Variation of bacterial metabolic rates and organic matter in the monsoon-affected tropical estuary (Godavari, India)

Lata Gawade^{1*}, V.V.S.S. Sarma², Y.Venkateswara Rao³, K.P.J.Hemalatha⁴ ¹ CSIR-National Institute of Oceanography, Dona-Paula, Goa, India ² Regional Centre, CSIR-National Institute of Oceanography, Visakhapatnam, India ³ Department of Botany, Andhra University, Visakhapatnam, India ⁴Department of Microbiology, Andhra University, Visakhapatnam, India Corresponding author E-mail: latagg@gmail.com

Abstract

Bacteria play a central role in the oxidation of organic matter. In tropical estuaries, bacterial metabolic rates and carbon modification are regulated by physicochemical changes influenced by the annual monsoon-mediated river run-off. The present study is the first report on the effect of monsoon influenced river discharge magnitude on bacterial metabolic rates and organic matter variation in the tropical Godavari estuary and adjacent coastal waters. Concentrations, nature, and sources of particulate organic carbon and nitrogen were investigated by elemental Analyser-Isotopic Ratio Mass Spectrometer (EA-IRMS) whereas concentrations of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and nitrogen (DON) were determined by a high-temperature catalytic oxidation in surface waters of Godavari estuary, East coast of India. Bacterial abundance and metabolic rates were measured, and pCO₂ levels were calculated for surface water samples. The maxima obtained in bacterial respiration rate (994µg C $L^{-1}d^{-1}$) was associated with maximum concentrations and terrigenous nature of organic matter with high C: N ratio (~12). The highly depleted δ^{13} C POC (-32.9 ±1.4 ‰) associated with Chl-a maxima suggested its contribution from fresh water planktons. Significant positive correlation of Bacterial productivity (BP), bacterial growth efficiency (BGE) and bacterial respiration (BR) with particulate organic matter associated with low DOC: POC ratio could imply a heterotrophic preference for an abundant form of organic matter. We, moreover, uncovered that terrigenous organic matter is modified efficiently in the estuarine transect by heterotrophic bacteria under favorable physicochemical conditions like low salinity and high nutrient content. Furthermore, the majority (76%) of BGE values were <8%, and average pCO₂ levels were ~14 times greater than the atmospheric levels. Overall, this study reported that the Godavari estuary is net heterotrophic and hence significantly contribute to global carbon cycle biogeochemistry.

Key words: Bacterial metabolic rates, organic matter, pCO₂ levels, river discharge, Godavari estuary.

Introduction

Due to changing climatic conditions and increase in atmospheric CO_2 concentrations, carbon cycle has received much attention. Attempts have been made to understand the underlying mechanisms involved in carbon modification and transformation. Heterotrophic bacteria radically modify and mineralize the organic carbon, thus introducing it to the aquatic food web and making it available to the higher planktons (Pomeroy 1974; Azam et al. 1983). During the bacterial mineralization, part of organic carbon gets converted to biomass (production), and rest gets respired as inorganic carbon i.e. CO_2

(Hopkin and Smith 2005). Respiration of organic carbon in the estuarine system represents a return of CO₂ to the atmosphere previously fixed by the terrestrial systems (Richey et al. 2002; Cole et al. 2007). In aquatic systems, modification of organic matter by bacteria has been reported to be affected by temperature (Lopez and Moran 2007; Rivkin and Ledgender 2001), salinity pattern (David et al. 2000; Crump et al. 2004), light availability, pH variation, turbidity (Roland and Cole 1999), quality of the organic matter (Reinthaler et al. 2005; Apple et al. 2006; Ylla et al. 2012) and bacterial community composition (Logue et al. 2016). These factors have a significant impact on bacterial mineralization of organic carbon, particularly in estuaries. Estuaries are natural reactors for modification, mineralization and transformation of organic carbon resulting into ecological and biogeochemical gradation within the region. (Sarma et al. 2011, 2012; Bhavya et al. 2015). Particularly in monsoonal estuaries, terrestrial organic carbon load depends on the intensity of monsoon, which in turn brings variations in river discharge patterns. Whereas, nature and sources of organic carbon vary based on catchment vegetation, physicochemical control, and river discharge pattern, which in turn brings changes in bacterial modification and metabolic rates.

In spite of knowing the bacterial contribution in carbon cycling and biogeochemical processes, studies on measurement of their metabolic rates on changing nature and source of organic matter and relation to surface water pCO₂ levels are scarce. Some studies related to bacterial metabolic rates have been carried out in higher latitudes (Benner et al. 1995; Maranger et al. 2005; Vazquez Dominguez et al. 2007). Models and observations predicting the bacterial metabolic rates in changing climate scenario are mostly derived from data collected in temperate regions (Pollard and Ducklow 2011; Amado et al. 2013). Few studies have reported the bacterial metabolic rates for tropical and subtropical estuarine and coastal areas (Ram et al. 2003; Lee et al. 2007; Thottathil et al. 2008; Yuan et al. 2010). But, observations of river discharge pattern, magnitude, associated organic matter and its impact on bacterial metabolic rates remains unaddressed. Therefore given present and future climatic changes, it is imperative to understand the factors that influence the mineralization of terrestrially derived organic carbon and bacterial metabolic rates.

The present study was carried out in tropical Godavari estuary with an attempt to: (i) investigate the variations in bacterial metabolic rates (Respiration and production rate, growth efficiency and carbon demand) with respect to river discharge magnitude (ii) understand the impact of river discharged organic matter on bacterial metabolic rates and variation. (iii) estimate the pCO_2 levels thereby understanding the nature of the estuary.

Materials and Methods

Study area

River Godavari is among the 60 largest rivers in the world with a major fluvial contribution to the Bay

of Bengal. The catchment area of the river is 3, 12,812 km² spread in various states of India. It ranks 34th and 32nd regarding the catchment area and water discharge, respectively (Ludwig et al. 1996; Gaillardet et al. 1999). The river flows eastwards over peninsular India for about 1480 km and drains into Bay of Bengal in the state of Andhra Pradesh. The Godavari basin climate is generally dry having a higher temperature during the months of April to June (summer season) and relatively low temperature during winter (December to February). The Godavari catchment receives about 82% of the annual rainfall during the summer monsoon and the rest in the winter monsoon (CPCB 1995) with an average rainfall of 1512 mm y⁻¹. Godavari river brings a huge amount of organic matter, about 22% of which is estimated to be lost in the main channel (Balakrishna and Probst 2005). After Rajamundry, the river flow is regulated by a century-old "Low Dam" at Dowalaiswaram. After the dam, the river bifurcates into two major distributaries, eastward flowing major Gautami-Godavari, and southward flowing minor Vasistha-Godavari. The present study was conducted from the major tributary (Figure 1). Maximum depth of the estuary is ~15 m with an average depth of ~5 m.

The freshwater discharge in the Godavari estuary is mainly controlled by the variations in the monsoonal rainfall over the Indian subcontinent, which is regulated by a century old dam at Dowalaiswaram. Excess water from the dam reservoir is released when the threshold level (14.02 m) is reached, which occurs soon after the monsoon begin. During the present study period (the year 2010), Godavari river discharged from mid- May and continued until December with maxima during August-September (Figure 2). Prior to discharge (January to May), a source of water to the estuary was due to the tidal currents. An intrusion of sea water was noticed up to ~80 km from the mouth of the estuary to the upper estuary (Sridevi 2013, Ph.D. thesis). Based on the river discharge magnitude during the year 2010, the study period was classified into three periods. No discharge period $(0 - <100 \text{ m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}; \text{ January to})$ June. 2010), Peak discharge period (>100-20000 m³s⁻¹; July to September 2010) and moderate discharge period (>100-< 2000 m³s⁻¹; October to December 2010). Discharge magnitude was negligible during May and June (<100 m³s⁻¹) hence these two months are considered under no discharge period. Surface water sampling was carried out at six stations during 29-30 March (No discharge period), 18-19 August (Peak discharge period) and 15-16 November (Moderate discharge period) representing all three discharge periods. Based on the salinity gradient during no discharge period (4 months average), study region was further divided spatially into upper estuary; station 1 (12.5±6 psu), middle estuary; station 2-3 (24.5±5.8 psu), lower estuary, station 4 (29.6 ±4.5 psu) and coastal region 5-6 (33.6 ± 1 psu) (Figure 1).

Sampling and analysis

Discharge data for Godavari River was collected from the dam authorities at Rajamundry. Surface seawater samples were collected by mechanized boat at six stations (Figure 1) using a clean bucket and

transferred in 2 L plastic bottles cleaned with soap and acid (1N Hydrochloric acid) solution. All the samples were maintained in an ice box till the further analysis. Laboratory experiments were conducted to measure bacterial metabolic rates. In situ temperature and salinity was measured by casting a Conductivity, Temperature and Depth profiler (CTD) SBE19 plus (Seabird Electronics, USA). Analysis of dissolved inorganic nutrients like dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN), dissolved inorganic phosphate (DIP) and dissolved inorganic silicate (DSi) were carried out using auto analyser (Skalar, San++, Netherlands) following Grashoff et al. (1992). For Chl-a measurement, 2 L water sample was filtered through GF/F filter (Whatman) and phytoplankton biomass retained on filter was extracted after 12 h incubation with N, N-dimethylformamide (DMF) at 4°C in the dark, and then analysed spectrofluorimetrically (Varian Eclipse Fluorescence spectrophotometer, USA) following Suzuki and Ishimaru (1990). Total suspended matter (TSM) was measured based on weight difference of the material retained on 0.22 µm pore size polycarbonate filters after passing 1 L of the water sample. As the planktons and other microscopic organisms contribute to TSM, to retain these microscopic particles and to achieve high particle retention, 0.22 µm filters were used. Filters were repeatedly rinsed with distilled water at the end of filtration. The samples for dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) were analysed by a high-temperature catalytic oxidation method, (Benner and Hedges 1993; Spyres et al. 2000) using Total Organic Carbon analyser -VCSH with ASI-V auto sampler and TNM-1- Shimadzu. For measuring particulate organic carbon (POC) and particulate organic nitrogen (PON) and their respective stable isotope ratios, 2 L water sample was filtered through GF/F filters which were pre-combusted at 450°C for 5 h. After acid fumigation treatment, elemental and isotopic ratio measurements were made on a single filter using Elemental Analyser-Isotopic ratio mass spectrometer (EA-IRMS, Delta V- Finnigan, Germany). The detection limit of this method for determination of organic carbon and total nitrogen was <1µg g⁻¹. The IAEA standards (IAEA-600 Caffeine, IAEA-CH-3 Cellulose, IAEA N-1 Ammonium sulfate, IAEA NO-3, Potassium nitrate) and laboratory standards such as L-glutamic acid and L-alanine were used for calibration as internal standards. Based on repeated analysis of standards, precision for the content of organic carbon and total nitrogen were ± 0.05 and ± 0.005 % (relative standard deviation), respectively. The long-term precision (9 years) of the instrument is ± 0.2 ‰ for both carbon and nitrogen isotopes. The isotopic ratios were reported in per mil notation, and results were expressed relative to conventional standards, i.e. Pee Dee Belemnite (PDB) and atmospheric N₂ for carbon and nitrogen respectively and represented as δ notation, as given below.

 $\delta^{13}C = [(X_{samp} - X_{std}) / X_{std}] \times 1000 \%$ Where, X_{samp} represents ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ of a sample, and X_{std} denotes ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ of standard for carbon.

Bacterial metabolic rates measurement

For bacterial metabolic rates measurement, a 2L water sample was filtered through a 0.7 µm GF/F glass fiber. Filtration removed essentially all the bigger planktons like phytoplankton and zooplanktons. Bacterial respiration (BR) rate was measured in filtered water incubated at room temperature as the difference in dissolved oxygen at 0 h and 24 h (Biddanda and Cotner 2002; Ram et al. 2007) assuming the respiratory quotient of 0.86 (Bell and Ahlgren 1987), although this technique has its share of potential ambiguities. Dissolved Oxygen (DO) was analysed using Winkler's titration method of Carritt and Carpenter (1966) using automated titration unit (Metrohm-Switzerland). Winkler technique is most commonly used technique to estimate BR offering high sensitivity (Carignan et al. 1998), although there is a disadvantage of preventing continuous monitoring of oxygen concentrations. Simultaneously filtered water was siphoned out in a 500 ml Nalgene bottles (duplicates), wrapped in a black cloth and incubated at room temperature for checking bacterial abundance (BA). Samples were collected at 0h and 24h from incubated Nalgene bottles and preserved at 4 °C with 5% formalin until analysis. BA was measured after staining cells with 4'-6'-Diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) stain (Porter and Feig 1980) and counting using epifluorescence microscope (Olympus BX-51, Japan). Bacterial productivity (BP) rates were calculated by converting the increase in cell number with time (Hagstrom et al. 1979; Toolan 2001) and was converted to carbon units using a conversion factor of 20x10⁻¹⁵ g C cell⁻¹ (Hobbie et al. 1977; Lee and Fuhrman 1987). These BP rates might be conservative estimates as removal of bacterial cells can occur by filtration, removal of particle attached bacterial cells, by viral lysis, and by grazers that manage to get through the filters. Bacterial growth efficiency (BGE) was calculated as BGE $\% = [BP/(BP+BR) \times 100]$. Bacterial carbon demand (BCD) was calculated as BCD=BP+BR. Bacterial respiration rate, productivity rate, and carbon demand were expressed as µg C L⁻¹d⁻¹ and BA as number x10⁸ cells L⁻¹. The pCO₂ was computed using measured salinity, temperature, pH and alkalinity using CO₂ SYS program (Lewis and Wallace 1998) and represented as µatm. The CO₂ dissociation constants given by Millero et al. (2006) for 0 to 40 salinity range were utilised. The pH and total alkalinity were measured by potentiometric (Metrohm, Switzerland) Gran titration methods following Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) suggested by DOE (1998).

Statistical analysis

Principal component analysis (PCA) was carried out followed by correlation analysis to check the influence of river discharge associated organic matter and environmental factors on bacterial metabolic rates. Using the correlation matrix, principal components (factors) with eigenvalues > 1 were retained and subjected to a varimax rotation with Kaiser to estimate the proportion of the variance of each attribute explained by each selected factor loadings. Utilizing the loading component theory, we only considered factor loadings (correlation values) greater than 0.5. All the statistical analysis were carried out using the Statistica version 10 software whereas figures were drawn using the Grapher-version 3

Result

Hydrographical conditions in study region

Hydrographical variations in study region during three different river discharge patterns are shown in Table 1. Surface water temperature ranged between 27.1 to 31.6 (29.8 ±1.4 °C) (Figure 3a). Salinity ranged from 0.07 to 34.6 psu (15.4±13.1) having wide variation (Coefficient of variation; CV=84%) and inversely proportional relation to river discharge magnitude (Figure 3b). Relatively higher salinity was observed towards coast than estuary due to tidal influence. Estuary was well mixed during peak discharge period with almost zero salinity (Table 1). Concentrations of TSM varied from 12.4 to $591(158\pm203 \text{ mg L}^{-1})$ having higher average values by ~12 times and individual values by ~32 times during peak discharge period to that of no discharge period. A turbidity maximum was observed at station 3 during discharge periods whereas at station 4 during no discharge period (Figure 3c). TSM was inversely proportional to salinity $(r^2=0.7)$, suggesting its addition by river discharge. Inorganic nutrients, such as dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN), dissolved inorganic phosphate (DIP) and dissolved inorganic silicate (DSi), showed variations with reference to river discharge magnitude. DIN varied from 10.4 to 52.9 (22±11.9 µM) whereas DIP ranged from 1.3 to 10.1 (5.9 ±3.1 µM). DSi varied from 11.2 to 78 (40.8±20.1 µM) having maxima during moderate discharge period. Spatially nutrients (DIN, DIP, DSi) maxima were observed mostly at middle estuary whereas temporally DIN and DIP maxima was observed during peak discharge period and DSi during moderate discharge period. A negative correlation of DIN ($r^2=0.9$) and DSi ($r^2=0.85$) with salinity and strong positive correlation with each other ($r^2=0.9$) (Table 4) suggests their possible addition by river discharge. In the present study, Chl-a concentrations varied from 0.3 to 86.8 (18.5±26.7 mg m⁻³) with higher concentrations in an estuarine region than coastal (Figure 3d). Maximum Chl-a concentrations were observed during moderate discharge period (Table 1). Chl-a was negatively related to DIP ($r^2=0.72$) having maxima during moderate discharge period particularly at the middle estuary.

Spatiotemporal variation of organic matter

As shown in Table 1, POC ranged from 15.2 to 1272 (219±330 μ M). Maximum concentrations were observed during peak discharge period (686±391 μ M) than moderate discharge period (94.3±39.3 μ M) and no discharge period (62.7±25 μ M) in estuarine region whereas lower concentrations in the coastal region (Figure 3g). Salinity and POC were inversely related (r²=0.57). PON ranged from 2.2 to 119 (24.5 ±29.5 μ M) having maxima during peak discharge period and similar spatio-temporal trend like POC (Figure 3h). Wide variation was observed for POC (CV =167 %) and PON (CV =137%). Discharge driven organic matter concentrations decreased from the estuary to coast with significant

negative relation with distance (upper estuary to coast) (POC; $r^2=0.93 \text{ p}<0.05$, PON; $r^2=0.67 \text{ p}<0.05$). A significant positive relation between POC and PON ($r^2=0.97$) suggested their common source to estuary. Concentrations of DOC and DON ranged from 127 to 988 ($509\pm264 \mu$ M) and 26.6 to 97.3 ($51.1\pm23.1\mu$ M) respectively in estuary whereas in coast it ranged from 72.7 to 176 ($117\pm47.6 \mu$ M) (DOC) and 43.8 to 110 ($62.4\pm32.1\mu$ M) (DON). Both DOC and DON concentrations were high during peak discharge period (Figure 3e, 3f), having relatively higher concentrations in estuary than coastal stations. Although the concentrations of DOC: POC was low indicating relatively higher content of POC than DOC in an estuary. In estuarine region DOC: POC ratio varied between 0.6 to 12.4 (4.9 ± 3.7) having lowest average during peak discharge period (1.4 ± 0.6) and higher during no discharge period (6.5 ± 2.5). In coastal region, relatively higher ratio was observed during moderate discharge (5.1 ± 2.6) than no discharge period (3.4 ± 3.1).

C: N ratio ranged from 2.7 to 12 (7.4 ±2.5) (Figure 3i). In estuarine region higher C: N ratio was observed during peak discharge period (11±1.1) whereas, during moderate discharge period and no discharge period, ratio was 6.5 ± 0.7 and 5.9 ± 2.6 respectively. At coastal stations ratio was similar during no discharge (6.7 ± 0.3) and moderate discharge periods (6.1 ± 1.3). During moderate discharge period C: N ratio in study region was equal to red field phytoplankton ratio (6.6). Stable isotope ratios of organic carbon ($\delta^{13}C_{POC}$) ranged from -32.9 to -22.6 (-26.7±3.9‰) and -24.4 to -22.8 (-23.6±0.8‰) in estuarine and coastal stations respectively (Figure 3j). Highly depleted $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ ratios were observed during moderate discharge period (-32.9 to -29.7; -31.5±1.4‰). In coastal region, $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ ratios were enriched during moderate (-23.5±1.0‰) and no discharge periods (-23.7±0.9 ‰).

Spatiotemporal variation of bacterial metabolic rates and abundance

The variation in bacterial metabolic rates is depicted in Table 2. Bacterial abundance varied from 0.2 to 3 ($1.3\pm0.8 \times 10^8$ cells L⁻¹) with wide spatiotemporal variation (CV=57%) in estuarine region whereas in coastal region it ranged from 0.5-1.6 ($1\pm0.5 \times 10^8$ cells L⁻¹) (Figure 4a). Higher average values were observed in an estuarine region that decreased towards coastal region having significant negative relation with distance particularly during peak discharge (R²=0.82) and moderate discharge (R²=0.2) periods. Temporally, maximum average abundance was observed in an estuarine region during no discharge period (1.5-3.0; $2.15\pm0.7 \times 10^8$ cells L⁻¹) followed by peak discharge period (0.9-1.9; $1.3\pm0.4 \times 10^8$ cells L⁻¹) and least during moderate discharge period (0.2-1.2; $0.7\pm0.4 \times 10^8$ cells L⁻¹).

BR rates varied 25 fold, ranging between 39.1 to 994 μ g C L⁻¹d⁻¹ (269±247 μ g C L⁻¹d⁻¹) in estuarine region and 199 to 355 (296 ±71.3 μ g C L⁻¹d⁻¹) in coastal region with large spatiotemporal variation (CV=78%). Average BR rates decreased in the following trend, peak discharge> moderate discharge>

no discharge. It ranged from 162 to 343 (264 \pm 79 µg CL⁻¹d⁻¹), 78.3 to 994 (375 \pm 423 µg CL⁻¹d⁻¹) and 39.1 to 355 (222 \pm 113 µg C L⁻¹d⁻¹) during no discharge, peak discharge and moderate discharge periods respectively in the entire study region (Figure 4b). Maximum BR rate was observed during peak discharge period at station 2. The BR value decreased with distance towards the coast (R²=0.21) during peak discharge period, while a reverse trend of increase was observed during moderate discharge period towards the coast (R²=0.21). BP rates varied from 0.4 to 33.3 (8.4 \pm 9.2 µg C L⁻¹d⁻¹) having ~7 times higher average rates in estuarine (10.2 \pm 9.6 µg C L⁻¹d⁻¹) than coastal region (1.4 \pm 1.1 µg C L⁻¹d⁻¹) (Figure 4c). In estuarine region average rates were high during peak discharge period, 14.9 to 33.3 (20.2 \pm 8.7 µg C L⁻¹d⁻¹) followed by moderate discharge period 2.5 to 18.8 (9.1 \pm 7.5 µg C L⁻¹d⁻¹) and lowest during no discharge period 1.6 to 3.3 (3 \pm 1µg C L⁻¹d⁻¹). Significant positive relation of BP with DOC, POC, PON, DSi and DIP and negative relation with salinity (Table 4) indicates that the organic matter and inorganic nutrients carried by river discharge boosted bacterial productivity in the study region.

Higher productivity rates associated with higher C: N ratios having significant positive relation suggests the efficient utilisation of terrigenous organic matter. Maximum BCD was observed during peak discharge (395.2 ± 421.8) in an estuarine region. Quite low BGE's were observed during the present study, and the values ranged from 0.1 to 18 ($4.4\pm5.4\%$). Maximum growth efficiency was observed during peak discharge period 1.5 to 18.1 ($10.1\pm6.8\%$) followed by moderate discharge period 1.4 to 11.5 ($5.8\pm4.2\%$) and low during no discharge period 1 to 1.3 (1.2 ± 0.2) (Figure 4d) in an estuarine region. Majority of BGE values (76%) were <8% and remaining (24%) were >8% having wide spatiotemporal variation (CV=123%). Bacterial growth efficiency was significantly related to BP (r^2 =0.76), indicating the influence of BP on BGE. In coastal region BA, BP and BGE were relatively high during no discharge period than moderate discharge. No data available for the coastal region during peak discharge period due to flood and rough weather conditions.

Surface water pCO₂ levels in Godavari estuary

Surface pCO₂ levels in Godavari estuary and adjacent coastal region displayed significant variations from upper estuary to coastal region. During the study period, pCO₂ level ranged from 362 to 24498 (5841±6329 µatm) having a maximum in an estuarine region (7414±6594 µatm) than coastal region (1121±1127 µatm) (Table 2). In estuarine region, maximum values were observed during moderate discharge (10670±10022 µatm) followed by peak discharge period (7210±5089 µatm) and minimum during no discharge (4364±2552 µatm) period. In coastal region, pCO₂ level was high during no discharge period (1879±1233) to that of moderate discharge period (364±3 µatm). The annual mean of pCO₂ levels decreased linearly from an estuary to coast in the following order: upper estuary

 $(14162\pm10609 \ \mu atm) > middle estuary (5640\pm2851 \ \mu atm) > lower estuary (4215\pm3635 \ \mu atm) > coastal region (1121\pm1127 \ \mu atm), having maxima in the upper estuary.$

Principal Component Analysis implications

The PCA analysis was performed and presented in Figure 5a, b, c, d. Based on the Kaiser criteria (Eigenvalue >1), the first four PC explained 86% of the joint variance (Table 3). The fourth PC did not have any significant loading (<0.5); therefore, only the first three PCs were used for further analysis. PC1 explained 46% of the total variance and had strong negative loadings (>0.8) of, DIP, DOC, POC, BP, TSM, PON, DIN and C: N. As seen in Figure 5 a, the scores of all the stations during the peak discharge were relatively same, and distributed in the second and third quadrant. Therefore, indicating that the increased river discharge lead to the high input of dissolved and particulate organic matter, inorganic nutrients and suspended matter in the estuary. The biotic factors were used as supplementary variables among which BP and BGE showed strong and moderate negative loading respectively, on PC1, suggesting the positive influence of organic matter load and inorganic nutrients on those parameters. PC2 explained 23% total variance with a strong negative loading of Chl-a and positive loading of $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$, whilst pCO₂, DSI (negative), salinity (positive) had a moderate loading (<0.6->0.3). PC2 explained maximum Chl-a in the estuary during moderate discharge period associated with highly depleted $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ and maximum pCO₂ levels. During moderate discharge period, Chl-a and stations 1 to 4 were within same (fourth) quadrant (Figure 5a, b). PC3 (10% of total variance) was moderately loaded with DON (positive) and temperature (negative), indicating higher surface water temperature during no discharge period.

Discussion

Influence of river discharge and associated organic matter on bacterial abundance and metabolic rates

In tropics, monsoon mediated river runoff has a significant impact on estuarine ecology and biogeochemical processes which are interlinked. Elemental and stable isotopic ratios of carbon serve as a very useful tool to identify the source and nature of organic matter and are widely used (Ishiwatari and uzaki 1987; Sarma et al. 2012; Krishna et al. 2015). The high C: N ratio and depleted $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ values during peak discharge period were contributed by increased river discharge associated with a huge load of terrigenous particulate and dissolved organic matter to the estuary. During moderate discharge period, organic matter was dominantly autochthonous as observed from the Chl-a maxima and low C: N ratio (6.5), close to red field ratio. In spite autochthonous organic matter dominance, $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ was highly depleted suggesting its contribution by fresh water planktons. The contribution of

highly depleted δ^{13} C _{POC} isotope ratios (-34 to -40 ‰) by freshwater planktons have been reported earlier (Boschker et al. 2005; Hellings et al. 1999; Hamilton and Lewis 1992). The low saline conditions associated with relatively low TSM could have supported discharge driven fresh water plankton's growth during the moderate discharge period. During the study period (the year 2010) abundant fresh water planktons were observed in study region during moderate discharge period (Bharathi M, 2014 Ph.D. thesis). Our observations suggest significant control of river discharge magnitude and pattern on hydrography as well as quality and quantity of organic matter in the study region.

Having adopted experimental approach to measure bacterial metabolic rates, our results indicate that addition of a huge load of terrigenous organic matter to estuary boosted bacterial metabolic rates. A decrease in average BA was observed from no discharge to moderate discharge period. However, the spatial decline from upper estuary towards the lower estuary during peak discharge period could imply the intolerance of terrigenous bacterial population to increased salinity. Using molecular tools, major bacterial groups identified during the study period (the year 2010) were *Proteobacteria, Firmicutes* and *Actinobacteria* (Prasad VR, 2014 Ph.D. thesis). During peak discharge period most of the bacteria belong to the phyla *Proteobacteria* and *Firmicutes* which are known to be heterotrophic terrestrial bacteria. During no discharge period bacterial community was dominated mostly by the members of the genus *Bacillus*. Results suggest a significant impact of river discharge magnitude on the abundance and bacterial community structure.

Unlike Lee et al. (2009), we observed significant positive relation of BP with POC, suggesting a significant influence of allochthonous organic matter on BP rates, which is also evident from the significant positive relationship with DOC, POC, DIP and DSi (Table 4). Significant positive association of BP with C: N ratio ($r^2=0.73$) and a positive relation of BGE with C: N ratio ($r^2=0.49$) suggests the efficient utilisation of terrigenous organic matter by the bacterial community, and hence control of organic substrate on BP and BGE. Observed BP rates were in similar range to those observed for Blanes Bay (Vazquez Dominguez et al. 2007) and Amazon River and tributaries (Benner et al. 1995), but were lower than those observed for tropical Mandovi estuary and adjacent coastal regions (Ram et al. 2003, 2007) and Cochin estuary (Thottathil et al. 2008).

Respiration rates were in similar range as that of the tropical regions but were higher by an order of magnitude to that of the temperate region (Table 5). One extremely high value at station 2 (994 μ g C L⁻¹d⁻¹) increased the average BR rate leading to wide variation (CV=113%) during peak discharge period compared to no discharge (CV=33%) and moderate discharge (CV=50%) periods. The maximum (average and individual) respiration rates during peak discharge period were consistent with maximum concentrations of terrigenous organic matter. Observations could imply that the terrigenous

organic matter with higher C: N ratios was utilised at higher energy cost during the peak discharge period resulting into higher respiration rates. Our observations are in corroboration with those of Mc Callister and del Giorgio (2008) who reported 3 to >70 % respiration of terrigenous organic carbon by heterotrophic bacteria and those of Siuda and Chrost (2002) who reported an increase in BR rate with increasing particulate organic matter.

Positive relation of BR and BCD with C: N ratios, indicates control of organic substrate quality on these metabolic rates which is in corroboration with Lee et al. (2009). Moreover, the almost zero salinity of the freshwater filled estuary, especially during peak discharge period, might have supported the faster oxidation of organic matter and hence high respiration rates. Cole et al. (1988) observed that oxidation of organic carbon and CO₂ release is faster in freshwater than in seawater. Maximum BCD during peak discharge period also suggests, in situ produced carbon was not sufficient to meet heterotrophic demands, which is then met from the external source, that is, terrigenous organic matter. It is well-known fact that bacteria prefers and utilise DOC than POC (Eiler et al. 2003), but it was interesting to observe atypical scenario in the present study with respect to bacterial utilisation of organic carbon. Less significant correlation of bacterial metabolic rates with DOC and more significant with POC, suggest the preference and utilisation of abundant form of organic carbon (Table 4; Figure 6 a,b,c). Low DOC: POC ratio (1.4±0.6) during peak discharge period indicates the higher proportion of POC than DOC that was associated with higher BGE, BP and BR rates. This also suggests, irrespective of the dissolved or particulate form of organic carbon, bacteria utilise the abundant one. Other possible reason for terrigenous POC modification could be the terrestrial bacterial population added by the river-runoff must be more efficient in utilising POC. Siuda and Chrost (2002) reported rapid changes in substrate exploitation strategy of bacteria with increasing POM content resulting in the adaptation of bacteria to live in particle-attached stage and effective modification of particulate organic matter. Our observations suggest bacterial community utilises terrigenous organic carbon efficiently to meet carbon demand. Bacterial community structure and assemblage could also play an important role in organic carbon modification which is in corroboration with Tranvik and Hofle (1987) and Logue et al. (2016). Although quantity and quality of organic matter showed significant impact on bacterial metabolic rates, we did not observe any significant impact of temperature on bacterial metabolic rates although some studies reported (Apple et al. 2006; Lee et al. 2009) significant effect of temperature on bacterial respiration rate. Nonetheless, some studies suggest that temperature plays a minor role in controlling BGE (Vazquez Dominguez et al. 2007; Alonso-Saez et al. 2007). Salinity had significant negative impact on BGE and BP whereas a statistically insignificant negative relation with BR and BCD.

Net heterotrophy and pCO₂ levels in estuary

To understand the ecosystem functionality and assessment of the organic carbon transfer to higher trophic level in an estuary, it is necessary to estimate whether it is autotrophic or heterotrophic. BGE has been used as a biological indicator to understand the nature of the estuarine system (Yuan et al. 2010). Usually, estimates of BGE for natural planktonic bacteria range from <0.4% to as high as 80% (Eiler et al. 2003 and references therein). In spite of higher metabolic rates (BP, BR, BCD), observed BGE was quite low, which is in agreement with Amado et al. (2013) who reported higher metabolic rates but low BGE's in tropics to that of temperate ecosystems. BGE is more dependent on organic matter and nutrient resource availability as observed from a significant relation between BGE and DIP (r²=0.58) and BGE and organic matter (POC, PON). Significant positive relation of BGE and BP $(r^2=0.7)$ suggests control of BP over BGE. According to Lee et al. (2009), net heterotrophy exists for tropical waters when BGE is <8%. In present study majority (70%) of the BGE values were below 8% suggesting year round net heterotrophy in an estuary. Average BGE in an estuary (5%), suggests ~5% of utilised organic carbon gets in to bacterial biomass and ~95% gets respired as inorganic CO₂. Present observations are similar to Eiler et al. (2003) who reported low BGE's between 0.4 to 10.4% suggesting maximum contribution for CO₂ flux. Yuan et al. (2010) reported >90% bacterial contribution to community respiration and low BGE's in subtropical Hongkong waters. Sarma et al. (2009) reported net heterotrophy in Godavari estuary based on total community production and respiration ratio, where P: R ratio was less than 1. The Present study confirms the significant contribution of heterotrophic bacteria to total respiration rate, therefore, making the study region net heterotrophic.

Compared to other tropical and temperate estuaries, pCO₂ levels were very high in Godavari estuary (Table 6). The addition of loads of organic matter through river discharge and its efficient oxidation by bacteria under low saline conditions could have favoured higher pCO₂ levels in study region as observed from the significant positive relation of pCO₂ with DOC, POC, PON, BP and significant negative relation with salinity (Table 4). Similar observation of higher pCO₂ levels associated with low salinity (<5 psu) was observed in Mandovi and Zuari estuaries (Sarma et al. 2001), even though the levels were quite low (< 2000 μ atm) to that of the present study. Present pCO₂ levels in Godavari estuary were higher than that observed by Bouillon et al. (2003) during dry period (<1000 μ atm) and also higher than that of temperate estuaries considered to be polluted like Rhine and Scheldt (Table 6). It is reported by Abril et al. (2015) that calculated pCO₂ levels were >10 % higher in 60% and >100% higher in 25% of fresh water samples, mostly in organic rich and acidic samples. In the present study, although the high pCO₂ levels associated with high organic matter concentrations, p^H of the water samples was always above 7 with relatively low values during peak discharge period, thereby ruling out the possible overestimation. There might be some overestimations of calculated pCO₂ levels compared to that of measured pCO₂ levels.

Maximum pCO₂ levels in Godavari estuary were ~60 times higher to that of atmospheric pCO₂ levels. Whereas, average value was ~8 times higher to that of atmospheric pCO₂ levels during no discharge period and ~17 times higher during peak discharge and moderate discharge periods, respectively (average atmospheric level ~408 µatm, Scripps observatory data, the year 2010). Therefore, the results of the present study suggest the net heterotrophy in Godavari estuary with significant contribution from heterotrophic bacteria. Yuan et al. (2010) reported linear relation of bacterial respiration and pCO₂ levels (average ~570 µatm) having 50% contribution of bacterial respiration to CO₂ efflux in subtropical Hong Kong water, attributed to the influence of the Pearl river discharge and effluent. Since the respiration rate and pCO₂ levels were high in Godavari estuary to that of Hong Kong waters, bacterial contribution to pCO₂ levels and CO₂ efflux implies to be much higher, which needs further estimation and confirmation.

Conclusion

We conclude that monsoon mediated river discharge magnitude and pattern had significant control on hydrography, nature of organic matter and bacterial metabolic rates in Godavari River estuary and adjacent coastal waters. Organic matter was dominantly autochthonous during moderate discharge whereas allochthonous during peak discharge period. Salinity pattern showed a significant impact on bacterial abundance in the study region, but we did not observe an effect of temperature on the metabolic rates. The heterotrophic bacteria efficiently utilise the terrigenous particulate organic matter when it is abundant. The present study showed that apart from the quality, quantity of organic matter has an impact on bacterial metabolic rates. The observations suggest that organic carbon produced in situ was not sufficient to meet heterotrophic carbon demand which is then sufficed by the external terrestrial organic carbon sources. Further, the majority of the utilised carbon gets respired leading to high pCO₂ levels and heterotrophic conditions in Godavari estuary. The increasing BR rate with terrigenous organic matter input and excess heterotrophy, raise the concern about the occurrence of low dissolved oxygen or hypoxia, which could have an adverse effect on fisheries and biodiversity. The present study attempts to fill the knowledge gap on the bacterial metabolic rates with respect to monsoonal river discharge pattern and contribution to biogeochemical cycling of organic carbon in a tropical monsoonal estuary and at large to global carbon estimates.

Acknowledgement

We would like to thank the Director of the National Institute of Oceanography for support. We would like to acknowledge Ms. Sanitha Sivadas for helping in PCA plots preparation. We would like to acknowledge the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) for financial support through the Supra Institutional Project (SIP 1308). This is NIO contribution number

References

Abril G, Bouillon S, Darchambeau F, Teodoru CR, Marwick TR, Tamooh F, Ochieng F, Geeraert N, Deirmendjian L, Polsenaere P, Borges AV. 2015. Technical Note: Large overestimation of pCO₂ calculated from pH and alkalinity in acidic, organic-rich freshwaters. Biogeosciences 12: 67–78.

Alonso-Saez L, Gasol JM, Aristegui J, Vilas JC, Vaque D, Duarte CM, Agusti S. 2007. Large scale variability in surface bacterial carbon demand and growth efficiency in the subtropical North East Atlantic Ocean. Limnol and Oceanogr 52: 533–546.

Amado AM, Meirelles-Pereira F, Vidal LD, Sarmento H, Suhett AL, Farjalla VF, Cotner JB, Roland F. 2013. Tropical freshwater ecosystems have lower bacterial growth efficiency than temperate ones. Front Microbiol 4:167.

Apple JK, del Giorgio PA, Michael KW. 2006. Temperature regulation of bacterial production, respiration, and growth efficiency in a temperate salt-marsh estuary. Aquat Microb Ecol 43: 243–254.

Azam F, Fenchel T, Field JG, Gray JS, Meyer-Reil LA, Thingstad F. 1983. The ecological role of water-column microbes in the sea. Mar Ecol Prog Ser 10: 257-263.

Balakrishna K, Probst JL. 2005. Organic carbon transport and C/N ratio variations in a large tropical river: Godavari as a case study, India. Biogeochemistry 73: 457-473.

Bell RT, Ahlgren GM. 1987. Thymidine incorporation and microbial respiration in the surface sediment of a hypereutrophic lake. Limnol Oceanogr 32: 476-48.

Benner R, Hedges JI. 1993. A test of the accuracy of fresh water dissolved organic carbon measurements by high temperature catalytic oxidation and UV promoted persulfate oxidation. Mar Chem 41:161-165.

Benner R, Opsahl S, Chin-Leo G, Richey JE, Forsberg BR. 1995. Bacterial carbon metabolism in the Amazon River system. Limnol Oceanogr 40: 1262-70.

Bhavya PS, Kumar S, Gupta GVM, Sudheesh V, Sudharma KV, Varrier DS, Dhanya KR, Saravanane N. 2015. Nitrogen uptake dynamics in a tropical eutrophic estuary (Cochin, India) and adjacent coastal waters. Estuar Coast 39: 54-67.

Biddanda B, Cotner JB. 2002. Love handles in aquatic ecosystems: the role of dissolved organic drawdown, resuspended sediments, and terrigenous inputs in the carbon balance of Lake Michigan. Ecosystems 5: 431-445.

Boschker HTS, Kromkamp JC, Middelburg JJ. (2005). Biomarker and carbon isotopic constraints on bacterial and algal community structure and functioning in the highly polluted Scheldt estuary. Limnol Oceanogr 50: 70–80.

Borges AV, Frankignoulle M. 2002. Distribution and air-water exchange of carbon dioxide in the Scheldt plume off the Belgian coast. Biogeochemistry 59: 41–67 doi:10.1023/A:1015517428985.

Bouillon S, Frankignoulle M, Dehairs F, Velimirov B, Eiler A, Abril G, Etcheber H, Vieira Borges A. 2003. Inorganic and organic carbon biogeochemistry in the Gautami Godavari estuary (Andhra pradesh, India) during premonsoon : The local impact of extensive mangrove forests. Global Biogeochem cy 17: 1114 doi:10.1029/2002GB002026.

Carignan R, Blais AM, Vis C. 1998. Measurement of primary production and community respiration in oligotrophic lakes using the Winkler method. Can J Fish Aquat Sci 55: 1078-1084.

Carritt DE, Carpenter JH. 1966. Comparison and evaluation of currently employed modifications of

Winkler method for determining dissolved oxygen in seawater a NASCO report. J Mar Res 24: 286-318.

Cole JJ, Findlay S, Pace ML. 1988. Bacterial production in fresh and saltwater ecosystems: A cross-system overview. Mar Ecol Prog Ser 43: 1-10.

Cole JJ, Prairie YT, Caraco NF, McDowell WH, Tranvik LJ, Striegl RG, Duarte CM, Kortelainen P,Downing JA, Middelburg JJ, Melack J. 2007. Plumbing the global carbon cycle: Integrating inland waters into the terrestrial carbon budget. Ecosystems 10:171-184.

Central Pollution Control Board (CPCB). 1995. Basin sub-basin inventory of Water Pollution Godavari Basin. CPCB, Delhi.

Crump BC, Hopkinson CS, Mitchell LS, John E H. 2004. Microbial Biogeography along an Estuarine Salinity Gradient: Combined Influences of Bacterial Growth and Residence Time. Appl Environ Microbiol 70: 1494-1505.

David SN, June O, Horacio G, Rodolfo RB, Tom AM. 2000. Effect of Temperature and Salinity Stress on Growth and Lipid Composition of Shewanella gelidimarina. Appl Environ Microbiol 66: 2422-2429.

Department of Energy (DOE). 1998. Hand Book of Methods for the Analysis of the Various Parameters of the Carbon Dioxide System in Seawater. Ver. 2, (eds. A. G. Dickson and C. Goyet), Carbon Dioxide Information and Analysis Center in Oak Ridge, Tennessee, USA. ORNL/CDIAC-74.

Hopkin CS, Smith EM. 2005. Estuarine respiration:an overview of benthic, pelagic, and whole system respiration. In: Del Giorgio PA, Williams PJ, editors. Respiration in aquatic ecosystems. 1st ed. New York : Oxford University Press Inc. P 122-146.

Eiler A, Langenheder S, Bertilsson S, Tranvik L J. 2003. Heterotrophic bacterial growth efficiency and community structure at different natural organic carbon concentrations. Appl Environ Microbiol 69:3701-3709.

Gaillardet J, Dupre B, Louvat P, Allegre N. 1999. Global silicate weathering and CO₂ consumption rates deduced from the chemistry of large rivers. Chem Geol 159: 3-30.

Gupta GVM, Thottathil SD, Balachandran KK, Madhu NV, Madeswaran P, Nair S. 2009. CO₂ supersaturation and net heterotrophy in a tropical estuary (Cochin, India): Influence of anthropogenic effect. Ecosystems 12: 1145-1157.

Grashoff K, Ehrhardt M, Kremling K. 1992. Methods of Seawater Analysis. Verlag Chemie, New York: NY. 419 p.

Hagstrom A, Larsson U, Horstedt P, Normark S. 1979. Frequency of dividing cells, a new approach to the determination of bacterial growth rates in aquatic environments. Appl environ Microbiol 37: 805-812.

Hamilton SK, Lewis WM. 1992. Stable carbon and nitrogen isotopes in algae and detritus from the Orinoco River flood plain, Venezuela. Geochim Cosmochim Ac 56: 4237-4246.

Hellings L, Dehairs F, Tackx M, Keppens E, Baeyens W. 1999. Origin and fate of organic carbon in the freshwater part of the Scheldt Estuary as traced by stable carbon isotope composition. Biogeochemistry 47: 167–186.

Hobbie JE, Daley RJ, Jasper S. 1977. Use of nuclepore filters for counting bacteria by fluorescence

microscopy. Appl Environ Microbiol 33: 1225-1228.

Ishiwatari R, Uzaki M. Diagenetic Changes of Lignin Compounds in a More Than 0.6 Million-Year-Old Lacustrine Sediment (Lake Biwa, Japan). 1987. Geochim Cosmochim Ac 51: 321-328.

Kempe S. 1982. Long-term records of CO₂ pressure fluctuations in freshwaters. In: Degens ET,editors. Transport of Carbon and Minerals in Major World Rivers, Mitt. Geol. Palaont. Inst. Univ. Hambourg. 52: 91–332.

Krishna MS, Naidu SA, Subbaiah ChV, Gawade L, Sarma VVSS, Reddy NPC. 2015. Sources, distribution and preservation of organic matter in a tropical estuary (Godavari, India). Estuar Coast 38: 1032-1047.

Lee CW, Bong CW, Hii YS. 2009. Temporal variation of bacterial respiration and growth efficiency in tropical coastal waters. Appl Environ Microb 75: 7594-7601.

Lee CW, Bong CW. 2007. Bacterial respiration, growth efficiency and protist grazing rates in mangrove waters in Cape Rachado, Malaysia. Asia J Water Environ Pollut 4: 11-16.

Lee S, Fuhrman JA. 1987. Relationship between biovolume and biomass of naturally derived marine bacterioplankton. Appl environ Microbiol 53: 1298-1303.

Lewis E, Wallace DWR. 1998. Program Developed for CO₂ System Calculations. ORNL/CDIAC-105. Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, U.S. Department of Energy, Oak Ridge, Tennessee.

Logue JB, Stedmon CA, Kellerman AM, Nielsen NJ, Andersson AF, Laudon H, Lindstrom ES, Kritzberg ES. 2016. Experimental insights into the importance of aquatic bacterial community composition to the degradation of dissolved organic matter. ISME J 10: 533-545.

Lonborg Ch, Martinez Garcia S, Teira E, Alvarez Salgado XA. 2011. Bacterial carbon demand and growth efficiency in a coastal upwelling system. Aquat Microb Ecol 63: 183-191.

Lopez-Urrutia A, Moran XAG. 2007. Resource limitation of bacterial production distorts the temperature dependence of oceanic carbon cycling. Ecology 88: 817-822.

Ludwig W, Probst JL, Kempe S. 1996. Predicting the oceanic Input of organic carbon by continental erosion. Global Biogeochem Cy 10: 23-41.

Maranger RJ, Pace ML, Del Giorgio PA, Caraco NF, Cole JJ. 2005. Longitudinal spatial patterns of bacterial production and respiration in a large River-Estuary: implications for ecosystem carbon consumption. Ecosystems 8: 318-330.

Mc Callister SL, Del Giorgio PA. 2008. Direct measurement of the δ^{13} C signature of carbon respired by bacteria in lakes: Linkages to potential carbon sources, ecosystem baseline metabolism, and CO₂

fluxes. Limnol Oceanogr 53: 1204-1216.

Millero FJ, Graham TB, Huang F, Bustos-Serrano H, Perrot D. 2006. Dissociation constants of carbonic acid in seawater as a function of salinity and temperature. Mar Chem 100: 80-94.

Mukhopadhyay SK, Biswas H, De TK, Sen S, Jana TK. 2003. Seasonal effects on the air-water carbon dioxide exchange in the Hooghly estuary, NE coast of Bay of Bengal, India. J Environ Monit 4: 459-552.

Pollard PC, Ducklow H. 2011. Ultrahigh bacterial production in a eutrophic subtropical Australian river: Does viral lysis short-circuit the microbial loop? Limnol Oceanogr 56: 1115-1129.

Pomeroy LR. 1974. The oceans food web, a changing paradigm. Bioscience 24: 499–504. Porter KG, Feig YS. 1980. The use of DAPI for indentifying and counting aquatic microflora. Limnol Oceanogr 25: 943-948.

Ram ASP, Nair S, Chandramohan D. 2003. Seasonal shift in net ecosystem production in a tropical estuary. Limnol Oceanogr 48: 1601-1607.

Ram ASP, Nair S, Chandramohan D. 2003. Bacterial growth efficiency in the tropical estuarine and coastal waters of Goa, southwest coast of India. Microb Ecol 45: 88-96.

Ram ASP, Nair S, Chandramohan D. 2007. Bacterial Growth Efficiency in a Tropical Estuary: Seasonal Variability Subsidized by Allochthonous Carbon. Microb Ecol 53: 591-599.

Raymond PA, Caraco NF, Cole JJ. 1997. Carbon dioxide concentrations and atmospheric flux in the Hudson River. Estuaries 20: 381-390.

Reinthaler T, Herndl GJ. 2005. Seasonal dynamics of bacterial growth efficiencies in relation to phytoplankton in the southern North Sea. Aquat Microb Ecol 39: 7-16.

Richey JE, Melack JM, Aufdenkampe AK, Ballester VM, Hess LL. 2002. Outgassing from Amazonian rivers and wetlands as a large tropical source of atmospheric CO₂. Nature 416: 617-620.

Rivkin RB, Legendre L. 2001. Biogenic carbon cycling in the upper ocean: effects of microbial respiration. Science 291: 2398- 2400.

Roland F, Cole JJ. 1999. Regulation of bacterial growth efficiency in a large turbid estuary. Aquat Microb Ecol 20: 31-38.

Sarma VVSS, Gupta SNM, Babu PVR, Acharya T, Harikrishnachari N, Vishnuvardhan NS, Reddy NPC, Sarma VV, Sadhuram Y, Murthy TVR, Kumar MD. 2009. Influence of river discharge on plankton metabolic rates in the tropical monsoon driven Godavari estuary, India. Estuar Coast Shelf S 85: 515-524.

Sarma VVSS, Arya J, Subbaiah ChV, Naidu S A, Gawade L, Praveen Kumar P, Reddy NPC. 2012. Stable isotopes of carbon and nitrogen in suspended matter and sediments from the Godavari estuary.

J. Oceanogr 68: 307-319.

Sarma VVSS, Kumar MD, Manerikar M. 2001. Emission of carbon dioxide from a tropical estuarine system, Goa, India. Geophys Res Lett 28: 1239-1242.

Sarma VVSS, Kumar NA, Prasad VR, Venkataramana V, Appalanaidu S, Sridevi B, Kumar BSK, Bharati MD, Subbaiah CV, Acharyya T, Rao GD, Viswanadham R, Gawade L, Manjary DT, Kumar PP, Rajeev K, Reddy NPC, Sarma VV, Kumar MD, Sadhuram Y, Murty TVR. 2011. High CO₂ emissions from the tropical Godavari estuary (India) associated with monsoon river discharges. Geophys Res Lett 38 (L08601): 1-4.

Siuda W, Chrost RJ. 2002. Decomposition and Utilization of Particulate Organic Matter by Bacteria in Lakes of Different Trophic Status. Pol J Environ Stud 11: 53-65.

Spyres G, Nimmo M, Worsfold P, Achterberg EP, Miller A. 2000. Determination of dissolved organic

carbon in sea water using high temperature catalytic oxidation techniques TrAC Trends. Anal Chem 19: 498-506.

Suzuki R, Ishimaru T. 1990. An Improved Method for the Determination of Phytoplankton Chlorophyll using N, N-Dimethylformamide. J Oceanogr Soc Japan. 46: 190-194.

Thottathil SD, Balanchandran KK, Jayalakshmi KV, Gupta GVM, Nair S. 2008. Tidal switch on metabolic activity: salinity induced responses on bacterioplankton metabolic capabilities in a tropical estuary. Estuar Coast Shelf S 78: 665-673.

Toolan T. 2001. Coulometric carbon-based respiration rates and estimates of bacterioplankton growth efficiencies in Massachusetts Bay. Limnol Oceanogr 46: 1298-1308.

Tranvik LJ, Hofle MG. 1987. Bacterial growth in mixed cultures on dissolved organic carbon from humic and clear waters. Appl Environ Microbiol 33: 940-946.

Vazquez-Dominguez E, Vaque D, Gasol JM. 2007. Ocean warming enhances respiration and carbon demand of coastal microbial plankton. Global Change Biol 13: 1327-1334.

Ylla I, Romaní AM, Sabater S. 2012. Labile and recalcitrant organic matter utilization by river biofilm under increasing water temperature. Microb Ecol 64: 593-604.

Yuan X,Yin K, Harrison PJ, Cai WJ, He L, Xu J. 2010. Bacterial production and respiration in subtropical Hong Kong waters: influence of the Pearl river discharge and sewage effluent. Aquat Microb Ecol 58: 167-179.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Sampling station locations in the Gautami Godavari estaury: Upper estuary (Station 1); Middle estuary (Station 2- 3); Lower estuary (station 4) and coastal region (5-6).

Figure 2. Godavari river discharge

Figure 3. Hydrographic variations in study region a) Temperature ,b) Salinity, c) TSM , d) Chl-a , e) DOC, f) DON , g) POC, h) PON, i) C:N ratio, j) $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$

Figure 4. Spatio-temporal variation of a) Bacterial abundance, b) Bacterial respiration rate, c)

Bacterial productivity rate d) Bacterial growth efficiency in study region.

_●-No discharge period, ▲ -Peak discharge period, +-Moderate discharge period.

Figure 5. Principal component analysis showing a) influence of river discharge on bacterial activity and environmental parameters, b) spatiotemporal scale.

Figure 6. Increasing bacterial productivity rate with a) POC, b) PON, c) DOC and d) Bacterial respiration rate with C: N ratio.



Figure 1



Figure 2





Figure 4









Fig 5.



Figure 6

Str. Diag		Cal	TCM	DIN	DID	DC;	Chl-a	DOC	DON	POC	DON		
period	T (°C)	Sai (PSU)	(mgL^{-1})	(μM)	μM)	μM)	$(\text{mgm})^{3}$	μM)	μM)	μM)	μM)	C:N	δ ¹³ Cpoc(‰)
Stn 1 ND	31.6	16.0	18.6	16.5	3.3	36	7.6	321	26.6	38	6.6	5.8	-26.2
Stn 2 ND	30.2	25.8	23.6	13.7	8.1	77.6	9.6	373	34.8	61.9	6.9	9	-23.7
Stn 3 ND	28.4	26.2	43.0	22.8	9.2	54.9	4.8	456	36.3	53.8	9.0	6	-25.3
Stn 4 ND	30.6	31.7	66.4	12.4	4.9	11.4	4.2	304	32.9	97	36.2	2.7	-22.6
Stn 5 ND	27.9	33.9	41.6	10.4	7.1	25.8	4.7	72.7	48.4	58.8	9.1	6.5	-23.0
Stn 6 ND	27.1	34.6	40.8	14.5	5.1	11.2	0.3	85.3	110.4	15.2	2.2	6.9	-24.4
Stn 1 PD	30.5	0.07	301	28.4	9.7	57.4	4.1	812	97.3	1272	118	10.7	-23.2
Stn 2 PD	30.8	0.1	446	27.6	7.8	52.2	4.4	769	88.8	534	46.2	11.6	-22.8
Stn 3 PD	30.5	3.2	591	23.2	4.3	44.4	4.3	626	28.6	479	50.1	9.6	-24.2
Stn 4 PD	28.0	9.1	580	35.3	8.5	31.4	3.9	988	35.2	460	38.3	12	-23.1
Stn 1 MD	31.0	0.1	73.3	52.9	8.9	45.9	55.1	326	52.1	79.2	12.7	6.2	-32.6
Stn 2 MD	28.4	0.6	64.7	38.3	10.1	78	86.8	237	59.5	102	13.4	7.6	-32.9
Stn 3 MD	30.8	4.2	118	12.8	1.3	35.2	44.4	639	57.2	51.6	8.4	6.1	-29.7
Stn 4 MD	30.5	15.3	85.3	15.7	1.7	38.3	57.8	127	57.2	145	23.6	6.1	-31.1
Stn 5 MD	31.0	21.9	25.6	14.8	2	36.2	3.8	176	46.9	25.5	3.7	7	-22.8
Stn 6 MD	30.9	24.2	12.4	12.6	2	17.8	0.9	134	43.8	40.9	8.1	5.1	-24.3

 Table 1. Physico-chemical variations in study region

* ND: No discharge period PD: Peak discharge period MD: Moderate discharge period.

* Due to flood and rough weather, sampling was not done for Stn. 5 and 6 during peak discharge period

Stn./Disch. period	BA (No.x 10 ⁸ cells L ⁻¹)	BR (μg CL ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	ΒΡ (μg CL ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	BGE (%)	BCD (µg CL ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	pCO2 (µatm)
Stn 1 ND	1.5	343	3.3	1.0	346	3299
Stn 2 ND	3.0	313	4.1	1.3	317	3398
Stn 3 ND	1.5	163	1.6	1.0	164	2603
Stn 4 ND	2.6	223	3.0	1.3	226	8156
Stn 5 ND	1.6	199	0.7	0.3	199	2751
Stn 6 ND	1.3	343	2.9	0.8	346	1007
Stn 1 PD	1.9	301	33.3	10.0	334	14690
Stn 2 PD	1.4	994	14.9	1.5	1008	5988
Stn 3 PD	0.9	126	15.5	10.9	142	4662
Stn 4 PD	1.0	78.3	17.3	18.1	96	3500
Stn 1 MD	0.9	144	18.8	11.5	163	24498
Stn 2 MD	1.2	235	11.1	4.5	246	10576
Stn 3 MD	0.2	271	3.8	1.4	275	6615
Stn 4 MD	0.6	39.1	2.5	6.0	41.6	991
Stn 5 MD	0.8	289	1.5	0.5	291	362
Stn 6 MD	0.5	355	0.4	0.1	356	366

Table 2. Bacterial metabolic rates and pCO2 levels variation during study period

* ND: No discharge period PD: Peak discharge period MD: Moderate discharge period

				-
	Variables	Factor1	Factor 2	Factor 3
	pCO ₂	-0.35	-0.68	0.03
	Temperature	-0.1	-0.28	-0.74
	Salinity	0.72	0.64	0.11
	TSM	-0.85	0.15	-0.1
	DIN	-0.82	0.25	0
	DIP	-0.9	0.21	-0.04
	Dsi	-0.66	-0.62	-0.05
	Chl-a	0.13	-0.91	0.18
	DOC	-0.89	0.05	-0.17
	DON	-0.28	-0.03	0.79
	POC	-0.89	0.09	0.11
	PON	-0.83	0.07	0.05
	C:N	-0.8	0.14	0.19
	$\delta^{13}C_{POC}$	-0.2	0.91	-0.11
	BA	-0.03	0.39	0
	BR	-0.28	0.18	0.06
	BP	-0.87	-0.24	0.13
	BGE	-0.62	-0.23	-0.01
	BCD	-0.32	0.16	0.07
Value	Eigenvalue	% total	Cumulative	Cumulative
number	Value	variance	Eigen value	%
1	6.43	45.98	6.43	45.98
2	3.2	22.87	9.63	68.85
3	1.3	9.6	11.0	78.5

 Table 3. Factor coordinates of the variables and Eigen values of PCA

	т	Sal	TSM	DIN	DIP	Dsi	Chi-a	DOC	DON	POC	PONCNra	tio å	^{pa} C roc	δ ¹⁵ Neos	BA	BGE	BR	BP	BCD	pCO ₂
r	1.0																			
Sal	-0.5	1.0																		
TSM	0.3	-07*	1.0																	
DIN	-0.42	0.9***	-0.57*	1.00																
DIP	0.22	-0.54	0.87***	-0.39	1.00															
Dsi	0.39	-085***	0.62*	-0.90***	0.54	1.00														
N—a	-0.05	0.01	-0.54	-0.02	-072**	-0.10	1.00													
XXX	0.43	-062*	0.77**	-0.56*	0.88***	0.72**	-0.65**	1.00												
DON	-0.28	-019	0.13	-0.18	033	0.14	-0.11	0.18	1.00											
XOC	0.29	-0.57*	0.67*	-0.48	080**	0.50	-0.47	0.73**	0.44	1.00										
ON	0.33	-0.55	0.63*	-0.46	0.73**	0.46	-0.37	0.69**	0.35	0.97***	1.00									
2N	0.11	-0.53	0.72**	-0.43	0.83***	0.48	-0.65*	0.64	0.43	0.68*	0.53	1.00								
CPOC	04	06*	-0.07	0.72**	0.07	-0.71**	-0.37	-0.18	0.10	0.06	0.08	-0.01	1.00							
NPON	08	0.25	-0.50	0.36	-032	-0.17	0.46	-0.22	0.00	-044	-0.40	-0.41	-0.11	1.00						
BA .	13	0.36	-0.12	0.43	018	-0.34	-0.32	0.09	-0.09	014	0.21	0.07	0.39	0.22	1.00					
IGE	0.21	-068*	0.69**	-0.59*	0.58*	0.47	-0.21	0.48	0.09	0.72**	0.74**	0.49	-0.17	-0.61*	-0.08	1.00				
SR .	0.19	-017	0.35	-0.11	0.48	0.29	-0.31	0.41	0.47	0.24	0.15	0.51	0.13	0.24	0.09	-0.28	1.00			
P	0.21	-065*	0.70**	-0.61*	0.81**	0.63*	-0.43	0.74**	0.45	0.96***	0.98***	**0.73	-0.11	-0.45	0.14	0.76**	0.24	1.00		
BCD	0.19	-020	0.37	-0.13	0.51	0.32	-0.33	0.44	0.49	0.28	0.19	0.53	0.13	0.22	0.09	-0.25	0.99***	0.28	1.00	
pCO ₂	0.11	-056*	0.36	-0.61*	0.50	0.66*	-0.13	0.63	0.27	0.70**	0.74**	0.34	-0.44	-0.11	0.29	0.52	0.11	0.79**	0.14	1/

Units for temperature (f) $-^{\circ}$ C; Salinity-PSU; TSM - mg Γ^{-1} ; DIN; DIP; DSI $-\mu$ M; Chi-a - mg m $^{-3}$; DOC; POC; PON $-\mu$ M; δ^{13} C $_{POC} - \%_{ec}$; δ^{15} N_{PON} $-\%_{ec}$; $PCO_2 - \mu$ atm; BA - No. \times 10⁶ cells I $^{-1}$; BGE-%; BR, BP, BCD $-\mu$ g C I $^{-1}$ d $^{-1}$.

		-				
Study Area	Bacterial	Bacterial	Bacterial	Bacterial	Bacterial	Reference
	Abundance	production	Respiration	Growth	Carbon demand	
	$(No.x10^8 \text{ cellsL}^{-1})$	$(ugCL^{-1}d^{-1})$	$(ug C L^{-1}d^{-1})$	efficiency (%)	$(ug CL^{-1}d^{-1})$	
	, ,			, , , ,		
Coastal and	40-50	14 4-144	130-610	4 7- 31 1	144-755	Ram et al. 2007
estuarine region	10.50		150 010	1.7 51.1	111755	Rum et ul. 2007
off Coa India						
0.1	50 110	6.2.100	C C 120	21 7 40 0	12 (20	TI (((1.1) (1. 2000)
Cochin estuary	52-110	6.3-199	0.0-430	31.7-48.8	13-630	I nottatnil et al. 2008
India						
Blanes Bay and	-	1.7-5.3	33-40	1-30	37-56	Dominguez et al. 2007
Mediterranean						
Hudson river	0.2-0.6	63-136	48-192	23-70	110-328	Maranger et al. 2005
i i dason i ivei	0.2 0.0	05 150	+0 172	25 10	110 520	Waranger et al. 2005
Amazon river and	9-12.6	10 56-43 9	1 65-39	52-86	12-83	Benner et al. 1995
it's tributaries	7 12.0	10.50 +5.7	1.05 57	52 00	12 05	Definer et al. 1995
it's tributaries						
Subtropical Hong	50-900	12-96	48-156	8-30	17-186	Yuan et al. 2010
Kong waters	20,000	12 90	10 100	0.00	1, 100	
Kong waters						
Coastal Ria de	13-61	0.2-1.9	0.2-11	29-44	1.2-3.6	Lonborg et al.2011
Vigo	10 01	0.2 1.9	0.2 11		1.2 010	
Godavari estuarine	0.2 - 3	0.4-33	39-994	0.1-18	42.6-1009	Present study
and coastal region-						· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
India						
mana	1	1	1			

Table 5. Comparison of bacterial metabolic rates variation from different regions

Table 6. Variations in pCO2 levels from different regions

Region	pCO ₂ (µatm)	Reference
Mandovi-Zuari estuary	y <2000	Sarma et al. 2001
Godavari estuary	<1000	Bouillon et al. 2003
Hoogly estaury	220-1200	Mukhopadhyay et al. 2003
Coachin estaury	200-600	Gupta et al. 2009
Rhine estuary	~25000	Kempe 1982
Scheldt estuary	~15200	Borges and Frankignoulle 2002
Hudson river	~1147	Raymond et al. 1997
Amazon river	100-200	Abril et al. 2009
Hong Kong waters	~570	Yuan et al. 2010
Godavari estuary	362-24498	Present study