, the blue
 293 solid dot represents the average, the horizontal red line represents the median, and the whiskers represent 1.5 IQR. The magenta solid dot
 294 represents the outlier, which is outside of the 1.5 interquartile range. Different lowercase letters above the boxes denote significant
 295 differences across rivers based on statistical analysis with $p < 0.05$.

296 3.3. Factors influencing DOC concentrations, isotopes of DOC, and DOM optical properties

297 Significant pairwise interdependencies between DOC and catchment characteristics were identified in the three study rivers
298 (Fig. 4). There is a strong negative correlation between DOC and SOC ($p < 0.001$, $r = -0.73$; Fig. 4), as well as average
299 catchment slope ($p < 0.001$, $r = -0.67$). Conversely, DOC displayed a positive correlation with the proportion of urban and
300 agricultural land uses ($p < 0.001$, $r = 0.62$), $\text{Cl}^-_{\text{anthro}}$ ($p < 0.01$, $r = 0.58$), and $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ ($p < 0.01$, $r = 0.51$). Stepwise MLR
301 models revealed that topsoil SOC and POC were the most effective predictors for explaining the spatial variation in DOC
302 concentrations (Table 4), while catchment slope and $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ exhibited the highest explanatory power for DOC
303 concentrations when SOC was excluded from the models. Unlike DOC, a significant positive correlation with mean
304 catchment slope was found for $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ ($p < 0.001$, $r = 0.76$; Fig. 4). In addition, there was a significant negative correlation
305 between $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ and $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ ($p < 0.001$, $r = -0.75$). Moreover, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ was negatively correlated with DOC concentrations
306 ($p < 0.01$, $r = -0.57$; Fig. 4), but positively correlated with $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{POC}}$ in these three rivers ($p < 0.05$, $r = 0.51$). Similar to
307 $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$, $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ was positively related to mean catchment slope ($p < 0.01$, $r = 0.91$) and $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{POC}}$ ($p < 0.05$, $r = 0.79$).
308 Additionally, there was a positive correlation between $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{POC}}$ and catchment slope ($p < 0.05$, $r = 0.79$), and no significant
309 correlations were detected between $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{POC}}$ and the proportion of urban and agricultural land uses or ions that reflect human
310 disturbances (e.g., $\text{Cl}^-_{\text{anthro}}$, $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$, and $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$; $p > 0.05$; Fig. 4).

311 SUVA₂₅₄ showed an increasing trend with increasing mean catchment slope ($p < 0.001$, $r = 0.77$; Fig. 4). Furthermore,
312 there was a significant negative correlation between SUVA₂₅₄ and the proportion of urban and agricultural land uses ($p <$
313 0.001 , $r = -0.83$). This is consistent with the constructed stepwise MLR models that urban and agricultural land uses and
314 catchment slope were the best predictors of SUVA₂₅₄ (Table 4). Although no significant correlation was observed between the
315 fluorescence indexes and catchment slope, they (except for FI) were found to be closely related to land use patterns (Fig. 4).
316 For example, HIX had a positive correlation with urban and agricultural land uses ($p < 0.001$, $r = 0.61$; Fig. 4), while β/α had
317 a negative correlation with urban and agricultural land uses ($p < 0.01$, $r = -0.52$) and water pH ($p < 0.001$, $r = -0.66$). In
318 addition, the fluorescent components did not exhibit significant variations with changing catchment slope ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 4),
319 but the percentage of C1 and C2 were positively ($p < 0.05$, $r = 0.47$) or negatively ($p < 0.01$, $r = -0.55$) related to the
320 proportion of urban and agricultural land uses. Urban and agricultural land uses were also identified as predictors for DOM
321 optical indexes (i.e., HIX; Table 4) and fluorescent components (i.e., C1 and C2). However, unlike C1 and C2, C3 was not
322 significantly correlated with urban and agricultural land uses ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 4), but its variation can be partially explained by
323 $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ concentrations and POC (Table 4).



324

325 **Figure 4.** Correlation plot of the selected water chemistry and catchment characteristics. The colors represent the degree of pairwise
 326 correlation regarding Pearson's correlation coefficient. $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ and $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ at site Y12 were excluded from the analysis as the sample was
 327 collected after a rainfall event. In addition, SUVA_{254} at site S3 was excluded from the analysis as the sample was strongly influenced by
 328 road construction, which was evidenced by high POC and TSM concentration (Chen et al., 2021). Human land use denotes the proportion
 329 of urban and agricultural land uses. Elevation and T_{air} represent mean drainage elevation and annual air temperature, respectively.

330 **3.4. Direct and indirect effects of environmental factors on DOC concentrations**

331 The PLS-PM analysis showed that 67% of the variance in DOC concentrations could be explained by our constructed seven
 332 environmental factors ($R^2 = 0.67$, Fig. 5a). The total effect on DOC concentrations is strongest from geomorphology (-0.65),
 333 followed by SOC (-0.45), anthropogenic activities (0.39), climate (0.38), POC (0.27), nutrient (0.21), and water chemistry
 334 (0.10) (Fig. 5b). The results indicated that geomorphology was the most significant factor in controlling DOC concentrations,
 335 primarily through indirect regulation on SOC content, which was directly influenced by annual catchment temperature and
 336 anthropogenic activities (Figs. 5a and b). In comparison, anthropogenic activities not only indirectly regulated riverine DOC
 337 concentrations through SOC, but also had a significant indirect impact on DOC concentrations through the regulation of
 338 nutrient levels. Similar to DOC concentrations, geomorphology (-0.53) exhibited the most pronounced effects on fluorescent
 339 components (Fig. S4). However, anthropogenic activities (0.49) demonstrated a comparable effect on fluorescent
 340 components, primarily through a direct pathway (0.37; Fig. S4b). Anthropogenic activities (-0.84) were the strongest driver
 341 for DOM optical parameters, although geomorphology (0.59) played a significant role in indirectly influencing DOM optical

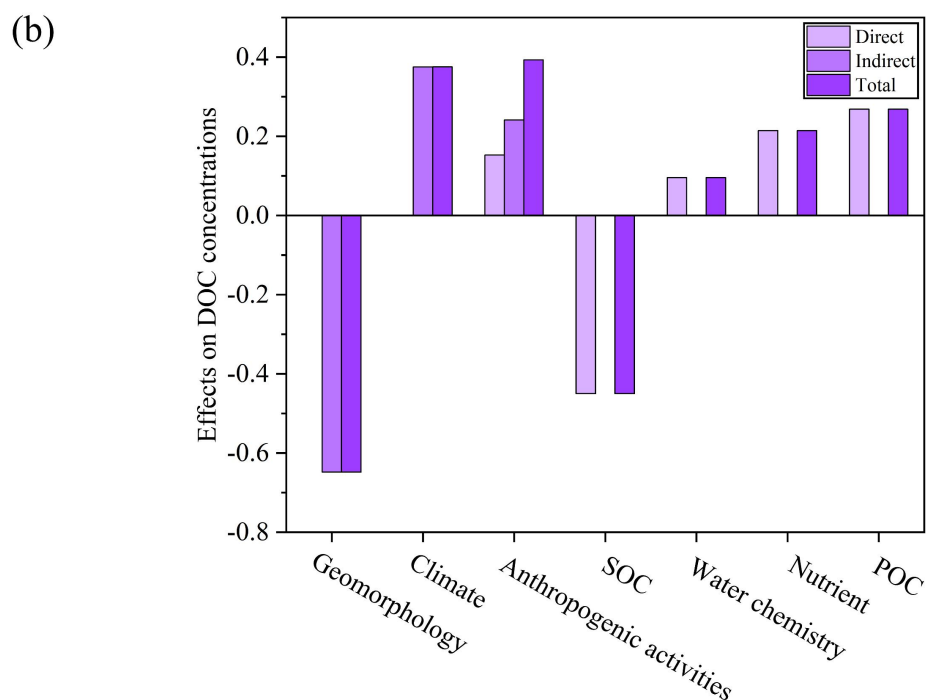
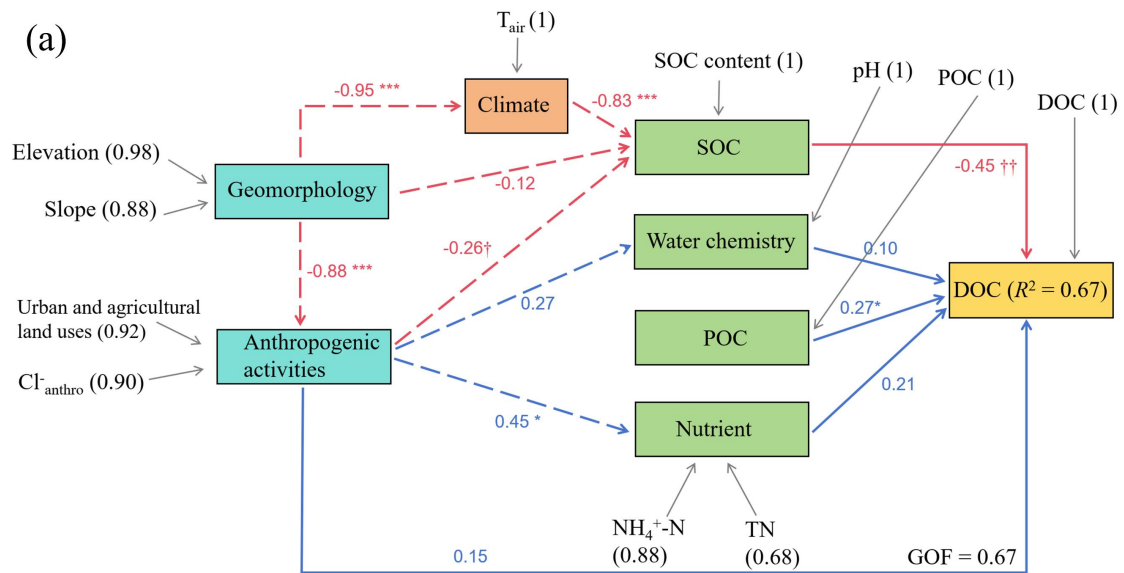
342 parameters (Fig. S5).

343

344 **Table 4.** Multiple stepwise linear regression models of catchment attributes and water chemistry on DOC concentrations and
 345 DOM properties.

Dependent variables	Predictors	Model equation	<i>n</i>	Adj <i>R</i> ²	Significance level
DOC ^a	slope, NH ₄ ⁺ -N	= -0.109*slope + 4.295*NH ₄ ⁺ -N + 3.375	28	0.50	<i>p</i> < 0.001
DOC	SOC, POC	= -0.006*SOC + 0.384*POC + 4.145	28	0.59	<i>p</i> < 0.001
SUVA ₂₅₄	urban and agricultural land use, slope	= -5.461*urban and agricultural land use + 0.145*slope + 1.318	26	0.77	<i>p</i> < 0.001
HIX	urban and agricultural land use	= 0.433*urban and agricultural land use + 0.438	27	0.34	<i>p</i> < 0.001
FI		No variables were entered into the equation.	27		
β/α	pH	= -0.195*pH + 2.476	27	0.41	<i>p</i> < 0.001
C1	DO, TP, urban and agricultural land use	= 7.713*DO - 220.846*TP + 90.905*urban and agricultural land use - 36.005	27	0.46	<i>p</i> < 0.001
C2	urban and agricultural land use, DO	= -48.748*urban and agricultural land use - 2.515*DO + 58.255	27	0.36	<i>p</i> = 0.002
C3	NO ₃ ⁻ -N, POC	= 4.181*NO ₃ ⁻ -N + 3.738*POC + 3.826	27	0.34	<i>p</i> = 0.003

346 ^a SOC was not included as predictors in this model to examine the impacts of human activities and geomorphology, rather than the direct
 347 influence of SOC on DOC concentrations.



348

349 **Figure 5.** The most parsimonious PLS-PM model shows the direct and indirect effects of geomorphology and anthropogenic activities on
 350 DOC concentrations. (a) Path coefficients are shown as arrows with blue and red to represent positive and negative effects, respectively.
 351 The solid and dotted lines indicate the direct and indirect influence pathways of environmental drivers on DOC concentrations,
 352 respectively. The indicators (e.g., TN) of latent variables (e.g., nutrient) are shown at the beginning of the grey arrows. The numbers in the
 353 parentheses are the loading scores. GOF denotes the goodness of fit of the entire model. R^2 indicates the amount of variance in DOC
 354 concentrations explained by its independent latent variables. The standardized path coefficients that are significantly different from zero
 355 are indicated by $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $^{\dagger}p = 0.06$, $^{\dagger\dagger}p = 0.07$. (b) Standardized direct and indirect mean effects of
 356 environmental drivers on DOC concentrations derived from the PLS-PM analysis.

357 4 Discussion

358 4.1 Geomorphologic controls on DOC export

359 Catchment slope, which is often closely associated with catchment elevation (Fig. 4), is an important predictor of DOC
360 concentrations because catchment slope is a key factor in affecting flow velocity and thus water retention time (Harms et al.,
361 2016; Mzobe et al., 2020). The negative relationship between DOC and SOC (Fig. 4 and Table 4) and the positive correlation
362 between slope and $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{POC}}$ or $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ are consistent with previous findings that a shorter water retention time in high relief
363 regions can reduce DOC export from SOC stocks and mobilize organic carbon with younger ages (Catalán et al., 2016). The
364 decreasing organic carbon export in catchments with higher slopes partially explains why high-relief regions exhibit lower
365 riverine DOC concentrations despite having a higher SOC content. Compared with high-relief regions, low-relief regions
366 would discharge more aged organic carbon into rivers when relatively ^{14}C -depleted DIC and CO_2 (aq) derived from
367 carbonate weathering are incorporated into primary production in low-relief regions, as also evidenced by the positive
368 relationship between slope and $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{POC}}$ (Fig. 4). Furthermore, the aged riverine DOC has also been attributed to the input of
369 deeper, older soil organic matter through deeper flow paths (Barnes et al., 2018; Masiello and Druffel, 2001). This aged DOC,
370 discharged through deeper water flow paths, may have also served as an important source of DOC in low relief regions of
371 this study. The correlation of SUVA_{254} with the mean catchment slope suggests that steeper catchments tend to export DOC
372 with more aromaticity (Fig. 4 and Table 4), indicating the geomorphologic effects on DOM characteristics. Previous research
373 has reported that the aromatic content of DOM tends to decline if DOM is derived from deeper soil profiles (Inamdar et al.,
374 2011), which is attributed to the sorption of aromatic DOM when subsurface flow water percolates through the soil profile.

375 Microbial degradation has been well-recognized as a critical factor in controlling organic material preservation in soils
376 (Barnes et al., 2018). Previous studies have reported a decreasing $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ with increasing DOC concentrations in spring
377 water (Nkoue Ndong et al., 2020) and for TOC in soil profiles (Lloret et al., 2016; Nkoue Ndong et al., 2020). We
378 observed a comparable relationship in river water of the three catchments (Fig. 4). This can be explained by the lateral
379 transport of DOC from microbially active soil horizons into rivers (Lambert et al., 2011), resulting in the enhanced
380 biodegradation of DOC with the preferential removal of ^{12}C . As a result, the remaining DOC with lower concentrations is
381 typically characterized by a heavier $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ (Nkoue Ndong et al., 2020; Opsahl and Zepp, 2001), which further indicates
382 that the low-concentration DOC in the three rivers is the result of substantial microbial degradation.

383 Groundwater with significant SOC inputs due to highly active microbial activities has long been recognized as a
384 substantial source of DOC (McDonough et al., 2020; Shen et al., 2015). Several studies have reported increased groundwater
385 contributions with distance downstream at the watershed scale (Cowie et al., 2017; Iwasaki et al., 2021). The strong positive
386 relationship between conductivity and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ($p < 0.001$; Fig. S6a) is primarily due to the mixing of two end-members (i.e.,
387 high-conductivity with ^{18}O -enriched groundwater and low-conductivity with ^{18}O -depleted headstream water) for river water

388 (Lamb, 2004), though it may also indicate the impact of evaporation in the catchment (Zhong et al., 2020). In addition, the
389 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values increased progressively from upstream to downstream (Fig. S6b), which also validates the two sources (i.e.,
390 headstream water and groundwater) of downstream river water, indicating that groundwater was likely an essential
391 contributor to downstream river water. This also supports our earlier hypothesis that aged DOC could be exported into rivers
392 through deeper water flow paths. However, groundwater was likely not the primary source of riverine DOC due to the
393 relatively low groundwater DOC concentrations as compared with riverine DOC concentrations (Fig. 2e; groundwater is
394 shown as “spring”). Moreover, the groundwater contribution was probably much less significant in the wet season (e.g.,
395 September in the study area), even in catchments where DOC is mainly derived from groundwater (Lloret et al., 2016). Thus,
396 we infer groundwater is an important but not a primary source of riverine DOC in the three study rivers.

397 **4.2 Anthropogenic impacts on DOC**

398 Previous research has found significant changes in DOC concentrations and DOM composition in agricultural and urban
399 landscapes (Spencer et al., 2019; Stanley et al., 2012). Conversion of native forest and pasture to row crop agriculture may
400 lead to substantial losses of SOC stores due to greatly accelerated erosion and decomposition rates (Guo and Gifford, 2002;
401 Montgomery, 2007; Stanley et al., 2012). In comparison, natural vegetation could greatly reduce SOC input into rivers by
402 effectively reducing soil erosion through the consolidation effect of roots on soil and the interception of rainfall by stems and
403 leaves (Zhang et al., 2019). Agricultural activities tend to liberate SOC through erosion over longer timescales and cause an
404 elevated DOC export into rivers (Figs. 4 and 5), although DOC of urban origin can also make a massive contribution to the
405 riverine DOC pool (Sickman et al., 2007). Yet, anthropogenic impacts can also result in decreased DOC concentrations
406 globally due to reduced organic carbon inputs into soils and enhanced SOC decomposition induced by warmer temperatures
407 (Nagy et al., 2018; Spencer et al., 2019) or lead to undetectable changes in DOC concentrations (Veum et al., 2009). These
408 different responses are mainly due to diverse farming practices and associated changing effects on terrestrial and aquatic
409 carbon dynamics (Stanley et al., 2012).

410 Anthropogenic activities are important factors for the pervasive increase in nutrient and ion concentrations (Chetelat et
411 al., 2008; Smith and Schindler, 2009). For catchments without evaporite outcrops, their riverine Cl^- excluding atmospheric
412 contribution can be regarded as mainly of anthropogenic origin ($\text{Cl}^-_{\text{anthro}}$), which is a strong indicator of anthropogenic
413 activities (Fig. 5). The positive relationship between DOC concentrations and $\text{Cl}^-_{\text{anthro}}$ as shown in Fig. 4 also demonstrated
414 anthropogenic impacts on DOC export. Nutrient enrichment has been a well-known contributor to eutrophication (Paerl,
415 2009). In conjunction with increasing water residence time due to damming (Fig. 1a), our results demonstrate that enhanced
416 nutrient inputs into rivers will enhance algae production (Chen et al., 2021) and, eventually, accumulation of DOC (as
417 evidenced by the relationship between $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ and DOC in Fig. 4 with $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ serving as a predictor for DOC, see Table 4).

418 A recent study conducted in the Longtan Reservoir in the Xijiang River basin in southwest China with widespread karst
419 landscape (similar to our study area) found that a majority of its POC was intercepted or degraded within the reservoir, with
420 the POC primarily originating from phytoplankton (Yi et al., 2022). Its carbon isotope composition of POC ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{POC}}$) ranged
421 from -35‰ to -30‰ , which is relatively depleted, and the POC was found to be a significant contributor to the reservoir's
422 DOC (Yi et al., 2022). Thus, the lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ with increasing NO_3^- -N further indicated the greater algae- or C3
423 plant-derived DOC accumulation with a higher level of nutrients (Fig. 4 and Table 4).

424 Despite anthropogenic impacts on DOM characteristics and age have been widely proposed in the last two decades
425 (Butman et al., 2014; Coble et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2021), there are no clear relationships between land use and ^{14}C ages in
426 our study area, which may result from large variations in soil characteristics and limited ^{14}C data. However, DOM
427 characteristics were found to be closely related to land use patterns (Figs. S4 and S5; Table 4). Although significant
428 relationships with urban and agricultural land uses were found for C1 and C2 (Fig. 4; Table 4), it remains unclear how the
429 autochthonous contribution to riverine DOC pool varied with land use change because C1 and C2 are both likely derived
430 from autochthonous production but exhibit opposing trends with increasing urban and agricultural land uses (Table 1).
431 Overall, DOM in catchments with a higher proportion of urban and agricultural land uses was distinct from other catchments
432 as it was less aromatic (SUVA_{254} , Fig. 4), less recently produced (β/α), and had a higher degree of humification (HIX).
433 SUVA_{254} values for the three study rivers were comparable with those reported in coastal glacier mountainous streams with
434 late succession in southeast Alaska ($3.4 \pm 0.5 \text{ L mg}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$, $n = 5$; Holt et al. 2021) and in the anthropogenic influenced
435 downstream of the Yangtze River ($3.4 \pm 1.1 \text{ L mg}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$, $n = 82$; Zhou et al. 2021). Lower DOM aromaticity in the urban and
436 agricultural streams and rivers was consistent with previous studies (Hosen et al., 2014; Kadjeski et al., 2020), which
437 suggested a microbial origin for the DOM. However, it is important to note that this phenomenon was not universally
438 observed (Zhou et al., 2021). Furthermore, the less aromatic and less recently produced DOM could be due to soil organic
439 materials from deep soil profiles as a result of increased soil erosion by anthropogenic activities (Inamdar et al., 2011;
440 Stanley et al., 2012).

441 **4.3 Biogeochemical processes of DOC and comparison of $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ in mountainous rivers**

442 In this study, geomorphologic characteristics and anthropogenic activities were identified as significant drivers of DOC
443 export and DOM composition across broad spatial scales. Here, we further examine how these two factors regulate the
444 biogeochemical processes of DOC. As discussed above, both geomorphology and anthropogenic activities are significant
445 factors controlling DOC concentrations. The PLS-PM analysis further revealed that the combined effects of the two factors
446 on DOC were mainly achieved through indirect influences on SOC content (Fig. 5). In contrast to the direct impact of
447 anthropogenic activities on SOC through soil erosion, the controls exerted by geomorphology on SOC were closely linked to

448 climate. Lower altitudes are typically associated with higher annual air temperatures (Fig. 4), which promote terrestrial net
449 primary production and the microbial degradation of soil OC (Voss et al., 2015), resulting in the accumulation of large
450 quantities of DOC in soils (Creed et al., 2018). Geomorphology is also associated with reduced water retention time due to
451 rapid flows, leading to a lower input of terrestrially-derived DOC into rivers as discussed earlier. It is worth noting that the
452 conversion of POC to DOC through dissolution and desorption (He et al., 2016) is also an important source of riverine DOC
453 (Fig. 5). Contrary to DOC concentrations, although percentage of urban and agricultural land uses were significantly
454 correlated with mean catchment slope (Fig. S1d), anthropogenic activities were identified as more effective predictors for
455 DOM characteristics than geomorphology (Table 4), highlighting the crucial role of anthropogenic activities in regulating
456 DOM dynamics. Therefore, the biogeochemical processes of DOM in the studied three rivers were collectively affected by
457 geomorphologic controls and anthropogenic impacts. Particularly, geomorphologic controls on DOM were mainly evidenced
458 by carbon isotopes, while anthropogenic impacts were primarily supported by the DOM fluorescence characteristics (Figs. 4
459 and Table 4). There was no significant relationship between carbon isotopes and optical properties, which is inconsistent
460 with previous studies (Aiken et al., 2014; Butman et al., 2012; Zhou et al., 2018). This discrepancy is likely due to the
461 potential masking effect of autochthonous DOM, as also evidenced by the decoupled relationship between $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ and
462 SUVA_{254} in the St. Lawrence River (Aiken et al., 2014; Butman et al., 2012). Disentangling the dual influences
463 (geomorphologic and anthropogenic) is challenging because they have collectively affected both DOC concentration and
464 DOM quality in these rivers. A comprehensive assessment of the biogeochemical processes of DOC and their multiple
465 controlling factors will advance our understanding of riverine carbon cycling.

466 To provide a deeper insight into the DOC characteristics of the study rivers, DOC concentrations and the carbon isotopes
467 of DOC in global mountainous rivers are compiled and shown in Table 5. $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ in the Yinjiang River ($-54.7 \pm 39.9 \text{‰}$;
468 Tables 3 and 5) is lower than that of the global average ($-11.5 \pm 134 \text{‰}$; Marwick et al., 2015), while similar to many other
469 mountainous rivers (e.g., the Mackenzie River) and small mountainous rivers in Puerto Rico; Moyer et al., 2013). $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$
470 values for the global mountainous streams and rivers were shown by climate (according to the Köppen–Geiger climate
471 classification (Beck et al., 2018; Table 5) and ranged from tropical monsoon climate (Marwick et al., 2015), temperate
472 oceanic climate (Evans et al., 2007), cold semi-arid climates (Spencer et al., 2014) and continental subarctic climate (Hood
473 et al., 2009). Fresh DOC in mountainous rivers was reported across climates (Evans et al., 2007; Mayorga et al., 2005; Voss
474 et al., 2022). In contrast, the most aged DOC was observed in the Tibetan Plateau (Song et al., 2020; Spencer et al., 2014)
475 and the Gulf of Alaska (Hood et al., 2009). The riverine aged DOC from these regions with cold climates was mainly
476 sourced from melting glaciers with high bioavailability (Hood et al., 2009; Spencer et al., 2014) or derived from permafrost
477 thaws in deeper soil horizons with deeper flow paths (Song et al., 2020). As global air temperature increases, the greater
478 input of the aged yet microbially labile DOC into rivers would lead to increasing emissions of CO_2 and CH_4 , which in turn

479 intensifies global warming (Vonk and Gustafsson, 2013).

480

481 **Table 5.** Comparison of carbon isotopes of DOC in mountainous rivers worldwide.

Rivers/Region	Sampling Date (mmyyyy)	Climate	DOC (mg L ⁻¹)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ (‰)	$\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DOC}}$ (‰)	References
The Yinjiang River (China)	08/2018		1.3 ± 0.7	-26.6 ± 1.9	-55 ± 38	This study
Zambezi (Mozambique)	02/2012-04/2012		2.4 ± 0.6	-21.9 ± 2.4	64 ± 23	(Marwick et al., 2015)
Betsiboka (Madagascar)	01/2012-02/2012		1.3 ± 0.6	-22.8 ± 2.1	86 ± 43	
Amazon ^a	05/1995-10/1996	Tropical	1.9 ± 0.7	-26.0 ± 3.0	94 ± 176	(Mayorga et al., 2005)
Guanica and Fajardo (Puerto Rico)	09/2004-03/2008		2.3 ± 2.1	-26.1 ± 3.1	-55 ± 105	(Moyer et al., 2013)
North-West Australia (Australia)	05/2010 and 06/2011		1.5 ± 0.7	-25.0 ± 1.7	-67 ± 124	(Fellman et al., 2014)
Santa Clara (USA)	11/1997-03/1998		6.2 ± 2.7	-26.1 ± 0.9	-148 ± 58	(Masiello and Druffel, 2001)
Conwy (Wales) ^b		Temperate	9.2 ± 7.3	-28.0 ± 1.8	105 ± 6	(Evans et al., 2007)
Brocky Burn (Scotland)	02/1998 and 06/1998			-27.9 ± 0.2	29 ± 12	(Palmer et al., 2001)
Southeast Alaska	07/2013		0.8 ± 0.2	-27.0 ± 1.6	-93 ± 77	(Holt et al., 2021)
Gulf of Alaska	07/2008		1.2 ± 0.5	-23.9 ± 1.1	-207 ± 121	(Hood et al., 2009)
Alaska ^c	05/2012-10/2012		3.7 ± 4.1	-27.4 ± 0.8	-10 ± 55	(Behnke et al., 2020)
Kolyma (Russia) ^d	01/2003-12/2003			-28.5 ± 1.3	57 ± 51	(Neff et al., 2006)
Hudson (USA) ^e	01/2004		5.9 ± 0.7	-27.0 ± 0.0	-26 ± 13	(Raymond et al., 2004)
Central Ontario (Canada)	1990-1992	Continental	6.4 ± 4.5		96 ± 79	(Schiff et al., 1997)
Mackenzie River Basin (Canada) ^f	06/2018		4.3 ± 1.8	-26.9 ± 0.2	-55 ± 72	(Campeau et al., 2020)
Mulde (Germany)	08/2008-10/2010		9.8 ± 7.3	-26.6 ± 0.5	7 ± 27	(Tittel et al., 2013)
Fraser (Canada)	07/2009-05/2011		4.1 ± 5.6	-26.5 ± 0.5	58 ± 34	(Voss et al., 2022)
Yangtze River source region (China)	02/2017-12/2017		2.9 ± 1.4	-27.9 ± 3.3	-397 ± 185	(Song et al., 2020)
Tibetan Plateau (China)		Continental/Dry	0.27 ± 0.0	-23.5 ± 0.2	-209 ± 71	(Spencer et al., 2014)

482 ^a Only rivers draining mountainous areas from the Andean Cordillera were reported. ^b Data were obtained from Marwick et al. (2015). ^c
483 Calculated from mean values. ^d Only mountainous and upland rivers were reported. ^e Only the Upper Hudson River was reported. ^f Only
484 tributaries sourced from Cordillera were reported.

485 5 Conclusions

486 This study provided insights into the DOC dynamics and their influencing factors in anthropogenically-impacted subtropical
487 small mountainous rivers. Variations in DOC concentrations are regulated by both geomorphologic and anthropogenic
488 disturbances. We observed a positive relationship between DOC concentrations and anthropogenic land use but a negative

489 correlation between DOC concentration and catchment slope. Carbon isotope variations were mainly due to changing mean
490 catchment slope, while fluorescence properties of DOM were highly influenced by land use. Additionally, we found
491 increased aromaticity with elevated catchment slope and reduced agricultural and urban land uses, indicating the
492 geomorphologic and anthropogenic controls on DOM characteristics. We attribute these diverse DOC responses to altered
493 water retention time, SOC dynamics, and water flow paths. This study highlights that the combination of dual carbon
494 isotopes and optical properties are valuable tools in tracing the origin of riverine DOC and its in-stream processes. With
495 continued economic development and population growth, anthropogenic impacts on DOC are expected to be increasingly
496 evident. However, anthropogenic impacts may alter various biogeochemical processes of DOC in different catchments with
497 changing geomorphologic features due to complicated regulating mechanisms of organic carbon cycling, which to date
498 remains poorly understood. Further studies are warranted to fully understand the combined effects of local geomorphologic
499 controls and increasing anthropogenic impacts on DOC cycling.

500

501 *Data availability.* Water chemistry, isotopes, and DOM properties data used in this study are available online at
502 <https://doi.org/10.25442/hku.24433354>. Other data are available from the corresponding author Lishan Ran upon request at
503 lsran@hku.hk.

504

505 *Author contributions.* JZ and SL conceived and designed the study. WW, JZ, and ZY contributed to the fieldwork. SC, WW,
506 YY and KMM contributed to the laboratory work and data analyses. SC wrote the original draft. LR, JZ and YY reviewed
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508

509 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

510

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