ACIDIFICATION AND HYPOXIA IN MARGINAL SEAS

EDITED BY: Xianghui Guo, Hongjie Wang, Richard Alan Feely, Arnaud Laurent and Nina Bednarsek PUBLISHED IN: Frontiers in Marine Science







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ACIDIFICATION AND HYPOXIA IN MARGINAL SEAS

Topic Editors: Xianghui Guo, Xiamen University, China Hongjie Wang, University of Rhode Island, United States Richard Alan Feely, Pacific Marine Environmental Laboratory, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), United States Arnaud Laurent, Dalhousie University, Canada Nina Bednarsek, National Institute of Biology (NIB), Slovenia



The image is modified based on Figure 1a of Lucey *et al.* (this Research Topic) and Figure 7b of Niemi *et al.* (this Research Topic). (A) Graphical depiction of atmospheric warming and increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO_{2atm}) , which drives ocean warming, contribute to the decreases in dissolved oxygen (DO), and lowers pH and saturation state index of calcium carbonate (Ω). The partial pressure of CO_2 (pCO_2) increases due to increasing atmospheric CO₂ that is absorbed into the seawater (i.e., ocean acidification), along with other biological processes in the marine environment. (B) Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) image showing dissolution on pteropod shells collected in the Amundsen Gulf in the Canadian Arctic, in 2017.

Lucey N, Haskett E and Collin R (2020) Multi-stressor Extremes Found on a Tropical Coral Reef Impair Performance. *Front. Mar. Sci.* 7:588764. doi: 10.3389/fmars.2020.588764

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Editorial: Acidification and Hypoxia in Marginal Seas

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Keywords: ocean acidification, hypoxia, marginal seas, biological impacts, long-term variation

Editorial on the Research Topic

Acidification and Hypoxia in Marginal Seas

ACIDIFICATION AND DEOXYGENATION IN MARGINAL SEAS

Ocean acidification and hypoxia (dissolved oxygen $<2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ or $<62 \mu \text{mol L}^{-1}$) are universal environmental concerns that can impact ecological and biogeochemical processes, including element cycling, carbon sequestration, community shifts, contributing to biodiversity reduction, and reducing marine ecosystem services (Riebesell et al., 2000; Feely et al., 2004, 2009; Andersson et al., 2005; Doney, 2006; Cohen and Holcomb, 2009; Doney et al., 2009, 2020; Kleypas and Yates, 2009; Ekstrom et al., 2015; Gattuso et al., 2015). While the stressors are global in their occurrence, local and regional impacts might be enhanced and even more accelerated, thus requiring even greater and faster consideration (Doney et al., 2020).

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The driving mechanisms of acidification and hypoxia are inextricably linked in near-shore and coastal habitats. Along coastal shelf and its adjacent marginal seas, where the natural variability of multiple stressors is high, human-induced eutrophication is additionally enhancing both local acidification and hypoxia. For example, the well-known eutrophication of surface waters in the northern Gulf of Mexico caused hypoxic conditions that result in a pH decrease by 0.34 in the oxygen-depleted bottom water, which is significantly more than the pH decrease via atmospheric CO₂ sequestration alone (pH decrease by 0.11; Cai et al., 2011). Similar changes in coastal conditions involving biological respiration and atmospheric CO₂ invasion have also been observed in other marginal seas, urbanized estuaries, salt marshes and mangroves (Feely et al., 2008, 2010, 2018; Cai et al., 2011; Howarth et al., 2011). Other natural and anthropogenic processes, such as increased wind intensity and coastal upwelling, enhanced stratification due to global warming, along with more intense benthic respiration, more frequent extreme events, oscillation of water circulations, and variations in the terrestrial carbon and/or alkalinity fluxes, etc., all influence the onset and maintenance of acidification and/or hypoxia. For example, coastal upwelling brings both low pH and hypoxic water from below and enhances acidification and hypoxia in the coastal regions (Feely et al., 2008). Although acidification and hypoxia in the open oceans have received considerable attention already, the advances in our understanding of the driving mechanisms and the temporal evolution under global climate change is still poorly understood, particularly with respect to the region-specific differences, various scales of temporal and spatial variability, predictability patterns, and interactive multiple stressor impacts. Therefore, coastal ecosystems have a much broader range of rates of change in pH than the open ocean does (Carstensen and Duarte, 2019). The importance of understanding acidification and hypoxia for the biogeochemical and ecosystem implications in marginal seas is essential for climate change mitigation and adaptation strategy implementations in the future.

The scope of this Research Topic is to cover the most recent advances related to the status of acidification and hypoxia in marginal seas, the coupling mechanisms of multi-drivers and human impacts, ecosystem responses, prediction of their evolution over space and time, and under future climate change scenarios. The authors of this Research Topic contributed a total of 35 papers covering a wide variety of subjects spanning from acidification and/or hypoxia (OAH) status, the carbonate chemistry baseline and trends, the impacts of OAH on the habitat suitability and ecosystem implications, and the long-term changes and variability of OAH in marginal seas.

Across many different temporal and spatial scales, the contributed papers highlighted the presence of acidification and hypoxia with their major controls in the marginal seas of the North Pacific, including the subpolar Bering Sea, the temperate China Seas of Bohai Sea, Yellow Sea and the East China Sea, Japanese coasts (Tokyo Bay and the coast of Hokkaido); the Atlantic, including the northern Gulf of Mexico, the Chesapeake Bay, and the Mediterranean Sea; the Arctic, including the Amundsen Gulf; the Indian Ocean, including the Arabian Sea, the Red Sea, etc.

In the large river dominated East China Sea shelf, hypoxia occurs in bottom waters in summer (Li et al., 2002; Zhu et al., 2017). Circulation plays an important role in the biogeochemical processes including redistribution of nutrients, changes in stratification, water residence time and ventilation of the shelf water (Liu et al.). Furthermore, the impact of typhoons results in hypoxia demise with immediate extensive vertical mixing. However, the excess freshwater and nutrient loading during the typhoon period would boost the hypoxia restoration later on when the shelf waters are re-stratified (Liu et al.). With respect to coastal oxygen consumption, water, and sediment interactions contribute dynamically, and water-column respiration processes contribute to as much as 24-69% of total oxygen consumption beneath the pycnocline (Zhou et al.). Deconvolving the water column vs. sedimentary oxygen respiration in the oxygen depletion off the Changjiang estuary and East China Sea is an important advancement of our understanding of oxygen sinks.

From the perspective of a comparison between the northern East China Sea and the adjacent southern Yellow Sea, higher CO₂ solubility together with the biogeochemical CO₂ additions caused the colder Yellow Sea water generally to have lower aragonite saturation state index (Ω_{Ar}) than the warmer northern East China Sea water (Xiong et al.). Although marine organic matter is the major source of the oxygen-consuming carbon in the large river-dominated margins (Green et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2016), the maximum of hypoxia may come at a significant lag from the time of peak productivity. For example, bottom water hypoxia and acidification has a 2-month delay when compared with the maximum primary production in surface waters of the northern Gulf of Mexico (Huang W-J. et al.).

In addition to biogeochemical processes, upwelling also plays an important role in the status and distribution of hypoxia/acidification occurrence, such as in the well-known upwelling region off the California coast (Feely et al., 2008, 2016). The Chesapeake Bay is also impacted by upwelling-induced acidification, which will intensify with the wind-driven upwelling to cause low pH and "corrosive" water in the shallow shoals of the estuaries, enhancing large temporal pH and Ω_{Ar} seasonal fluctuations (Li et al.). Furthermore, non-local mechanisms may also be important in regulating the occurrence of hypoxia. For example, the Kuroshio intrusion into the northern South China Sea relieves the occurrence of hypoxia in the coastal zone (Lui et al.).

In the coastal seas without large river influence, OAH also occurs as a consequence of seasonal productivity and largescale circulation processes. Along the Hokkaido coast, the highly euphotic Tokyo Bay, the Netarts Bay off Oregon, and the coastal habitat types on eastern Long Island, time series observations show the progression of seasonal OA and deoxygenation, often resulting in hypoxic conditions. In addition, high frequency pH and dissolved oxygen (DO) observations across sub-diel, diel and seasonal time scales across various habitat types (salt marsh, macroalgae, seagrass, open water) in the northeast US show the impact of ecosystem metabolism to modulate OAH (Wallace et al.). Comprehensive analysis of coastal observations suggests that pH and Ω_{Ar} decreased by 0.2-0.6 and 1–2, respectively, via circulation and biogeochemical processes, where Ω_{Ar} decreases can occur in the summer bottom waters and will be a common phenomenon in the near future in the eutrophic Tokyo Bay (Yamamoto-Kawai et al.). Fujii et al. and Fairchild and Hales separately showed that along the Hokkaido coast and in Netarts Bay along the Oregon coast, Ω_{Ar} sometimes decreases to values below the threshold for significant negative impacts on some calcifiers (e.g., 1.1-1.5 for bivalve larvae, 1-1.5 for pteropods, and pH values of 7.6-7.8 for echinoderms and decapods; Bednaršek, Ambrose et al.; Bednaršek, Calosi, et al.; Bednaršek, Naish, et al.; Bednaršek et al., 2019). Continued oceanic uptake of carbon dioxide will continue to decrease pH and $\Omega_{\rm Ar}$, with high-latitude surface waters expected to be fully undersaturated by the end of this century because of the natural low buffer capacity there (Feely et al., 2009; Steinacher et al., 2009).

Crossing these pH thresholds consistently occurs in salt marsh and seagrass habitats along with hypoxic conditions (Wallace et al.). Under the IPCC global warming and acidification scenarios, Ω_{Ar} in some coastal environments will drop below these thresholds by 2090, indicating that critical thresholds may be crossed more frequently in the future and severely damage calcifiers and impact overall fisheries production (Tai et al.).

OCEAN ACIDIFICATION AND HYPOXIA AT THE CHEMICAL-BIOLOGICAL INTERFACE

Under continuously decreasing pH and low dissolved oxygen conditions, there is a general concern that the local bottom waters and the underlying sediments could switch from hypoxic to anoxic conditions. For example, in the hypoxic northern Gulf of Mexico, low DO conditions in sediment did not promote anoxic diagenesis as anticipated, possibly linked to the reduction of bioturbation during the hypoxic spring and summer months (Rabouille et al.). In the hypoxic area of the Eastern Arabian Sea, strong denitrification results in large nitrogen loss, accounting for as much as 20–60% of the total annual fixed nitrogen loss in oxygen minimum zone of the Arabian Sea (Sarkar et al.). Methane emissions in coastal regions can also be very large, accounting for as much as 15% of the methane emission from the Arabian Sea (Sudheesh et al.). Moreover, sediment diagenesis plays a critical role in triggering and maintaining hypoxia of lagoon waters, and it may be enhanced by changes in regional climate conditions, such as the increase in frequency of summer heat waves (Brigolin et al.).

IMPACTS OF OCEAN ACIDIFICATION AND HYPOXIA ON MARINE ORGANISMS AND ECOSYSTEMS

OA and hypoxia are significant stressors for marine species, communities, ecosystems, especially when they act interactively and cumulatively. Studies show that harmful effects of OA on the marine calcifiers have already been observed. In the Arctic and subpolar Beaufort Sea, Bering Sea, and the Amundsen Gulf, corrosive water for aragonite induced extensive shell dissolution in ecologically important zooplankton, i.e., pteropods (Niemi et al.). Conducting a more comprehensive OA risk assessment, Bednaršek, Naish, et al. elucidated high exposure OA risk in combination with high sensitivity and low adaptive capacity for pteropods in the polar habitats of the Northern Hemisphere.

Thresholds are very useful tools to determine when the OA exposure can start causing negative physiological and organismal impairments. With the echinoderms and decapods being one of the most dominant as well as ecologically and economically important species, the application of the thresholds for these two groups can have important regional and global implications (Bednaršek, Ambrose, et al.; Bednaršek, Calosi, et al.). These thresholds provide the foundation for consistent interpretation of OA monitoring data or numerical ocean model simulations to support climate change marine vulnerability assessments and evaluation of ocean management strategies.

On longer time scales, model results indicate that OA amplifies multi-stressor impacts on global marine invertebrate fisheries, with the fish catch potential to decrease by 12%, with 3.4% being attributed to OA by the end of this century (Tai et al.). A comprehensive understanding of OA effects based on the thresholds and predictive sensitives allows for improved predictions of ecosystem change relevant to effective fisheries resource management, as well as providing a more robust foundation for ecosystem health monitoring of the negative OA impacts in the most sensitive OAH habitats. While OA can also significantly affect the range of responses in different zooplankton taxa, the study by Keil et al. found little association between empirical measures of in situ pH and the abundance of sensitive taxa as revealed by meta-analysis. The authors concluded that the mismatch between experimental studies and field observations should have some important ramifications for the design of long-term monitoring programs and interpretation and use of the data produced.

On the community level, the results of mesocosms-based experiments across various marginal seas, from the coastal East China Sea, Bohai Sea, coastal upwelling and riverine ecosystems in Chile, all agree that increasing partial pressure of CO_2 (pCO_2) can modulate plankton structure, composition and abundance, leading to altered biogeochemical cycles of carbon and nutrients, and carbon fluxes. Elevated pCO_2

mesocosm experiments in the East China Sea boosted biomass of diatoms, while impeding the succession of diatoms to dinoflagellates, and corresponds with increased abundance of virus and bacteria (Huang R. et al.). Such results appear to be region specific, because a different community response was demonstrated in the Bohai Sea, where high pCO₂ resulted in the decreased total diatom abundance, favoring the ratio of central to pennate diatoms. In addition, combined warming and OA significantly decreased the proportion of diatoms to dinoflagellates and caused the shifts in phytoplankton composition due to interactive and cumulative effect, ultimately resulting in carbon flux and sinking rate changes (Feng et al.). Another study in the coastal area off Chile, characterized by high natural variability, showed no response to high pCO_2 treatments; instead the changes during the incubations were related to other factors, such as competition and growth phase (Osma et al.). The study suggests that the pre-exposure to variable coastal gradients that structure local adaptation patterns could play an important role in determining responses of coastal phytoplankton communities to increased impact of OA. In the experiments combining various OA and light treatments conducted on 15 laboratory experimental generations of picophytoplankton, Bao and Gao showed that Synechococcus grew faster under the OA treatment with inhibiting light level only, suggesting differential picophytoplankton responses that are light dependent under various depth conditions.

Hypoxia is another stressor present mostly in the tropical and temperate marine ecosystems. In a tropical Caribbean reef, hypoxia had largest negative impact on the performance of a key reef herbivore. The interactive temperature and DO extremes with low pH led to impaired performance of the reef echinoderms (Lucey et al.).

The studies investigating the impact of carbonate chemistry variability in coastal regions demonstrate the importance on both biological and biogeochemical responses. Coastal and estuarine habitats are characterized by distinct temporal fluctuations in carbonate chemistry, ranging from sub-diel to diel to seasonal, which are expected to increase under projected scenarios even in the highly buffered systems (Urbini et al.). Extreme variability in hypoxia/reoxygenation seem to change the expression of the mitochondrial quality control pathways only of the species with high DO sensitivity, such as Pacific oysters Crassostrea gigas, but not blue mussels Mytilus edulis, elucidating the mechanisms of mitochondrial protection against hypoxia-reoxygenation-induced damage that might contribute to hypoxia tolerance in marine bivalves (Steffen et al.). In addition to eutrophication, marine heatwave might also contribute to triggering deoxygenation and biodiversity loss in the marginal seas. In a southwestern Atlantic coast, marine heatwaves, sewage and eutrophication combined to trigger deoxygenation and biodiversity loss (Brauko et al.).

LONG-TERM VARIABILITY IN OCEAN ACIDIFICATION AND HYPOXIA IN MARGINAL SEAS

In the marginal seas of the Indian Ocean (Persian Gulf, Red Sea and Andaman Sea), deoxygenation has been observed numerous times over the last few decades (Naqvi). Hypoxia in the East China Sea has become more severe since the 1960s mainly due to eutrophication, stronger stratification, and longer water residence times (Wang et al.). ENSO and global warming may also have indirect effects by regulating river discharge, stratification, and water residence time, etc. (Wang et al.). In the southwestern English Channel within the Northeastern Atlantic Ocean, time-series observations show that average pCO_2 increases at rate of $2.95-3.52 \,\mu$ atm yr⁻¹, with a corresponding decrease in mean pH of 0.0028 yr^{-1} (Gac et al.), an acidification rate faster than the open ocean (~1.5 μ atm yr⁻¹ for pCO₂ and $-0.0016 \sim -0.0017 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for pH; Bates et al., 2014), and consistent with some other marginal seas, including the Mediterranean (Hassoun et al., 2015). Both atmospheric CO₂ absorption and climatic indices (i.e., North Atlantic Oscillation and Atlantic Multidecadal Variability) are responsible for this fast OA rate in the northern East Atlantic Ocean (Gac et al.).

CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

OA and hypoxia often occur more severely in the marginal seas than in the open ocean globally, making the marginal seas species and ecosystems more vulnerable to future climate change related changes. Ω_{Ar} and pH conditions in some marginal seas are already below the thresholds that can induce negative biological responses for many marine calcifiers, especially in the rapidly changing polar/subpolar marginal seas or in coastal upwelling regions. In temperate marginal seas, subsurface water can be corrosive, which may be having an impact on fisheries and the ecosystem services they provide. For large river-dominated margins, there might be significant time lags of the bottom water hypoxia/acidification after the peak of the primary production. For coastal ecosystems in the margin systems characterized by the OA/hypoxia, we can expect differential effects and evolution across regional habitats, depending on the baseline and the physical and biogeochemical dynamics of local conditions. Understanding of such spatial and temporal variability is thus essential to start recognizing more sensitive habitats and conduct appropriate monitoring or management practices to protect and preserve ecologically and economically important ecosystems.

Marginal seas are productive areas essential for the human wellbeing and economic dependence, but insufficient awareness of biological and ecosystem responses and potential management strategies might be detrimental, especially in the developing countries. Although this Research Topic contributed to advance understanding of the chemical changes, the interpretation of biological responses in the marginal seas is still in need of more research. Such responses are complex, thus requiring a tight integration with the chemical and biogeochemical multi-scale parameters that can induce stress, community reorganization and shifts, biological interactions and others impacts.

An immediate need for enhanced understanding of multiple stressor effects as well as the effects of increased variability and unpredictability in the marginal seas systems is critical for developing better management strategies. While a single study indicates that multiple stressor extremes in the tropics lead to the physiological impairments, systematic studies are needed to reveal multiple stressor impacts on the marginal seas marine ecosystems. Equally, the projections of future conditions in dynamic coastal systems show enhanced variability and extreme values related to OA, which can be habitat specific and thus extremely variable, yet biological and biogeochemical implications of these impacts are largely unknown. In particular, a better understanding of increased amplitude variability and prolonged duration below thresholds for organisms and ecosystems is needed for the coastal-estuarine habitat. Various temporal scales of variability (from sub-diel to diel to seasonal) needs to be further examined to understand where and when the biological bottlenecks will first occur. The comparison of sensitivity and resilience of various marginal seas systems should be examined through the natural variability baseline to understand the extent of species plasticity and adaptation. Moreover, attention needs to be given to the temporal variation (autocorrelation and cross-correlations) that represents the framework of the "predictability" in the habitats (Bernhardt et al., 2020), which can also significantly structure biological responses. Extensive theoretical and empirical work shows that the predictability might in fact be a primary driver determining the biological responses compared to the variability, thus both, predictability and variability require more attention to assess their impact and trade-offs in the marginal seas.

The integrated results of this Research Topic carry important implications for variety of ecosystems and ecosystem services, including aquaculture practices, fisheries management, human wellbeing carbon sequestration, etc. Given enormous potential of ecosystems services in the marginal seas systems, much more comprehensive approaches are needed to assess the impacts and economic evaluation of their losses. The approach needs to be based on the integration of the chemical, biological and biogeochemical data, allowing to monitor changes over time, and developing management approaches to preserve the health and the biodiversity within the marginal seas in the face of the global climate change, including habitat restoration, protection of biogenic habitats, removal of anthropogenic nutrients, potential development of OAH habitat refugia, marine spatial planning, fishing practices and capacity of adaptation and resilience of the changing socio-ecological system. Special attention needs to be given to the "blue carbon" ecosystems given their role related to sequestering carbon and potentially slowing down the long-term changes at the local level while also exacerbating short-term variability. To this end, a spatially targeted evaluation related to different causes of OAH involving comprehensive interactions with local stakeholders is needed maximize the utility of smaller-scale policy recommendations.

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All authors listed have made a substantial, direct, and intellectual contribution to the work and approved it for publication.

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Comparing Subsurface Seasonal Deoxygenation and Acidification in the Yellow Sea and Northern East China Sea Along the North-to-South Latitude Gradient

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To better understand the relationship between subsurface seasonal deoxygenation and acidification in the Yellow Sea and northern East China Sea (ECS), we examined carbonate system parameters and dissolved oxygen (DO) of seven field surveys conducted in 2017-2018, spanning all four seasons. Low pHT values of 7.71-7.80 and critically low aragonite saturation state (Ω_{arag}) values of 1.07-1.40 along with undersaturated DO of mostly higher than 150 μ mol O₂ kg⁻¹ occurred in the Yellow Sea Cold Water Mass area in summer and autumn, while hypoxic DO values of 49-63 μ mol O₂ kg⁻¹ and extremely low pH_T values of 7.68–7.74 as well as critically low Ω_{arag} values of 1.21-1.39 were observed in the northern ECS in July 2018. At the beginning of warm-season stratification formation, the cold Yellow Sea waters had much higher DO but lower Ω_{arag} values than those in relatively warmer ECS waters, while yearly initial pHT values rarely exhibited differences between the two coastal seas. During warm seasons, the central Yellow Sea accumulated respiration products beneath the thermocline in summer and autumn, while the northern ECS bottom waters preserved them only in summer. This study highlights fundamental roles of wintertime carbon dioxide (CO₂) solubility along a north-to-south latitude gradient in the coastal acidification development. In comparison with the relatively low-latitude northern ECS subject to seasonal hypoxia, relatively high-latitude Yellow Sea exhibits higher CO₂ solubility in winter and longer respiration-product accumulations in warm seasons, leading to lower Ω_{arag} in the central Yellow Sea than those in the northern ECS. However, the present-day central Yellow Sea is free from hypoxia.

Keywords: coastal acidification, hypoxia, carbon dioxide solubility, community respiration, Yellow Sea, northern East China Sea

KEY POINTS

- Wintertime air-sea re-equilibration, summertime respiration and autumnal upset dominate subsurface carbonate chemistry in coastal seas.
- High CO₂ solubility together with respiration leads to high DIC:TAlk ratios and low aragonite saturation state in the central Yellow Sea.
- The northern East China Sea is subject to concurrent hypoxia and CO₂ acidification in summer, while the Yellow Sea is free from hypoxia.

INTRODUCTION

The oceanic absorption of anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO_2) has lowered sea surface pH and calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) mineral saturation state (Ω) as compared with the preindustrial era, known as ocean acidification (Caldeira and Wickett, 2003; Orr et al., 2005; Doney et al., 2009). Here pH is the negative logarithm of the sum of the concentrations of hydrogen (H^+) and bisulfate (HSO_4^-) ions, i.e., total hydrogen ion concentration scale, $pH_T = -log_{10}[H^+]_T$, where $[H^+]_T = [H^+]$ + [HSO₄⁻]. It affects chemical/biochemical properties of seawater, including chemical reactions, equilibrium conditions, and biological toxicity. Ω is defined as $[Ca^{2+}] \times [CO_3^{2-}]/K_{sp}^*$, where $[Ca^{2+}]$ and $[CO_3^{2-}]$ are the concentrations of calcium and carbonate ions, respectively, and K_{sp}^* is the apparent solubility product for either calcite or aragonite. The declines in pH and Ω could lead to CaCO₃-undersaturated corrosive seawater conditions, affecting marine calcifying organisms and even the whole marine ecosystem (Fabry, 2008; Jin et al., 2015; Ravaglioli et al., 2020).

The anthropogenic CO₂ invasion has resulted in a decrease in pH by 0.1 unit (Orr et al., 2005) and a decline in $[CO_3^{2-}]$ by 30% (Sabine et al., 2004) in the upper ocean since the industrial revolution. The present-day open ocean pH_T was detected at 8.023 ± 0.004 in the tropical Central Pacific (6.4°N 162.4°W), at 8.074 \pm 0.004 in the subtropical Eastern Pacific (33.5°N 122.5°W), and at 8.020 \pm 0.008 at an Antarctic site (77.6°S 166.4°W) (Hofmann et al., 2011). In the Pacific Ocean, the present surface Ω_{arag} values are 3-4.5 in low-latitude regions while only 1-2 in high-latitude regions (Feely et al., 2012). This latitude gradient of Ω_{arag} is largely attributed to higher solubility of CO₂ in colder seawaters of high-latitude regions. Moreover, seasonal aragonite undersaturation (i.e., $\Omega_{arag} < 1$) has already been observed in surface and shallow subsurface waters of some northern polar seas (Bates et al., 2009; Fabry et al., 2009; Qi et al., 2017).

Chemically, $\Omega_{arag} > 1$ indicates that the CaCO₃ mineral of aragonite is stable in the seawater, while $\Omega_{arag} < 1$ indicates that the mineral is unstable. Although corals usually require much higher Ω_{arag} of > 3.0 for optimal growth (Eyre et al., 2018; Yamamoto A. et al., 2012), many researchers regarded an Ω_{arag} value of 1.5 as a critical threshold for marine shellfish development (Gruber et al., 2012; Ekstrom et al., 2015; Waldbusser et al., 2015), below which marine calcifying organisms may be under threat of acidified seawaters. On the Chinese side of the North Yellow Sea, the net community calcification rate in subsurface waters declined to zero when the Ω_{arag} value reached the critical level of 1.5–1.6 (Li, 2019; Li and Zhai, 2019).

In productive coastal zones, algae and other biogenic particles decompose in subsurface waters. Their respiration and/or remineralization processes consume dissolved oxygen (DO) and release a great deal of CO₂ into subsurface waters, leading to more rapid seawater acidification in coastal seas, compared with the open ocean (Feely et al., 2010; Cai et al., 2011; Melzner et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2019). Moreover, the respirationinduced seasonal acidification is subject to uneven distributions of seawater temperature, salinity and alkalinity in coastal seas. For example, transregional carbonate studies along the U.S. East Coast have indicated that its northeast shelf region is more susceptible to CO₂ acidification than the southern region, along with a north-to-south increasing gradient in total alkalinity (TAlk) and limited geographical variation in dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) (Wang et al., 2013; Wanninkhof et al., 2015). Exposure, sensitivity and adaptive capacity to the acidification driven by atmospheric CO₂ absorption and local amplifiers (i.e., eutrophication, upwelling of CO2-riched waters and input of river water with low $[Ca^{2+}]$ and subsequently Ω_{arag}) were also assessed and compared throughout the U.S. coastal regions (Ekstrom et al., 2015). Along China's coasts, so far, the latitude gradient of coastal acidification and its controlling mechanisms are unclear because previous studies have been primarily confined to individual coastal seas (e.g., Cao et al., 2011; Chou et al., 2013a; Zhai, 2018). Ocean environments along China's coasts also exhibit complex local geological and hydrological characteristics, such as contrasting bottom topography, residence time and monsoon-driven coastal currents (e.g., Su and Yuan, 2005; Chen, 2009; Men and Liu, 2015).

In this study, we examined carbonate system parameters in the Yellow Sea and northern East China Sea (ECS) during 2017– 2018, spanning all four seasons. For the first time, a north-tosouth gradient of carbonate system parameters in contrasting coastal seas along China's east coast was revealed. Together with hydrological data and DO measurements, the regional differentiation of the respiration-induced coastal acidification in the two coastal seas were investigated. This study provides the best understanding so far of the relationship between subsurface seasonal deoxygenation and acidification in the two coastal seas of both ecological and economic importance, which will assist future predictions of marine environmental changes under ocean acidification in the coming decades.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study Area

The Yellow Sea and ECS, located on the China eastern shelf, are two major marginal seas of the western North Pacific. The boundary of the two coastal seas lies between the northern corner of the Changjiang Estuary and Jeju Island (**Figure 1A**). The Yellow Sea is surrounded by mainland China to the west and the



The wintertime Yellow Sea Coastal Current (YSCC), Yellow Sea Warm Current (YSWC) and Zhejiang-Fujian Coastal Current (ZFCC) are sketched with blue arrows. The summertime Changjiang Dilute Water (CDW) and Yellow Sea Cold Water Mass (YSCWM) are sketched with the red arrow and the dashed red circle, respectively.

Korea Peninsula to the east. It is geographically divided into two basins, i.e., the North Yellow Sea and the South Yellow Sea. The former is connected to the Bohai Sea to the west, and the latter to the ECS to the south. The North Yellow Sea has an area of $\sim 7 \times 10^4$ km² with an average water depth of ~ 38 m, while the South Yellow Sea has an area of $\sim 30 \times 10^4$ km² with an average water depth of ~ 44 m. The more open ECS has a larger area of $\sim 77 \times 10^4$ km² with an average water depth of ~ 370 m. The ECS inner shelf within the 50 m isobaths is quite broad. The climatic variations are primarily dominated by the East Asian Monsoon, with the rain-bearing southwest monsoon prevailing in summer (from June to early September) and a strong northeast monsoon lasting in winter (from December to early March of the next year, Chen, 2009).

Both of the ECS and the Yellow Sea are connected to the North Pacific via the Kuroshio intrusion, including those Kuroshioderived currents such as the TaiWan Warm Current (TWWC), the TsushiMa Warm Current (TMWC), and the Yellow Sea Warm Current (YSWC). Moreover, they are subject to freshwater discharges from the Changjiang and Yalu Rivers (**Figure 1A**), as well as several monsoon-driving coastal currents, including the northeastward-moving Changjiang Diluted Water (CDW) from late spring to early autumn, and the southward-moving Yellow Sea Coastal Current (YSCC) and Zhejiang-Fujian Coastal Current (ZFCC) in winter and early spring. The Yellow Sea is semi-enclosed. Its summertime hydrography is characterized by a pronounced stratification in its deeper regions. A cold pool with water temperatures of $5-11^{\circ}$ C, the Yellow Sea Cold Water Mass (YSCWM), develops under the thermocline from late spring to autumn as the remnant of the previous winter cooling (Miao et al., 1990; Zhai et al., 2014b). The wintertime hydrography in the Yellow Sea is characterized by the southward-moving YSCC and the northward-moving YSWC (**Figure 1A**). The YSWC is considered to be a compensating current to the monsoon-driven coastal current (Yuan et al., 2008), transporting warm and saline waters into the Yellow Sea. Based on ²²⁸Ra/²²⁶Ra measurements, the Yellow Sea hydraulic residence time has been estimated to be 5–6 years, while the residence time may only be 2–3 years or shorter on the ECS shelf (Nozaki et al., 1991; Men and Liu, 2015).

TAlk in the Yalu River is only 320–800 μ mol kg⁻¹ (Zhai et al., 2014b, 2015), approximately 1000 μ mol kg⁻¹ lower than the Changjiang TAlk value (1500–1900 μ mol kg⁻¹, Xiong et al., 2019). As illustrated by Chen and Wang (1999) and Zhai et al. (2014a), the ECS offshore waters originate from the Kuroshio tropical water. The latter has a typical TAlk value of 2293 μ mol kg⁻¹ and the DIC value of 1994 μ mol kg⁻¹ (with the DIC:TAlk ratio of < 0.9) at a salinity of 34.9 (Chen and Wang, 1999). By comparison, the TAlk values in the semi-enclosed Yellow Sea were usually detected in a compact range of 2290 ± 25 μ mol kg⁻¹

(Zhai, 2018). In the North Yellow Sea, a usual water mixing model has been reported by Zhai et al. (2014b), i.e.,

$$TAlk^{North_Yellow_Sea} = 61.745 \times Salinity + 320$$
(1)

where 320 (μ mol kg⁻¹) represents the low TAlk feature of the mixture of rainwater and freshwater discharged from the Yalu River.

Sampling and Analyses

In this study, seven field surveys were conducted on the Chinese side of the Yellow Sea and the northern ECS during 2017–2018 (**Supplementary Table S1**), spanning a wet summer (July–August 2018) and a dry winter (December 2017–January 2018), as well as those transitional seasons of spring (March–May 2018) and autumn (October–November 2017 and October–November 2018) (**Figures 1B–G** and **Supplementary Figure S1A**).

Water samples were collected at two to seven different depths (including sea surface and the bottom water) using a rosette of 10 or 12 Niskin bottles, integrated with Conductivity-Temperature-Depth/Pressure (CTD) sensor packages. The ancillary data of *in situ* temperature (after the International Temperature Scale of 1990) and salinity (after the Practical Salinity Scale of 1978) were obtained primarily using the calibrated CTD sensor packages (SBE-19 plus in our October–November 2017 and May 2018 cruises, and SBE-911 plus during the other cruises, Sea-Bird Scientific, Bellevue, WA, United States). During the summertime estuarine survey conducted in July 2018, salinity values of discrete samples were also measured using a calibrated WTW's TetrCon925 probe.

DO samples were collected, fixed and titrated aboard following the Winkler procedure at an overall uncertainty level of <0.5%. A small quantity of sodium azide (NaN₃) was added during subsample fixation to remove possible interferences from nitrites (Wong, 2012). The DO saturation (DO%) was calculated from field-measured DO concentration divided by the DO concentration at equilibrium with the atmosphere which was calculated from temperature, salinity and local air pressure, as per the Benson and Krause (1984) equation. To quantify the effect of net community metabolism, apparent oxygen utilization (AOU) was also calculated by subtracting the field-measured DO concentration from the air-equilibrated DO. Assuming the water starts with a fully saturated state, and ignoring effects of air-sea exchange and water mixing, an AOU > 0 implies net community respiration, while an AOU < 0 implies net community production.

Water samples for DIC and TAlk analyses were also collected aboard. As recommended by Huang et al. (2012), water samples for DIC and TAlk were stored in 60 mL borosilicate glass bottles (for DIC, bubble free) and 140 mL high-density polyethylene bottles (for TAlk). There were no statistical differences between the measuring results from the above-mentioned sample storing procedure and from those procedure suggested by Dickson et al. (2007). Following filling procedure in Dickson et al. (2007), we filled these triple-rinsed sample bottles of DIC and TAlk smoothly from the bottom, and then immediately added 50 µL of saturated mercuric chloride (HgCl₂). Finally, water samples for DIC and TAlk were sealed and preserved at room temperature until determination. Note that the volume of saturated HgCl₂ added to the DIC samples exceeded the upper limit of recommended range (0.02-0.05% by volume), but was still below the maximum amount, i.e., 0.1% by volume (Dickson et al., 2007). Both DIC and TAlk samples were unfiltered but allowed to settle before measurement, although filtration techniques suitable for these samples were reported earlier by Bockmon and Dickson (2014). DIC was measured by an infrared CO₂ detector-based DIC analyzer (AS-C3, Apollo SciTech Inc., United States), and TAlk was determined at 25°C by the Gran acidimetric titration using a semi-automated titrator (AS-ALK2, Apollo SciTech Inc., United States). DIC and TAlk determinations were referred to Certificated Reference Materials (CRM) from Andrew G. Dickson's lab at Scripps Institution of Oceanography at a precision of $\pm 2 \,\mu$ mol kg⁻¹ (Dickson et al., 2007; Zhai et al., 2014b).

Calculation of Other Carbonate System Parameters

Seawater fugacity of CO₂ (fCO₂), pH_T and Ω_{arag} were calculated from seawater temperature, salinity, and measured DIC and TAlk using the software CO2SYS.XLS (Version 24) (Pelletier et al., 2015), which is an updated version of the original CO2SYS.EXE (Lewis and Wallace, 1998). This program has been favorably evaluated by Orr et al. (2015) in a study comparing 10 packages of carbonate calculation program. The Millero et al. (2006) dissociation constants of carbonic acid were used in the calculation because they cover much broader applicable ranges of temperature (0-50°C) and salinity (0-50). The Dickson (1990) dissociation constant was used for HSO₄⁻ ion. The phosphate and silicate values required by the program were usually unavailable and replaced by zero. The Ca²⁺ concentrations were assumed to be proportional to salinity as presented in Millero (1979) and the values of apparent solubility product for aragonite $(K_{sp}^*_{arag})$ were taken from Mucci (1983).

To assess the quality of the carbonate system data, we calculated pH data using the National Bureau of Standards scale (pH_{NBS}) based on field-measured DIC and TAlk values. These data were compared with field-measured pH_{NBS} data (see collection and analysis of pH_{NBS} samples in Supplementary Material). Most measured and calculated values were consistent at a deviation level of \pm 0.05 pH (Supplementary Figure S2A). To examine the possible existences of organic alkalinity in coastal waters within our study area, we also calculated TAlk values from field-measured DIC and pH_{NBS} data. Most measured TAlk data and calculated results were consistent with each other at a deviation level of \pm 20 μ mol kg⁻¹ (**Supplementary Figure S2B**). This deviation level was reasonably higher than the precision of TAlk determination ($\pm 2 \ \mu$ mol kg⁻¹). These comparisons suggested that the measured and calculated results of the carbonate system parameters were reliable. Due to accidentally insufficient addition of HgCl₂, the North Yellow Sea DIC samples collected in April 2018 were damaged before determination. The

relevant DIC data were calculated from field-measured TAlk and $\ensuremath{pH_{\text{NBS}}}.$

To quantify the effect of net community metabolism on DIC, we calculated the air-equilibrated DIC (corresponding to a mean air-equilibrated $f CO_2$ value of 415 \pm 5 µatm during our seasonal cruises conducted in 2017-2018) from corresponding field-measured seawater temperature, salinity and TAlk (Zhai, 2018). The air-equilibrated $f CO_2$ was calculated from the flask analysis data of atmospheric CO₂ mole fraction at the adjacent Tae-ahn Peninsula (TAP) site (36°44'N 126°08'E), which varied from 406 ppm (ppm = parts of CO_2 per million dry air) in August to 419-421 ppm during January to May in 2017-2018 (Supplementary Figure S1B, data from NOAA/ESRL's Global Monitoring Division)¹, and corrected to the survey-based barometric pressure and 100% humidity at water temperature and salinity (Zhai et al., 2019). Similar to the definition of AOU (section "Sampling and Analyses"), the DIC departure from the air-equilibrated DIC was defined as the excess DIC (ExcessDIC). Assuming water starts with a fully saturated state, and ignoring effects of air-sea exchange, water mixing and $CaCO_3$ precipitation/dissolution, an ExcessDIC > 0 means net community respiration, while an ExcessDIC < 0 implies net community production.

RESULTS

Hydrological Settings

Generally, water temperature exhibited a north-to-southincreasing gradient from the North Yellow Sea, to the South Yellow Sea, and to the northern ECS in winter, spring and autumn (**Supplementary Figures S3–S5**). The only exception was sea surface temperature in summer, showing no latitude gradient in these sea areas. However, summertime temperature in subsurface and bottom waters exhibited a north-to-southincreasing gradient (**Supplementary Figures S4, S5**). During our winter and spring cruises, regionally survey-averaged temperatures were $4.8-7.8^{\circ}$ C in the North Yellow Sea, 7.2- 11.7° C in the South Yellow Sea and 9.6–16.7°C in the northern ECS (**Table 1**).

Salinity also exhibited the north-to-south-increasing gradient, with annual mean values of 32.1 ± 0.3 in the North Yellow Sea, 32.2 ± 0.7 in the South Yellow Sea and 32.6 ± 1.9 in the northern ECS, based on data obtained from our seasonal cruises in 2017–2018. The Yellow Sea had relatively low salinity values and small salinity variations as compared with the northern ECS (**Figures 1B–G, 2A–C**). In the Yellow Sea, relatively high salinity values of > 32 dominated the whole study area in winter and spring (**Figures 1C–E**). In summer and autumn, the relatively high salinity values of > 32 still dominated bottom waters in the central Yellow Sea (**Figures 1B,F–G**), i.e., the summertime YSCWM area (**Figure 1A**). In the connection between the northern ECS and South Yellow Sea, several low salinity values of 29.7–31.5 were observed in late spring (**Figure 1E**), likely due to the offshore transport of the CDW. In summer, the

CDW-affected sampling sites considerably increased, covering the northwestern ECS and the southern part of the South Yellow Sea (**Figure 1F** and **Supplementary Figure S1A**). In autumn, low salinity values of 26.1–30.5 were observed at nearshore stations in the ECS (**Figure 1G**), indicating the effect of the southward-moving ZFCC during this northeast monsoon-driven season (**Figure 1A**).

In the Yellow Sea, significant thermoclines and stratification occurred in summer and autumn (Figures 3A-C), with mean surface temperatures of 26.7 \pm 2.3°C and 19.2 \pm 1.7°C in summer and autumn, respectively, and with mean bottom-water temperatures of 12.5 \pm 6.2°C and 13.9 \pm 4.7°C in summer and in autumn, respectively (Supplementary Figure S6). In the central Yellow Sea, subsurface water had quite low temperature of ~9°C in warm seasons (Figures 2A,B), shaping the YSCWM area with large density difference between bottom and surface waters (Δ Density) of ~5 kg m⁻³ in summer and ~2 kg m⁻³ in autumn (Figures 3A-C). Compared with the Yellow Sea, the northern ECS had relatively small bottom-surface temperature differences (26.1 \pm 1.8°C versus 20.9 \pm 1.7°C) and Δ Density $(3.7 \pm 1.8 \text{ kg m}^{-3})$ in summer, and nearly homogenous vertical profiles in autumn, except for several southeastern stations with bottom-water temperatures of 19.9-23.7°C and Δ Density of 0.4–2.1 kg m⁻³ in October 2018 (Figures 3A–C and Supplementary Figure S6).

DO and Carbonate System Parameters DO, *f*CO₂, and Apparent DO Depletion Rate

During our winter and spring cruises, most DO values were at \sim 100% saturations, while fCO₂ were close to the present-day airequilibrated $f CO_2$ of 415 µatm in the Yellow Sea and northern ECS (Table 1 and Figures 2D-F), suggesting a vertically wellmixed situation during cold seasons. Exceptions to this were observed in the central part of the South Yellow Sea in winter, where relatively low DO% of 65–72% and supersaturated fCO_2 of 672-806 µatm occurred in bottom waters at four deep stations (Supplementary Figure S5). From late spring to autumn, the YSCWM bottom waters exhibited DO declines (from 97% or 285 μ mol O₂ kg⁻¹ in late spring to 87% or 248 μ mol O₂ kg⁻¹ in summer and 68% or 195 $\mu mol~O_2~kg^{-1}$ in autumn) and fCO_2 increases (from 440 µatm in late spring to 505 µatm in summer and 680 µatm in autumn) (Figures 2D,E, 3D-F). These low DO values in the YSCWM (mostly higher than 150 µmol O_2 kg⁻¹) were still above the threshold of hypoxia (i.e., <63) μ mol O₂ kg⁻¹). The regional averaged apparent DO depletion rate in the YSCWM bottom waters was estimated to be 0.6 μ mol $O_2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ from late spring to autumn (~150 days).

In the northern ECS, summertime bottom-water DO% values were averaged at only 56 \pm 13% (with a range of 21–84%, having the DO concentrations of 49–185 µmol O₂ kg⁻¹), while the autumnal bottom-water DO% increased to the airequilibrated level (**Figures 2F**, **3D–F**). The three summertime hypoxic stations (with DO values of 49–63 µmol O₂ kg⁻¹) off the Changjiang Estuary had extremely high *f*CO₂ values of ~1000 µatm (**Supplementary Figure S5**). Since water stratification in the northern ECS was intensified from late spring to summer

¹http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/

| Season | Region | Sampling period | Temperature (°C) | Salinity | DO% | TAlk (μmol kg ^{−1}) | DIC (μ mol kg ⁻¹) | DIC:TAlk ratio | pH _T (in situ) | Ω_{arag} |
|--------------|------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------|----------------|---------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| Autumn | North Yellow Sea | 13–16 Oct. 2017 ^b | 16.6 ± 3.4 | 32.0 ± 0.1 | 89 ± 13% | 2300 ± 10 | 2119 ± 54 | 0.921 ± 0.023 | 7.97 ± 0.09 | 2.16 ± 0.53 |
| | South Yellow Sea | 13, 18–27 Oct. 2017 | 17.5 ± 4.2 | 32.0 ± 0.3 | $92\pm12\%$ | 2295 ± 21 | 2089 ± 70 | 0.910 ± 0.027 | 8.01 ± 0.10 | 2.41 ± 0.63 |
| | northern ECS | 31 Oct7 Nov. 2017 | 21.9 ± 1.1 | 33.6 ± 0.6 | $98\pm3\%$ | 2242 ± 8 | 2001 ± 26 | 0.892 ± 0.011 | 8.02 ± 0.03 | 2.73 ± 0.23 |
| Early winter | North Yellow Sea | 30 Dec. 2017–8 Jan. 2018 ^b | 7.8 ± 0.9 | 32.3 ± 0.1 | $97\pm1\%$ | 2324 ± 11 | 2169 ± 14 | 0.933 ± 0.005 | 8.04 ± 0.03 | 1.81 ± 0.12 |
| | South Yellow Sea | 18-30 Dec. 2017 | 10.6 ± 1.2 | 32.3 ± 0.2 | $96\pm6\%$ | 2320 ± 22 | 2146 ± 25 | 0.925 ± 0.011 | 8.04 ± 0.06 | 2.00 ± 0.24 |
| | northern ECS | 19-20 Dec. 2017 | 13.0 ± 0.9 | 32.8 ± 0.4 | $98\pm1\%$ | 2283 ± 23 | 2101 ± 24 | 0.920 ± 0.003 | 8.03 ± 0.02 | 2.08 ± 0.07 |
| Early spring | North Yellow Sea | 8–16 Apr. 2018 | 4.8 ± 0.8 | 32.3 ± 0.3 | $107 \pm 3\%$ | 2330 ± 23 | 2167 ± 25^{c} | $0.930 \pm 0.006^{\rm c}$ | $8.11 \pm 0.04^{\circ}$ | $1.85 \pm 0.13^{\circ}$ |
| | South Yellow Sea | 28 Mar.–8 Apr. 2018 | 7.2 ± 1.6 | 32.5 ± 0.4 | $105 \pm 4\%$ | 2324 ± 26 | 2161 ± 33 | 0.930 ± 0.009 | 8.07 ± 0.05 | 1.87 ± 0.19 |
| | northern ECS | 1–2 Apr. 2018 | 9.6 ± 0.6 | 32.5 ± 0.6 | $104 \pm 3\%$ | 2300 ± 16 | 2137 ± 24 | 0.930 ± 0.006 | 8.03 ± 0.02 | 1.85 ± 0.12 |
| Late spring | North Yellow Sea | 9–11 May 2018 | 7.6 ± 2.6 | 32.4 ± 0.1 | $104 \pm 5\%$ | 2332 ± 17 | 2169 ± 28 | 0.930 ± 0.009 | 8.06 ± 0.03 | 1.89 ± 0.22 |
| | South Yellow Sea | 12–19 and 29–30 May 2018 | 11.7 ± 3.4 | 32.5 ± 0.4 | $102\pm9\%$ | 2306 ± 22 | 2130 ± 43 | 0.924 ± 0.015 | 8.03 ± 0.07 | 2.02 ± 0.35 |
| | northern ECS | 23–28 May 2018 | 16.7 ± 3.0 | 32.3 ± 0.9 | $99\pm14\%$ | 2261 ± 19 | 2053 ± 59 | 0.908 ± 0.022 | 8.03 ± 0.08 | 2.38 ± 0.51 |
| Summer | North Yellow Sea | 2–5 Aug. 2018 | 16.7 ± 8.4 | 31.9 ± 0.3 | $104\pm10\%$ | 2318 ± 19 | 2127 ± 56 | 0.918 ± 0.019 | 7.99 ± 0.05 | 2.26 ± 0.53 |
| | South Yellow Sea | 24 Jul.–2 Aug. 2018 | 19.3 ± 7.3 | 31.8 ± 1.1 | $96\pm19\%$ | 2296 ± 43 | 2104 ± 77 | 0.916 ± 0.025 | 7.96 ± 0.08 | 2.32 ± 0.65 |
| | northern ECS | 12–20 Jul. 2018 | 23.0 ± 2.9 | 32.2 ± 2.6 | $74\pm29\%$ | 2234 ± 31 | 2042 ± 80 | 0.914 ± 0.033 | 7.90 ± 0.13 | 2.33 ± 0.81 |
| Autumn | North Yellow Sea | 24 Oct4 Nov. 2018 | 14.7 ± 2.3 | 31.9 ± 0.2 | $88\pm12\%$ | 2307 ± 12 | 2143 ± 45 | 0.929 ± 0.017 | 7.96 ± 0.07 | 1.96 ± 0.40 |
| | South Yellow Sea | 14-24 Oct. 2018 | 17.7 ± 4.9 | 32.0 ± 0.5 | $89\pm13\%$ | 2302 ± 25 | 2106 ± 74 | 0.915 ± 0.026 | 7.98 ± 0.08 | 2.32 ± 0.62 |
| | northern ECS | 8–14 Oct. 2018 | 23.8 ± 1.0 | 32.6 ± 1.6 | $91 \pm 10\%$ | 2233 ± 18 | 2002 ± 32 | 0.896 ± 0.015 | 7.98 ± 0.04 | 2.69 ± 0.32 |

TABLE 1 | Summary of field data of water temperature, salinity, DO saturation (DO%) and carbonate system parameters^a.

^a Data were summarized by mean ± standard deviation across all stations and samples. TAlk, total alkalinity; DIC, dissolved inorganic carbon. ^b Some of the data collected from these surveys have been partially reported by Li (2019). ^c Calculated from field-measured TAlk and pH_{NBS} data, since DIC samples collected during this survey were accidentally damaged before determination.



FIGURE 2 | Time series of survey-averaged values of bottom-water (A–C) temperature and salinity, (D–F) DD saturation (DD%) and fugacity of CO₂ (*f*CO₂), (G–I) dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and DIC:TAlk ratio, and (J–L) pH_T (*in situ*) and aragonite saturation state (Ω_{arag}). TAlk = Total alkalinity. Data points in the Yellow Sea during summer to autumn are within the YSCWM. Error bars denote standard deviations.

(~50 days), its bottom-water averaged apparent DO depletion rate (from 85% or 215 μ mol O₂ kg⁻¹ in late spring to 56% or 126 μ mol O₂ kg⁻¹ in summer) was estimated to be 1.8 μ mol O₂ kg⁻¹ d⁻¹.

In addition, moderately low bottom-water DO values of ~140 μ mol O₂ kg⁻¹ were also observed in autumn at several southeastern stations (**Figure 3F**), where water temperature was moderately low (~22°C) (**Supplementary Figure S6F**), and salinity was quite high (~34) (**Figure 1G**), likely resulted from the TWWC that intruded into the northern ECS (**Figure 1A**).

TAlk

Survey-averaged TAlk in the North Yellow Sea ranged between $2300 \pm 10 \ \mu \text{mol kg}^{-1}$ and $2332 \pm 17 \ \mu \text{mol kg}^{-1}$ (**Table 1**, with the annual mean of $2316 \pm 19 \ \mu \text{mol kg}^{-1}$), while survey-averaged TAlk in the South Yellow Sea ranged between $2295 \pm 21 \ \mu \text{mol kg}^{-1}$ and $2324 \pm 26 \ \mu \text{mol kg}^{-1}$ (**Table 1**, with the annual mean of $2305 \pm 31 \ \mu \text{mol kg}^{-1}$). In the northern ECS, however, relatively low TAlk values were observed, ranging from $2233 \pm 18 \ \mu \text{mol kg}^{-1}$ to $2300 \pm 16 \ \mu \text{mol kg}^{-1}$ (**Table 1**, with the annual mean of $2243 \pm 28 \ \mu \text{mol kg}^{-1}$).

TAlk versus salinity showed different relationships in the three regions (**Figures 4A**–C). In the North Yellow Sea, TAlk versus salinity roughly followed Eq. (1), although TAlk data obtained from our five cruises in 2018 were $10-30 \,\mu\text{mol}\,\text{kg}^{-1}$ higher than those values predicted by salinity and Eq. (1). In the South Yellow Sea, however, quite complicated water mixing behaviors were involved (**Figure 4B**). In the northern ECS, many data points of TAlk versus salinity fairly followed a linear relationship (**Figure 4C**), i.e.,

$$TAlk^{northern_ECS} = 11.922 \times Salinity$$

+1850($R^2 = 0.94, n = 172$) (2)

Equation (2) indicated a two-endmember water mixing between the Changjiang freshwater (S = 0, TAlk = 1850 μ mol kg⁻¹) and the ECS offshore waters (S = 34.9, TAlk = 2266 μ mol kg⁻¹), as derived from our July 2018 cruise conducted off the Changjiang Estuary (**Figure 1**). This linear relationship also roughly characterized several ECS nearshore stations (along the China's east coast) sampled during



surface waters (Δ Density), bottom-water (**D**–**F**) dissolved oxygen (DO), (**G**–**I**) DIC:TAlk ratio, (**J–L**) pH_T (*in situ*), and (**M–O**) aragonite saturation state (Ω_{arag}) in autumn 2017, summer 2018 and autumn 2018. In panels (**M–O**), contours of bottom-water critical Ω_{arag} level of 1.5 are plotted as thick yellow lines.

our autumn 2018 cruise, with quite low salinity values of 26.0–30.5 (Figure 1G) and TAlk values of 2138–2229 μ mol kg⁻¹ (Figure 4C), indicating that the southward-moving ZFCC was closely coupled with the CDW (Figure 1A). In winter and spring, however, quite high TAlk values of 2283–2333 μ mol kg⁻¹ at moderate salinity values of 31.3–32.8 were observed in the northern ECS (Figure 4C), showing the intrusion of the northeast monsoon–driven YSCC (Figure 1A).

DIC and DIC:TAlk Ratio

The Yellow Sea exhibited higher DIC values than the northern ECS (Figures 2G,H versus Figure 2I). Annual mean DIC values were $2145 \pm 47 \ \mu mol \ kg^{-1}$ in the North Yellow Sea, 2119 ± 65 μ mol kg⁻¹ in the South Yellow Sea, and 2031 ± 65 μ mol kg⁻¹ in the northern ECS. Wintertime and springtime DIC values in the North Yellow Sea were averaged at 2168 \pm 22 μ mol kg^{-1} (Figure 4D), while wintertime and springtime DIC values in the South Yellow Sea were averaged at 2144 \pm 36 μ mol kg⁻¹ (Figure 4E). In the Yellow Sea, DIC data showed greater vertical variations in summer and autumn than in winter and spring (Supplementary Figures S3-S5), and the YSCWM had relatively high DIC values of 2150–2270 μ mol kg⁻¹ in summer and autumn (Figures 4D,E). In the northern ECS, the low DIC values of this study of 1650–1950 μ mol kg⁻¹ were observed in the summertime ECS surface waters (Supplementary Figure S7F), while the ECS bottom-water DIC values were mostly 2050-2150 μ mol kg⁻¹ in summer (**Figure 4F**).

The Yellow Sea usually had higher DIC:TAlk ratios than the northern ECS (**Figures 2G–I**). From early winter to late spring, survey-averaged DIC:TAlk ratio in the North Yellow Sea ranged between 0.930 \pm 0.009 and 0.933 \pm 0.005 (**Table 1**), usually at 0.930 \pm 0.010 (**Figure 4G**), while survey-averaged DIC:TAlk ratio in the South Yellow Sea varied from 0.924 \pm 0.016 to 0.930 \pm 0.009 (**Table 1**), usually at 0.925 \pm 0.010 (**Figure 4H**). In the YSCWM (with salinity of > 32 and temperature of < 12°C), bottom-water DIC:TAlk ratios increased to 0.944 \pm 0.008 in summer and 0.959 \pm 0.005 in autumn (**Figures 3G–I**, **4G,H**). In early winter, several very high bottom-water DIC:TAlk ratio values of 0.958–0.967 (**Figure 4H**) were observed at the four deep stations in the central South Yellow Sea, together with DO% of 65–72% and *f*CO₂ of 672–806 µatm (**Supplementary Figure S5**).

In the northern ECS, survey-averaged DIC:TAlk ratio values in early winter (0.920 \pm 0.003) and early spring (0.930 \pm 0.006) were much higher than the usual ratio of \sim 0.9 in the ECS offshore waters (Table 1), but quite close to the usual DIC:TAlk ratio of wintertime and springtime Yellow Sea waters (Figures 2G-I). This was likely because the YSCC transported the Yellow Sea waters into the northern ECS during the northeast monsoon season (Figure 1A). In late spring, the ECS DIC:TAlk ratio tended to show limited vertical gradient, with surface values of 0.891 ± 0.013 (Supplementary Figure S7I) and bottomwater values of 0.928 \pm 0.009 (Figure 4I). In general, the ECS bottom waters increased their DIC:TAlk ratio values to 0.930–0.970 in summer, and then declined to < 0.9 in autumn (Figures 3G-I). At several nearshore stations affected by the ZFCC and those southeastern stations likely affected by the TWWC intrusion, relatively high bottom-water DIC:TAlk ratio values of 0.920-0.930 were also revealed during our autumn 2018 cruise (Figures 3I, 4I).

Bottom-Water AOU and Excess DIC From Late Spring to Autumn

In late spring, both bottom-water AOU and ExcessDIC varied around 0 in the North Yellow Sea (Figure 5A), while the South Yellow Sea bottom-water AOU and ExcessDIC Download of the whole book:

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