

## Oxygen depletion in the upper reach of the Pearl River estuary during a winter drought

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Accepted 8 September 2005

Available online 24 January 2006

### Abstract

We examined dissolved oxygen (DO), the carbonate system and nutrients in the upper reach of the Pearl River estuary in a very dry season in February of 2004. We observed very low DO, down to  $<12\text{--}30\ \mu\text{mol O}_2\ \text{kg}^{-1}$  in the surface water, upstream of the vicinity of the Humen outlet, one of the major water channels into the estuary. The oxygen depleted water body encompasses a surface area of  $>20\ \text{km}^2$  within a salinity range between 1 and  $\sim 5$ . Accompanied with the low DO were extremely high  $p\text{CO}_2$  (up to  $>7000\ \mu\text{atm}$ ) and nutrients (ammonia  $>600\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  and nitrate  $>200\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ ). In addition to the aerobic respiration, processes such as nitrification substantially contributed to the consumption of DO, and may have a significant impact on the distribution pattern of the carbonate species including pH. Oxygen depletion was also observed in this area during our prior cruises in other seasons, signifying an alarming environmental condition in the region.

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### 1. Introduction

A water body that has a dissolved oxygen (DO) level below  $\sim 90\ \mu\text{mol O}_2\ \text{kg}^{-1}$  (or  $3\ \text{mg L}^{-1}$ ) is commonly termed as being “hypoxic”. There have been numerous reports of low dissolved oxygen or oxygen depletion in the world coastal environment since the last decade (Engle et al., 1999; Abril et al., 2000; Abril and Frankignoulle, 2001; Rabalais and Turner, 2001; Li et al., 2002; Rabalais et al., 2002). For example, a large area

of bottom oxygen depletion has been documented in the Yangtze River plume (Li et al., 2002). Shelf waters in the Gulf of Mexico have even become a so-called “dead-zone” with DO below  $60\ \mu\text{mol O}_2\ \text{kg}^{-1}$  (Engle et al., 1999; Ritter and Montagna, 1999; Rabalais et al., 2002). Some European estuaries, such as Forth, Scheldt, Seine, Loire, are also oxygen depleted to different degrees, largely attributable to anthropogenic discharges (Abril et al., 2003; Abril and Frankignoulle, 2001; Balls et al., 1996; Frankignoulle et al., 1996; Garnier et al., 2001; Hellings et al., 2001).

Most hypoxic cases thus far have been found in bottom waters in either salt wedge estuaries or on coastal shelves during stratifying seasons, typically in late spring and/or summer (Kemp et al., 1992; Ritter and Montagna, 1999). This bottom oxygen depletion

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generally results from a combination of eutrophication-induced high biological productivity and restricted water exchange (Borsuk et al., 2001; Kemp et al., 1992; Lawrence et al., 1990). We report in this paper a case of hypoxia expanded in the surface water located at the upper reach of the Pearl River estuary. Special effort is given here to examine the processes associated with this oxygen depletion, including nitrification that apparently contributes much to the oxygen consumption, and its linkage with the aquatic carbonate system. Similar low DO in surface waters has been observed in European estuaries such as the Forth and Scheldt River Estuaries (Balls et al., 1996; Frankignoulle et al., 1996; Frankignoulle et al., 1998; De Bie et al., 2002; Hellings et al., 2001), but direct linkages between oxygen consumption and the aquatic carbonate system have not been emphasized in these prior researches. Reports have been especially rare for Asian large river estuarine systems such as the Pearl River estuary; these systems have been experiencing extremely rapid changes caused by anthropogenic input during the last two decades.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Study area

The Pearl River is the largest river in southern China and ranks 13th in the world in terms of freshwater discharge. Its drainage basin is located in a sub-tropical climate zone with annual rainfall of 1600–2300 mm (Huang et al., 2003). The annual water discharge of the Pearl River is  $\sim 3.26 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}^3$ , 80% of which takes place in the wet season from April to September (Zhao, 1990).

The Pearl River has three major tributaries (Fig. 1), namely Xijiang (West River), Beijiang (North River) and Dongjiang (East River), as well as many netlike small tributaries. All runoff of the tributaries discharge into the South China Sea (SCS) via eight major outlets (PRWRC/PRRCC, 1991), among which, Humen is the largest outlet of the four eastern outlets (Fig. 1) and is a strong-tidal outlet with anomalous semi-diurnal tides. The tidewater through Humen is responsible for  $\sim 60\%$  of the tidewater among all of the eight outlets (Cheng, 2001).



Fig. 1. Map of the Pearl River estuary and sampling stations along with the cruise tracks. We cruised upstream from Sta. 9, the Humen Outlet to Sta. 1, the Huangpu district of Guangzhou and then cruised back to the Humen Outlet. HUM, JOM, HQM and HEM designate Humen, Jiaomen, Hongqimen, and Hengmen representing the eastern four outlets of the Pearl River estuary.

This study considers only the upper reach of the Pearl River estuary from the Humen outlet upward to the suburb of Guangzhou (Huangpu, Fig. 1). This section of the estuary is ~50 km long with an average width of ~2.2 km and an average water depth of 6.6 m (Guangzhou Chorography Compilation Committee, 1998). It receives most of the waste water and sewage discharged from Guangzhou, a metropolis of southern China with a population of >10 million. Among others, two major highly industrialized cities of Guangdong province located along this section of the estuary are Foshan and Dongguan. As a consequence of the waste discharge characterized with heavy organic loads (Tao and Hills, 1999; Table 1), the aquatic environment of the Pearl River/estuary has been deteriorated dramatically in recent years. Average DO of the Guangzhou reach of the Pearl River declined from 113  $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  in 1990 to 75  $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  in 1998 (Zhang et al., 1999).

It should be noted that the focal area of this study is much different in many ways from the typical estuarine mixing zone of the Pearl River estuary given that the sampling period of Feb 2004 represented an extreme drought and low-flow condition (<http://www.fswater.gov.cn>). Rain precipitations at Guangzhou between Oct 2003 and Feb 2004 were merely 153 mm (summarized based on <http://ccar.ust.hk/dataview/stnplot/current/>), representing only ~60 % of the long term average. Numerous hydrological observatories documented a historically low water table and runoff during this period of

time (<http://www.fswater.gov.cn>). As a consequence, the salinity at the vicinity of the Humen Outlet was ~17 during our Feb 2004 sampling period as opposed to ~0 during typical summer and spring seasons, as documented by Cai et al. (2004) and Zhai et al. (2005). In this context, we are looking at a zone of estuarine mixing with prolonged water residence time due to the low river flow.

## 2.2. Sampling

The study area is shown in Fig. 1. Data were collected in Feb 2004 on board the R/V Yanping II. We cruised upstream (upstream survey hereafter) from Sta. 9, the Humen Outlet to Sta. 1, the Huangpu district of Guangzhou during a neap tide period and then cruised back to the Humen Outlet (downstream survey hereafter) (Fig. 1) during the following flood tide.

Underway pumping was performed for continuous measurements of temperature, salinity, dissolved oxygen (DO), pH and partial pressure of  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $p\text{CO}_2$ ). Discrete underway sampling was also conducted for DIC (Dissolved Inorganic Carbon), TALK (Total Alkalinity), nutrients and DO/pH calibration via a side vent of the DO- $p\text{CO}_2$  pumping system. During the downstream survey, in addition to the underway measurements, we sampled at 9 stations with salinity gradients from the upper most Sta. 1 to Sta. 9, the latter is located just downstream to the Humen Outlet. Vertical profiles of the water column were sampled at 4 selected stations.

Table 1  
Quantity of wastewater discharge from Guangdong Province, China between 1990 and 2003

|  | 1990 <sup>a</sup> | 1995 <sup>a</sup> | 1996 <sup>a</sup> | 1997 <sup>a</sup> | 1998 <sup>b</sup> | 1999 <sup>b</sup> | 2000 <sup>b</sup> | 2001 <sup>b</sup> | 2002 <sup>b</sup> | 2003 <sup>b</sup> |
|--|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Total volume of wastewater discharged ( $10^6$ tons)                               | 2512              | 3816.5            | 3714              | 4198              | 4341              | 4287              | 4475              | 5114              | 4904              | 5464              |
| Domestic sewage (% of total discharge)   | 44                | 56                | 57                | 70                | 73                | 73                | 75                | 78                | 70                | 73                |
| Industrial effluent (% of total discharge)   | 56                | 44                | 43                | 30                | 27                | 27                | 25                | 22                | 30                | 27                |
| Total volume of chemical oxygen demand (COD) emission in wastewater ( $10^6$ tons) | 0.695             | 1.12              | 1.06              | 0.95              | 0.36              | 0.34              | 0.28              | 0.216             | 0.207             | 0.211             |
| Overall rate of domestic sewage treatment (%)                                      | –                 | –                 | –                 | 9.0               | –                 | –                 | –                 | –                 | –                 | 35                |
| Overall rate of industrial wastewater treatment (%)                                | 56.8              | 77.1              | 80.2              | 85.3              | 89.2              | –                 | 96.2              | 96.2              | –                 | –                 |
| Overall rate of industrial wastewater recovered (%)                                | –                 | 43.4              | 49.8              | 45.0              | –                 | 89.9              | –                 | –                 | –                 | –                 |
| Rate of industrial wastewater meeting discharge standard (%)                       | 47.1              | 56.3              | 57.7              | 56.7              | 61.6              | 64.9              | 81.8              | 81.8              | 78.3              | 82.9              |
| Capacity of domestic sewage treatment ( $10^6$ tons)                               | –                 | –                 | –                 | –                 | 511               | –                 | –                 | –                 | –                 | 1455              |

Also included are the percentage of domestic sewage and waste treatment rate in the total discharged waste.

<sup>a</sup> From Ho and Hui (2001).

<sup>b</sup> Based on Environmental Status Bulletins of Guangdong Province, China at <http://www.gdepb.gov.cn/>.

### 2.3. Analysis

#### 2.3.1. Temperature, salinity and meteorological data

Surface temperature and salinity were measured continuously using a SEACAT CTD system (SBE21, Sea-Bird Co.) with an in situ temperature sensor. Data were recorded every 6 s and averaged to 1 min. Vertical profiles of temperature and salinity were obtained with another SEACAT CTD system (SBE19, Sea-Bird Co.), with which data were recorded every 0.5 s. Meteorological data including wind speed were collected with an onboard weather station at ~10 m height above sea surface.

#### 2.3.2. Surface DO, pH and $p\text{CO}_2$

Surface water DO and pH were continuously determined using a Yellow Springs Instrument meter (YSI 6600), which was combined with a continuous flow equilibrator for our  $p\text{CO}_2$  measurement. Detailed configuration of our underway measurement system has been given in Zhai et al. (2005). Precisions of the YSI probes were  $0.3 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  for DO and 0.01 units for pH. The DO probe was pre-calibrated with water saturated air, and the pH probe was pre-calibrated using NBS (now NIST)-traceable pH buffers. DO probe data were also calibrated against Winkler DO data using discrete water samples. The DO concentrations determined with the two methods agreed very well with each other, the average difference of which was  $3.4 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ .

$p\text{CO}_2$  was determined using a system that combined a Li-Cor® non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) spectrometer with a continuous flow equilibrator, as detailed in Zhai et al. (2005). In this study we used a LI-7000, which has a broader linear response range than the Li-Cor 6252 or 6262 that we previously used.  $\text{CO}_2$  gas standards with  $x\text{CO}_2$  values of  $953 \times 10^{-6}$ ,  $2.19 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $4.96 \times 10^{-3}$  were applied for calibration in order to better fit the wide range of  $p\text{CO}_2$  in the study area. The overall uncertainty of the contents of these standards is <1%, representing the maximum errors during high  $p\text{CO}_2$  measurement and data processing (see details in Zhai et al., 2005).

#### 2.3.3. DIC, TALK, nutrients, Ca and Winkler DO

DIC was determined within 24 h upon sampling by acid extraction and infrared detection, as described in Cai et al. (2004). TALK was determined by acidimetric titration using a Gran procedure. Reference materials from Dickson's lab (CRM Batch 60#) were used to calibrate the system at a precision of  $\pm 2 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  for DIC and TALK determinations (Cai et al., 2004).

Nutrient samples were filtered with  $0.45 \mu\text{m}$  cellulose acetate filters and measured immediately onboard using a flow injection analyzer (Cai et al., 2004), among which nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) plus nitrite ( $\text{NO}_2^-$ ) were measured after reducing  $\text{NO}_3^-$  to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  with an on-line Cd coil. Ammonia ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) was determined using the indophenol blue (IPB) spectrophotometric method after Pai et al. (2001).  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  samples were also filtered and then acidified with concentrated nitric acid for storage. Samples were run using the classic EDTA titration method. DO concentrations in discrete samples were determined within 8 h using the classic Winkler method.

#### 2.3.4. Bulk oxygen consumption rate incubation

Unfiltered water from Sta. 1 was incubated on-deck in a 20 L LDPE cubitainer (Fisher Scientific) with a poisoned sample as a control (see details in Zhai et al., 2005). Since the experiment was set to examine the oxygen consumption rate, our incubation was conducted under dark conditions. Subsamples were taken every 8 h. Based on the assumption that DO can be consumed along the pseudo first order reaction kinetics (see the differential equation as Eq. (1)), the pseudo first order reaction quotient was estimated using DO data collected during the incubation along the integral equation (Eq. (2)).

$$\text{Differential equation: } -\frac{d[\text{O}_2]}{dt} = k \cdot [M] \cdot [\text{O}_2] = k' \cdot [\text{O}_2] \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Integral equation: } \ln[\text{O}_2] = -k' \cdot t + A \quad (2)$$

where  $[\text{O}_2]$  is the DO concentration;  $[M]$  is the total concentration of oxygen consuming materials;  $t$  is incubation time;  $k$  is the integrated reaction quotient for all oxygen consumption reactions;  $k'$  is the pseudo first order reaction quotient based on the assumption of constant concentration of oxygen consuming materials; and  $A$  is a random constant. The in situ bulk oxygen consumption rate was then estimated using the pseudo first order reaction quotient and in situ DO concentrations based on Eq. (1).

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Hydrographic settings

Feb 2004 was a very dry season throughout the Pearl River basin. As a result, seawater intrusion was much farther upstream than is typical. Estuarine mix-

ing with saltwater was observable at 50 km upstream of Humen, in the suburb of Guangzhou, where salinity ( $S$ ) was still  $\sim 1.0$  at the low tide during our upstream survey (Fig. 2).

The water column was well mixed at Sta. 3 (typical for upstream stations) but slightly stratified in the vicinity of Humen (Fig. 3), suggesting that the salt wedge reached 30 km upstream of Humen during the survey, which is consistent with what is revealed by the surface salt front (Fig. 2).

### 3.2. DO distributions

Surface DO decreased upstream from  $>150 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  at the vicinity of the Humen Outlet down to

$12\text{--}68 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  at a low salinity area ( $S < 4$ ). During the low tide period, this sub-oxic zone extended  $>20 \text{ km}$  in part of the water channel (Fig. 2). It is noteworthy that during our upstream survey (neap tide), surface wind was moderate, especially in the upstream channel (37–50 km), where the wind speed was only  $\sim 1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  (Fig. 2a). This area was the most oxygen depleted, where surface DO remained at a level of  $<30 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  for  $\sim 13 \text{ km}$  (Fig. 2b). When the downstream survey started during a higher tide, wind speed increased to  $\sim 3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  (Fig. 2b), and DO increased correspondingly. This may be due to the enhanced air injection into the water as well as tidal mixing with the more oxygenated saline water during the higher tide.

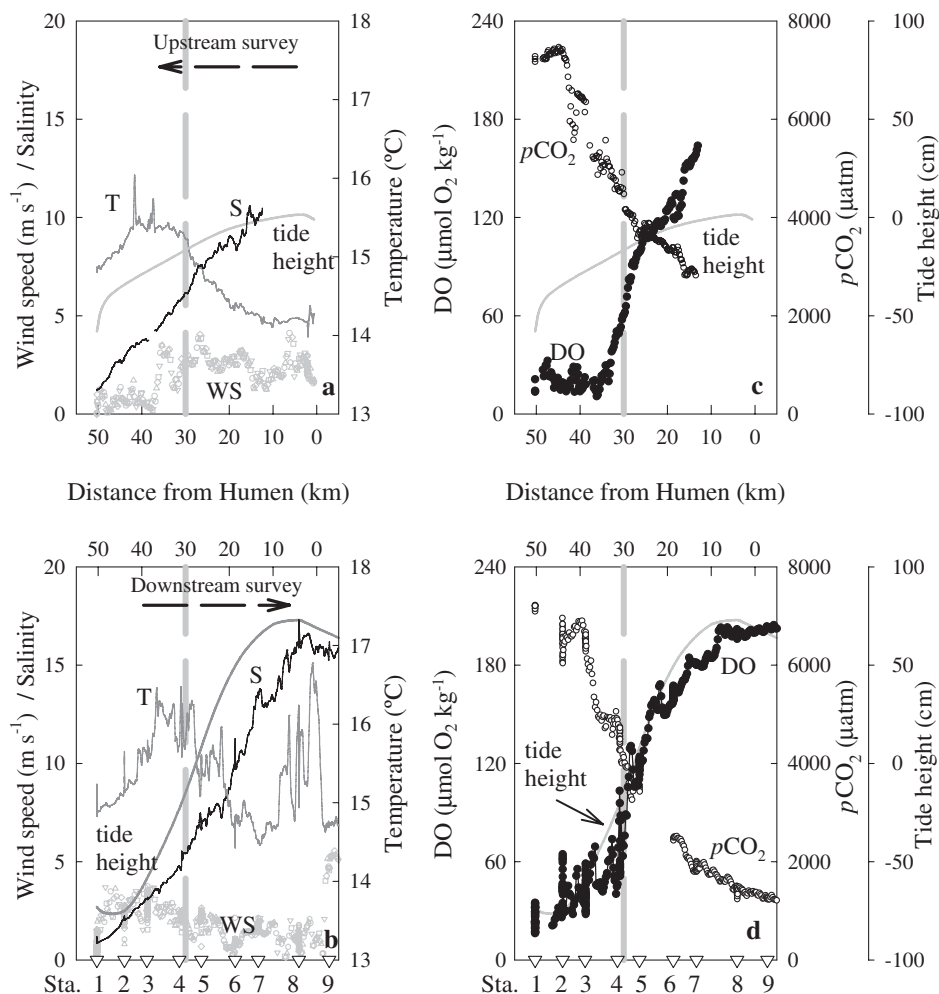


Fig. 2. Spatial distribution of surface temperature, salinity, DO,  $p\text{CO}_2$  and wind speed in the upper reach of the Pearl River estuary. (a) Surface temperature, salinity and wind speed during the upstream survey; (b) surface temperature, salinity and wind speed during the downstream survey; (c) surface DO and  $p\text{CO}_2$  during the upstream survey; (d) surface DO and  $p\text{CO}_2$  during the downstream survey. Tidal heights are based on tidal cycles at an upstream station ( $23^{\circ}06' \text{N}$ ,  $113^{\circ}28' \text{E}$ ) according to the China National Marine Data and Information Service (2004). Dashed vertical lines show  $\sim 30 \text{ km}$  upstream of Humen, where surface DO reached  $\sim 60 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  during both the upstream and downstream surveys.

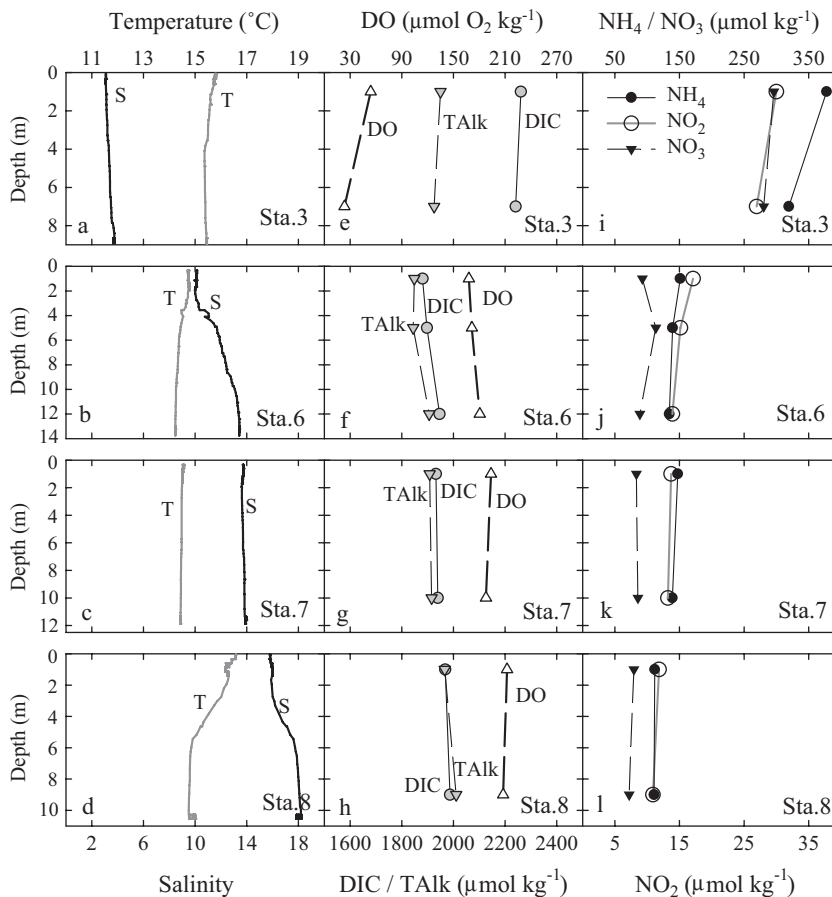


Fig. 3. Vertical profiles of temperature, salinity (a, b, c, d), DO, DIC, total alkalinity (e, f, g, h) and dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) species (i, j, k, l) at selected stations upstream of Humen.

Selected DO profiles (during a flood tide) are presented in Fig. 3. DO was overall well mixed from Sta. 6 down to Humen, suggesting DO depletion in the whole water column. However, at Sta. 3 (water depth  $\sim 9$  m), DO at 7 m was even lower than at the surface, reaching  $<30 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ . Similarly, bottom DO was  $\sim 15 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ , as compared with  $\sim 22 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  in the surface at Sta. 1 (water depth  $\sim 5$  m) based on a YSI cast.

DO depletion has been observed during our previous cruises for spring and summer at the upstream of the Humen Outlet of the Pearl River estuary (Zhai et al., 2005). Further summarized in Table 2 are DO concentrations of surface waters in the upper reach of the estuary during all the seasons. Further upstream of the channel in Guangzhou, Luo (2002) also documented persistent hypoxia caused by organic pollution and nitrification. Similarly, very low DO has been also reported elsewhere in a highly polluted European estuary (upper Scheldt estuary) (Frankignoulle et al., 1996;

Frankignoulle et al., 1998; Abril et al., 2000), where the low DO was attributed to the respiration of organic matter and the long residence time of freshwater in the estuarine region (Frankignoulle et al., 1996; Hellings et al., 2001).

### 3.3. Carbonate system

Not surprisingly and as observed previously (Zhai et al., 2005),  $p\text{CO}_2$  mirrored DO, changing from  $<2000 \mu\text{atm}$  at Humen up to a very high value near the most sub-oxic zone, reaching 7000–7460  $\mu\text{atm}$  ( $S < 3.3$ ) during the upstream survey (Fig. 2c). DIC and TAlk were distributed coherently and showed non-conservative behavior during the upper estuarine mixing (Fig. 4c). They sharply declined with salinity from 2740  $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  (DIC) and 2440  $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  (TAlk) at  $S \sim 1.2$  down to their minima (1900  $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  for DIC and 1720  $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  for TAlk) at  $S \sim 5$ –6. At  $S \sim 6$ –17, DIC and TAlk progressively increased with salinity. Calculated

Table 2  
Dissolved oxygen in the surface water of the Pearl River estuary

| Survey time | Location       | DO ( $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ) | Salinity | Reference                    |
|-------------|----------------|--|----------|------------------------------|
| Jul 2000    | Humen vicinity | 96–176                                     | 0.1–1.8  | Zhai et al. (2005)           |
| May 2001    | Humen vicinity | 31–190                                     | 0.1–0.6  | Zhai et al. (2005)           |
| Nov 2002    | Humen upstream | 15–62                                      | 0.16–0.3 | Dai et al., unpublished data |
| Feb 2004    | Humen upstream | 12–68                                      | 1.0–4.0  | This study                   |

lated carbonate alkalinity (CAlk) accounted for most of TAlk (Fig. 4c). At  $S \sim 1$ –10, the calculated  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  remained 5–10  $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 4c), which was much lower than the free  $\text{CO}_2$  of  $\sim 300 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 4b, c).

Surface pH increased with salinity and DO in the brackish waters ( $5 < S < 17$ ) (Fig. 4a, b). At  $S < 3$ , pH decreased with salinity and a minimum ( $\sim 6.98$ ) occurred at  $S \sim 3$ –5 (Fig. 4b).  $\text{CaCO}_3$  in surface water was undersaturated throughout the study area upstream to Humen (Fig. 4d). The lowest  $\text{CaCO}_3$  saturation degree (20–40%) was located within salinity  $\sim 4$ –6.

### 3.4. Inorganic nitrogen system

The concentrations of the three species of dissolved inorganic nitrogen in the surface waters especially in the low salinity region (Fig. 4), were much higher than reported for a flood season by Cai et al. (2004) or for large Chinese Rivers including the Pearl River (Zhang, 1996). The maximum concentration of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  was  $> 600 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  at  $S \sim 3$ –4 during our upstream survey (Fig. 4e). This magnitude of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  was two times higher than  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and an order of magnitude higher than  $\text{NO}_2^-$  at the low salinity zone. The domination of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  over other species of inorganic nitrogen was seen throughout the area under study. Overall, the concentrations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  declined with salinity while  $\text{NO}_3^-$  dramatically increased during the upper estuarine mixing at  $S \sim 1$ –3. The maximum of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is seen at the pH minimum (Fig. 4).

According to Guangzhou Environmental Monitoring Center, the average concentration of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in the Guangzhou reach of the Pearl River was  $\sim 540 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  in the first 5 months of 2004 (<http://www.gemc.gov.cn>). Such a high concentration of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  clearly indicates an increasingly serious and alarming environmental problem in the upper Pearl River estuary. High levels of inorganic nitrogen have been indeed observed in the hypoxic area of the polluted Scheldt Basin (Abril and Frankignoulle, 2001) and the Seine Basins (Garnier et al., 2001). For example,  $> 400 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $S \sim 1$ ) was documented in the upstream of the Scheldt estuary (De Bie et al., 2002).

### 3.5. Bulk oxygen consumption rate

Our incubation experiment showed, in the absence of light, that DO in the non-poisoned sample decreased remarkably and linearly when the incubation progressed, reaching 69  $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$  at the end of a 38-h experiment, while DO in the control (poisoned) remained constant at  $\sim 212 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$  throughout the incubation period (Fig. 5). The logarithm of DO in the incubated non-poisoned sample decreased linearly with time, indicating pronounced oxygen consumption via a pseudo first order reaction. The coefficient of the pseudo first order reaction was  $-0.030 \text{ h}^{-1}$  (Fig. 5). Therefore the in situ oxygen consumption rate at DO  $\sim 30 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  was  $\sim 22.5 \text{ mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$ .

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. DO consumption vs respiration

Aerobic respiration consumes dissolved oxygen and produces  $\text{CO}_2$ . As we have shown previously in Zhai et al. (2005), aerobic respiration may be a process dominating the organic matter degradation and DO consumption in the Pearl River estuary in spring and summer.

In the study area, at  $S \sim 1$ –10,  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  remained 5–10  $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ , which equals to 1.5–12% of the free  $\text{CO}_2$  (see Fig. 4b and c). Meanwhile, there does not seem to be non-carbonate alkaline matter (e.g. ammoniac alkalinity is negligible as compared with carbonate alkalinity although the ammonia is very high) at pH  $\sim 7$  to titrate the free  $\text{CO}_2$  in water. Therefore it is valid to directly link aqueous free  $\text{CO}_2$  with DO consumption using a stoichiometric approach as we did previously (Zhai et al., 2005).

Based on Fig. 6, the excess  $\text{CO}_2$  is linearly correlated with oxygen depletion at  $S \sim 4$ –10 with a  $\Delta\text{CO}_2$ : ( $-\Delta\text{O}_2$ ) ratio of 0.73. This is within the ranges of Redfield respiration (see Zhai et al., 2005), suggesting strong aerobic respiration domination. The departure from the Redfield respiration at  $S \sim 1$ –4 may thus imply additional  $\text{CO}_2$  production processes other than aerobic respiration.

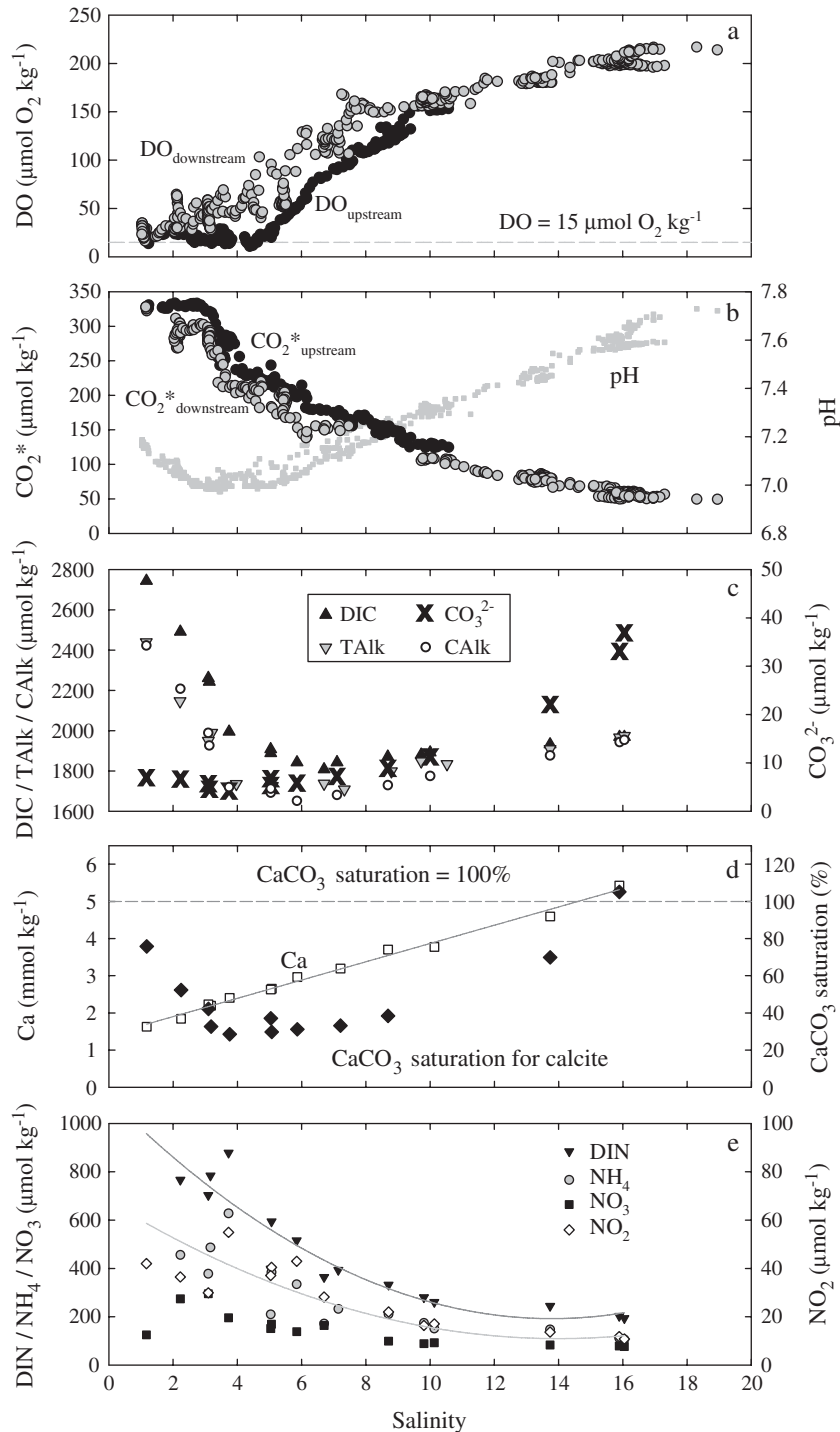


Fig. 4. Mixing processes of DO (a), carbonate system (b and c), calcium (d) and dissolved inorganic nitrogen species (e) in surface waters of the upper reach of the Pearl River estuary. The carbonate alkalinity (CALk) and  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  were computed based on combination of  $p\text{CO}_2$  and discrete DIC data. pH data shown here were also calibrated against pH computed based on combination of  $p\text{CO}_2$  and discrete DIC data. Dickson and Millero (1987) constants were used for the carbonate system calculation. The  $\text{CaCO}_3$  solubility was computed according to Mucci (1983). Dashed line in the panel (d) represents 100% saturation degree of  $\text{CaCO}_3$  (Calcite).



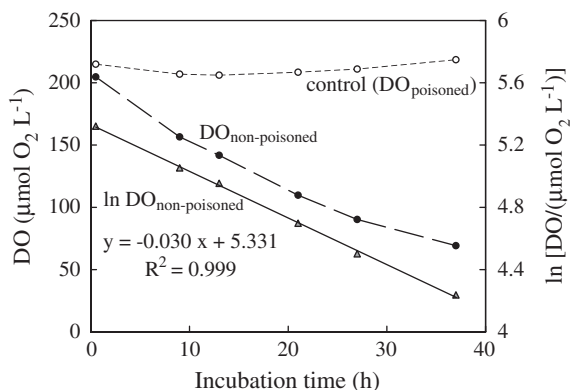


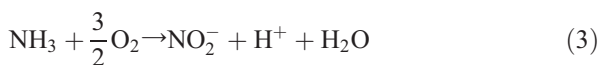
Fig. 5. DO evolution during a pelagic respiration/bulk oxygen consumption rate incubation. Initial sample was taken from Sta. 1.

The on-deck incubation gave a surprisingly high pseudo first order oxygen consuming reaction quotient as  $-0.030 \text{ h}^{-1}$  (Fig. 5), as compared with  $-0.012 \text{ h}^{-1}$  obtained in spring of 2001 (Zhai et al., unpublished data). According to Eq. (1), the pseudo first order reaction quotient is in direct proportion to the total concentration of oxygen consuming materials. This enhancement of bulk oxygen consumption observed in the present study thus may have an implication of additional processes over the aerobic respiration although we are aware that there may be significant difference in types of organic matter between the two seasons.

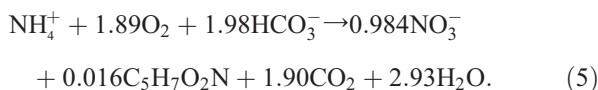
#### 4.2. Nitrification

Since  $\text{CaCO}_3$  was overall undersaturated in the area (Fig. 4d), calcification should be excluded as a major  $\text{CO}_2$  production process. Then nitrification should be considered as a potential major process that controls the development of the oxygen depletion and  $\text{CO}_2$  production.

Nitrification typically contains ammonia oxidation (Eq. (3)) and nitrite oxidation (Eq. (4)) (US EPA, 1993):



Coupling the two oxidation processes and assimilation reactions, the overall reaction describing the complete nitrification process should be (modified from US EPA, 1993):



Note that  $\text{C}_5\text{H}_7\text{O}_2\text{N}$  is the empirical cell stoichiometry for bacteria when phosphorus is excluded. Eq. (5) represents an oversimplification of the nitrification process and is only valid for an environment with neutral pH and abundant  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ , such as the area under study (see Results). Under these conditions, in addition to the consumption of DO and bicarbonate alkalinity, nitrification should produce  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and free  $\text{CO}_2$  along  $\Delta\text{NO}_3^- / (-\Delta\text{Alk})$  and  $\Delta\text{CO}_2 / (-\Delta\text{O}_2)$  ratios of 0.984/1.98 and 1.90/1.89, respectively, to the environment (Eq. (5)). This is seen at salinities between 1 and 4 with an approximate  $\Delta\text{CO}_2 / (-\Delta\text{O}_2)$  ratio of 1.0 (Fig. 6). Note that scattered data are also observable, overlapping the Redfield respiration ranges (Fig. 6), and thus the validation of the Redfield stoichiometry to diagnose nitrification needs further investigations.

More significantly, the curvature of the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  plot (concave downward in  $\text{NH}_4^+ - S$  plot) suggests  $\text{NH}_4^+$  removal during mixing, most likely via nitrification (Fig. 4e). This is particularly clear in the zone of  $S \sim 1-7$ . The nitrification mechanism is consistent with a local  $\text{NO}_3^-$  peak (Fig. 4e) and a pH minimum (Fig. 4b) within this salinity zone. High and nearly constant  $\text{NO}_2^-$  ( $30-50 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ ) in the upstream waters with  $S \sim 1-6$

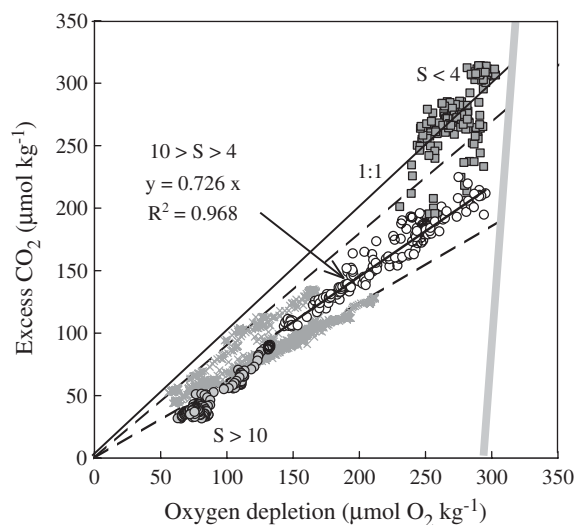


Fig. 6. Excess  $\text{CO}_2$  vs. surface oxygen depletion upstream Humen, on Feb 14, 2004. Note that excess  $\text{CO}_2 = \text{CO}_2^* - K_{\text{H}}^{\text{CO}_2} \times p\text{CO}_2$  (in air), and oxygen depletion =  $[\text{O}_2]_{\text{eq}} - [\text{O}_2]$ , where,  $[\text{CO}_2^*]$  is the concentration of total free  $\text{CO}_2$ , (i.e.,  $[\text{CO}_2^*] = [\text{CO}_2] + [\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3] = K_{\text{H}}^{\text{CO}_2} \times p\text{CO}_2$  in water);  $K_{\text{H}}^{\text{CO}_2}$  is the solubility coefficient of  $\text{CO}_2$ ;  $[\text{O}_2]$  is the DO concentration at equilibrium with the atmosphere,  $[\text{O}_2]$  is the in situ DO concentration. The two dashed lines show the upper limit (0.90) and the lower limit (0.62) for stoichiometric  $\Delta\text{CO}_2 : (-\Delta\text{O}_2)$  ratio of aerobic respiration in the environment with abundance of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  (See Zhai et al., 2005). Grey x symbols represent data from our previous spring and summer surveys at the vicinity of the Humen Outlet from Zhai et al. (2005).

(Fig. 4e) also lends evidence for active and approximately balanced nitrification between ammonia oxidation and nitrate production in the water column.

Moreover, the  $\text{NH}_4^+$ - $S$  plot (Fig. 4e) has a curvilinear regression of:  $\text{NH}_4^+ = 0.0065S^3 + 2.96S^2 - 85.15S + 681.94$  ( $R^2 = 0.81$ ). Therefore,  $d(\text{NH}_4^+)/dS = 0.018S^2 + 5.92S - 85.15$ . At  $S = 2-5$ , the dilution corrected  $\text{NH}_4^+$  change, i.e.,  $\Delta(S \times dC/dS)$  is  $-153 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ . Oxidation of this amount of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  requires  $289 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  based on Eq. (5) and results in a  $306 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  decrease in TAlk. Note that DO depletion at  $S < 5$  during our upstream survey was  $280-300 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ , which is consistent with the oxygen demand of the nitrification. At the same time, saturated DO upstream of Sta. 4 would be  $300-317 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ . Thus it is clear that most consumption was caused by  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidation.

Luo (2002) indeed reported very strong nitrification in a channel of the Pearl River flowing through Guangzhou based upon an incubation experiment which showed that BOD (biological oxygen demand) was significantly inhibited in samples with the addition of a nitrifying inhibitor. In a parallel investigation which was conducted 2 months after our cruise (April 2004) in the same region as the present study, Xu et al. (2005) also revealed a very high nitrification rate using sediment samples collected at a station 4–5 km upstream to our Sta. 1, suggesting very high DO demand during the ammonia oxidation processes.

Finally, in a recent cruise in Jan 2005 under a similar hydrological condition to the present study, we measured the water column nitrification rate at both a station within the Guangzhou section and a station close to Sta. 1, where high nitrification rates, measured via a nitrite evolution method, were  $4.8$  and  $5.8 \text{ mmol N m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$ , respectively, (Dai et al., unpublished data). Taken together, nitrification is indeed significant in the region under study, which substantially contributes to the  $\text{CO}_2$  production and DO consumption.

It is worth noting that nitrification is usually coupled with denitrification under low DO conditions whereby oxidation of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  generates a source of nitrate for denitrifying bacteria (e.g., Wang et al., 2003). The nitrification coupled with denitrification leads to losses of nitrogen to the atmosphere as nitrous oxide and/or nitrogen gas (Herbert, 1999). In our study area, the concave downward shape in the plot of DIN (sum of inorganic nitrogen species, Fig. 4e) against salinity suggests that denitrification also occurred. This is also supported by Xu et al. (2005) who obtained an extremely high concentration of nitrous oxide. Its saturation degree ranged from 674% to 4134%. However, denitri-

fication was not the focus of this study and thus will not be further discussed.

## 5. Concluding remarks

As early as in the 1990s,  $>400 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $S \sim 1$ ) was documented in the upstream of the Scheldt estuary (Frankignoulle et al., 1996; De Bie et al., 2002). The situation of the upstream Pearl River estuary under this study ( $>300 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  at  $S < 5$ ) is similar in many ways to the Scheldt estuary in the 1990s.

Our results are site specific and may be limited to a very dry season, but have much broader implications regarding environmental deterioration associated with sewage discharge. Our results have clearly demonstrated the linkage between the sewage discharge, organic degradation, nitrification and oxygen depletion. Garnier et al. (2001) have pointed out based upon their observations in the Seine River Estuary that summer oxygen depletion is a constant feature of the ecological functioning of the system and nitrification was a major controlling processes, probably typical of large river systems strongly impacted by domestic and industrial effluents, which lack the treatment through a nitrification step, as is still often the case in Europe. Such oxygen depletion is now also happening in Asia and many lessons can be learned from the environment deterioration evolution in Europe.

This study also demonstrated the close linkage between DO consumption and the carbonate system, i.e. a coupling between nitrogen and carbon cycling. Analysis based on the Redfield stoichiometry is a useful approach in attempting to diagnose the processes contributing to surface hypoxia.

## Acknowledgements

This research was supported by the Natural Science Foundation of China through grants #90211020, #40490260, #40228007 and #40406023, and by the Hi-Tech Research and Development Program of China (#2002AA635140). We thank Zhaozhang Chen for assistance with CTD data collection and processing, and Baoshan Chen for Ca measurements. Wuqi Ruan and Fan Zhang along with the crew of Yanping II provided much help during the sampling cruises. Reviews and/or comments from Rodney T. Powell and three anonymous reviewers greatly improved the quality of the paper.

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