Characterizing the origin of excess dissolved organic carbon in coastal seawater using stable carbon isotope and light absorption characteristics

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Abstract. In order to determine the origins of dissolved organic matter (DOM) occurring in coastal seawater of the Sihwa Lake, South Korea, which is semi-enclosed by a dyke, we measured the stable carbon isotopic ratio of dissolved organic carbon (DOC-δ¹³C) and optical properties (absorbance and fluorescence) of the DOM in two different seasons (March 2017 and September 2018). The concentrations of DOC were generally higher in lower-salinity waters in both periods, while a significant excess of DOC was observed in 2017 in the same salinity range. The main source of DOC, dependent on salinity, was found to be from marine sediments in the freshwater-seawater mixing zone rather than from terrestrial sources based on the DOC-δ¹³C values (−20.7±1.2‰) and good correlations among DOC, humic-like fluorescent DOM (FDOM₉₅), and NH₄⁺ concentrations. However, the excess DOC observed in 2017 seems to originate from terrestrial sources by direct land-seawater interactions rather than from in-situ biological production, considering the lower DOC-δ¹³C values (−27.8‰ to −22.6‰) and higher spectral slope ratio (S₉₅) of light absorbance, without increases in FDOM₉₅ and NH₄⁺ concentrations. This terrestrial DOM source could have been exposed to light and bacterial degradation for a long time, resulting in nonfluorescent and low-molecular-weight DOM, as this study area is surrounded by the reclaimed land. Our results suggest that the combination of these biogeochemical tools can be a powerful tracer of coastal DOM sources.

1 Introduction

Dissolved organic carbon (DOC), a major component of dissolved organic matter (DOM), is one of the most dominant reduced carbon compounds in the ocean (Benner et al., 1992; Raymond and Spencer, 2014). Understanding of sources and characteristics of DOC is important since it plays a significant role in coastal carbon dynamics and biogeochemical cycles (Vetter et al., 2007; Carson and Hansell, 2015). In the coastal oceans, DOM sources are diverse including (1) in-situ biological production (Carlson and Hansell, 2015), (2) terrestrial sources such as soils and plant matters (Opsahl and Benner, 1997; Bauer and Bianchi, 2011), and (3) anthropogenic sources including industrial and agricultural wastewater (Tedetti et al., 2010; Griffith and Raymond, 2011).
A part of DOM is known as colored dissolved organic matter (CDOM), which is the light-absorbing fraction of reduced organic matter (Coble, 2007; Kim and Kim, 2016; Kim and Kim, 2018). The major fraction of CDOM, which is fluorescent after absorbing energy, is referred to as fluorescent DOM (FDOM) (Coble, 2007; Kim and Kim, 2016). Rivers are known as the major source of the humic-like FDOM (FDOM\textsubscript{H}) in coastal oceans (Stedmon and Nelson, 2015; Kim and Kim, 2016), while aerobic microbial remineralization of sinking organic matter is the major source of FDOM\textsubscript{H} in deep oceans (Jørgensen et al., 2011; Catalá et al., 2015; Kim and Kim, 2016). Recently, the anaerobic process in the bottom sediment has also been suggested as an important source of FDOM\textsubscript{H} in coastal marine environment (Kim and Kim, 2018). On the other hand, Kim and Kim (2016) showed that the anaerobic production in the bottom sediments of the deep East Sea (Japan Sea) accounted for about 10% of the total production of FDOM\textsubscript{H} in the deep water column. In order to obtain such information on FDOM, an excitation-emission matrix (EEM) spectroscopy method combined with a parallel factor analysis (PARAFAC) model has been employed (Coble, 2007; Kim and Kim, 2016; Kim and Kim 2018). In addition, the absorption spectral slope ratio ($S_R$) can be used as an indicator of molecular weight, source, and photochemistry of DOM since the absorption spectra and spectral parameters for CDOM are largely dependent on its source and photochemical processes (Helms et al., 2008). In general, the $S_R$ values negatively correlate with DOM molecular weight and increase upon irradiation (Helms et al., 2008; Hansen et al., 2016).

The stable carbon isotopic composition of DOC (DOC-\textdelta^{13}C) has been used to differentiate terrestrial versus marine DOC (Gearing, 1988; Wang et al., 2004; Lee and Kim, 2018; Lee et al., 2020). In general, \textdelta^{13}C values of terrestrial sources such as C\textsubscript{3} and C\textsubscript{4} plants are in the range of $-23\%$ to $-34\%$ and $-9\%$ to $-17\%$, respectively, while those derived from marine phytoplankton are in the range of $-18\%$ to $-22\%$ (Gearing, 1998). Since \textdelta^{13}C values are likely to overlap within the isotopic ranges, it is hard to differentiate specific carbon source itself. Thus, many of studies used \textdelta^{13}C values combined with other parameters such as optical properties and DOC to dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) ratios to identify different sources of DOM in coastal environments (Lee and Kim, 2018; Han et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2020).

In this study, we used DOC-\textdelta^{13}C combined with FDOM and $S_R$ values to characterize different sources of DOM in Sihwa, Korea. This region is known for one of the most dynamic coastal settings in terms of salinity changes, hypoxia, metal pollution, and eutrophication (Kim et al., 2009; Ra et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2014; Kim and Kim, 2014; Lee et al., 2017; Kim and Kim, 2018).

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Study area and sampling

Sihwa (126.6 °E; 37.3 °N) is a reclaimed land with an area of 57 km\textsuperscript{2} and average depth of 3.2 m, located on the western coast of South Korea, which was used to build a tidal power plant (Lee et al., 2014) (Fig. 1). The total volume of the Sihwa...
Lake water is \(~3.3\times10^8\) m\(^3\) y\(^{-1}\) and the discharge rate is approximately \(~3.4\times10^8\) m\(^3\) y\(^{-1}\) (Lee et al., 2014). Sihwa Lake was originally planned to supply agricultural water during the 1980s and 1990s, creating a large artificial lake and agricultural reclaimed land with an area of 173 km\(^2\) (Bae et al., 2010). There are continuous inputs of anthropogenic pollutants from the surrounding industrial complexes (Lee et al., 2017). Freshwater runs through the six small streams into the Sihwa Lake and four waterways connect the lake to the Banwol industrial complex (Fig. 1). Since the lake experienced serious deterioration of water quality, the sluice gates were opened periodically for the water exchange between the lake and the Yellow Sea since 2012.

Water samples were collected in March 2017 and September 2018. The temperature and salinity were measured using a conductivity-temperature-depth (CTD) instrument (Ocean Seven 304, INDONAUT Srl) onboard a ship. In 2018, only surface water samples were collected at shallow stations (station number 1–6) since the water level of the reservoir was lower than in 2017, and the full depth sampling was conducted at stations 12–14. In 2017, sampling was conducted from several depths at all stations. In order to check the effect of industrial wastewater from the industrial complex, an additional sample was collected near the Banwol waterway (station B4) in 2018 (Fig. 1).

Water samples were filtered through a pre-combusted (450 °C for 5h) GF/F filter (pore size: 0.7 µm; Whatman). Samples for DOC and DOC-\(\delta^{13}C\) analyses were acidified with 6M of HCl to avoid any bacterial activities and stored in pre-combusted glass ampoules. Samples for FDOM analysis were stored in pre-combusted amber vials in a refrigerator at 4°C. Samples for total dissolved nitrogen (TDN) and dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) analyses were stored frozen in a polypropylene conical tube.

### 2.2 Chemical analyses

Inorganic and organic nutrients were measured with a nutrient auto-analyzer (QuAAtro39, SEAL analytical). The analytical uncertainties were \(<5\%\) for the reference materials for NO\(_X\) (KANTO, Japan). The dissolved oxygen (DO) was determined using the Winkler’s method (Carpenter, 1965). DOC concentration was measured using a high temperature catalytic oxidation (HTCO) method using a total organic carbon (TOC) analyzer (TOC-VCPH Shimadzu) (Kim and Kim, 2010; Han et al., 2020). Analysis was also conducted for a certified reference material of deep seawater (DSR; 41–45 µM DOC; University of Miami) (Hansell, 2005). The precision of measurement was \(\pm2.2\) µM based on multiple analyses. DOC-\(\delta^{13}C\) values were measured with an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS; Isoprime, Elementar) connected with a TOC analyzer (Vario TOC cube, Elementar) (Panetta et al., 2008; Troyer et al., 2010). Prior to the analysis, IAEA-CH\(_6\) sucrose (\(\delta^{13}C = –10.45\pm0.03\) ‰), Suwannee River Fulvic Acid (SRFA; \(\delta^{13}C = –27.6\pm0.12\) ‰; International Humic Substances Society) and DSR (\(\delta^{13}C = –21.5\pm0.1\) ‰; University of Miami) were also analyzed to evaluate the accuracy of the measurements (Panetta et al., 2008; Troyer et al., 2010; Han et al., 2020).
2.3 Optical measurements

Fluorescence and absorbance spectra of the samples were measured using a spectrophotometer (Aqualog, Horiba). For FDOM analyses, the emission and excitation wavelength ranges were set from 240 to 600 nm and from 250 to 500 nm, respectively, with 3 nm scanning intervals (Han et al., 2020). The PARAFAC analysis for the EEM data was performed using the Solo software. The Raman and Rayleigh scattering signals, inner-filter effect, and blank subtraction were corrected using the Solo software (Han et al., 2020). The PARAFAC results were validated by a split-half analysis and random initialization. The fluorescence intensities of FDOM were normalized with the Raman peak area of water and are presented in Raman Unit (RU) (Lawaetz and Stedmon, 2009).

The PARAFAC model characterized one marine humic-like, one protein-like, and two terrestrial humic-like fluorescent components (Fig. S1). The spectral characteristics of component 1 (FDOMH: Ex/Em = 342/427 nm) and component 3 (FDOMH2: Ex/Em = 381/493 nm) are known to be associated with the terrestrial humic-like component (Coble 2007). Component 2 (FDOMM: Ex/Em = 297/388 nm) is known to be associated with the marine humic-like component (Coble, 2007). Component 4 (FDOMP: Ex/Em = 282/322 nm) is characterized as a protein-like (tryptophan-like) component, which originates mainly from biological production (Coble, 2007).

UV-visible absorption spectra of the samples were measured with a scanning wavelength range of 240–700 nm. The optical indices and parameters of DOM used in this study were prepared as follows. The absorption coefficient was calculated using the following equation:

\[ a_\lambda = 2.303 A_\lambda / l \]

where \( a \) is the absorption coefficient (m\(^{-1}\)), \( A_\lambda \) is the absorbance, and \( l \) is the optical path length of the quartz cuvette (m).

The \( S_5 \) was calculated as the ratio of spectral slope of shorter wavelengths (\( S_{275-295} \)) to longer wavelengths (\( S_{350-400} \)) (Helms et al., 2008; Han et al., 2020). The spectral slope (\( S \)) was calculated using the following equation:

\[ a_\lambda = a_{\lambda ref} e^{-S(\lambda - \lambda_{ref})} \]

where \( a \) is the Napierian absorption coefficient (m\(^{-1}\)), \( \lambda \) is the wavelength, and \( \lambda_{ref} \) is the reference wavelength (Twardowski et al., 2004; Helms et al., 2008).

3 Results

In 2017, the vertical distribution of salinity indicated a well-mixed water column (salinity = 28–32) (Fig. 2). Similarly, DO and NH\(_4^+\) concentrations were vertically uniform (Fig. 2). The concentrations of DO and NH\(_4^+\) were in the ranges of 7–13 mg L\(^{-1}\) (average = 10.1±2.4 mg L\(^{-1}\)) and 0.1–25 µM (average = 8.7±8.1 µM), respectively, in 2017. The DO concentration gradually increased with increasing salinity from the innermost station to the outermost station (Fig. 2). In contrast, the NH\(_4^+\)
concentration decreased with increasing salinity (Fig. 2). The NH$_4^+$ concentration showed the lowest values (< 1 µM) from the station 10 to station 13 (Fig. 2).

In 2018, the vertical distribution of salinity gradually increased (salinity = 18–30) along the estuarine gradient (Fig. 2). Especially, low salinity waters (salinity = 18–27) were observed from the innermost station to the station 9 in 2018 (Fig. 2). The concentrations of DO and NH$_4^+$ were in the ranges of 6–11 mg L$^{-1}$ (average = 8.2±1.6 mg L$^{-1}$) and 0.4–2.5 µM (average = 1.3±0.9 µM), respectively, in 2018 (Fig. 2). The relatively low salinity and DO concentrations were likely associated with the increased freshwater input in 2018 (Fig. 2).

In 2017, the vertical distribution of DOC concentrations was quite different from those of salinity and DO concentrations (Fig. 2). The concentrations of DOC were in the range of 97–349 µM (average = 184±76 µM). The highest concentrations of DOC were observed in the surface waters at stations 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and the bottom waters of stations 3 and 5 (Fig. 2). The DOC-δ$^{13}$C values ranged from −19.2‰ to −27.8‰ (average = −21.8±1.9‰) in 2017 (Fig. 3). The most depleted DOC-δ$^{13}$C values were found at stations 5, 6, 7, 9, and 10 in the surface water (−24.6±2.1‰) (Fig. 3). The concentration of FDOM$_{HI}$ (terrestrial humic-like component) and FDOM$_{M}$ (marine humic-like component) were in the ranges of 1.6–4.1 RU (average = 2.3±0.8 RU) and 1.0–2.4 RU (average = 1.5±0.5 RU), respectively, in 2017 (Fig. 3). The concentrations of FDOM$_{HI}$ and FDOM$_{M}$ were generally higher in the upstream stations (Kim and Kim, 2018) (Fig. 3). The $S_R$ values, indicating DOM molecular weight, were in the range of 0.70–1.76 (average = 1.21±0.20). Higher $S_R$ values were observed in the surface waters at stations 6, 8, 9, and 10 in 2017 (Fig. 3).

In 2018, the concentrations of DOC were in the range of 101–195 µM (average = 130±32 µM). The DOC concentrations gradually decreased with increasing salinity in 2018 (Fig. 2). The DOC-δ$^{13}$C values ranged from −19.1‰ to −21.5‰ (average = −20.0±0.6‰) (Fig. 3). The concentrations of FDOM$_{HI}$ and FDOM$_{M}$ were in the ranges of 1.4–5.1 RU (average = 1.9±0.9 RU) and 1.4–4.9 RU (average = 2.1±0.9 RU), respectively (Fig. 3). Both FDOM$_{HI}$ and FDOM$_{M}$ concentrations were higher in 2018 than in 2017. The $S_R$ values were in the range of 0.72–1.08 (average = 0.87±0.10) (Fig. 3). The $S_R$ values were relatively constant at all sampling stations (Fig. 3).

4 Discussion

In 2017 and 2018 sampling periods, higher DOC in low-salinity was associated with lower DO, higher NH$_4^+$, and higher FDOM$_{HI}$ concentrations, indicating larger contribution of DOC either from terrestrial fresh water or by production in the estuarine mixing zone (Figs. 2 and 3). In addition, in 2017, there was significant excess of DOC concentrations were observed together with lower DOC-δ$^{13}$C values and higher $S_R$ values, although such excess anomalies were not observed in
2018, there was no significant excess was found (Figs. 2 and 3). This excess DOC could be produced either by in-situ biological production or supply of terrestrial sources by land-seawater interaction since salinity decreases were observed at these stations.

The DOC concentrations exhibited significant correlations against salinity in both periods with different slopes, while the FDOMH concentrations exhibited a good correlation with salinity with a single slope (Fig. 4). As such, DOC exhibited good correlations with NH₄⁺ concentrations in both periods with different slopes, while the FDOMH concentrations showed a good correlation with NH₄⁺ with a single slope (Fig. 5). These results suggest that the main sources of DOC and FDOMH in this region are associated with freshwater streams and NH₄⁺, with extra source inputs of DOC, which is not fluorescent, in 2017. In this study region, Kim and Kim (2018) hypothesized that FDOMH is produced by anaerobic decomposition of organic matter in bottom sediments in the freshwater-seawater mixing zone, based on good correlations among salinity, NH₄⁺, and FDOMH. However, this correlation cannot rule out the main sources of DOC and FDOMH.

The lower DOC slope in 2018 showed a conservative mixing pattern commonly observed in the estuarine mixing zone where terrestrial fresh DOC and marine DOC are mixed (Fig. 4a). However, the DOC-δ¹³C values ranged from -19.1‰ to -21.5‰ (average = -20.0±0.6%), falling within the range of marine phytoplankton (-18‰ to -22‰) (Gearing, 1988). There was no significant excess DOC at station B4 where the waterway connects to the Banwol industrial complex (Fig. 2), indicating that anthropogenic source is insignificant. Thus, this isotope trend, together with the correlations among salinity, DOC, NH₄⁺, and FDOMH in 2018, indicates that DOC is mainly from marine sediments by anaerobic bacterial production as suggested by Kim and Kim (2018).

The higher DOC in 2017 can be separated into two groups (Group 1 and Group 2) based on their sampling stations and DOC-δ¹³C values (Fig. 4). Group 1 (n=24) includes most of the samples (stations 2, 3, 4, 11, 12, and 13) with a wide range of salinities and DOC concentrations (Fig. 2). Group 2 (n=6) includes surface water samples in the stations 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 (Fig. 2). The DOC-δ¹³C values of Group 1 ranged from -19.2‰ to -23.4‰, which are close to the δ¹³C values of marine organisms (-18‰ to -22‰) (Gearing, 1988) (Fig. 3). However, the DOC-δ¹³C values of Group 2 ranged from -21.5‰ to -27.8‰, which are close to the δ¹³C values of terrestrial C₃ plants (-23‰ to -32‰) (Gearing, 1988), except for station 8 (-21.5‰) (Fig. 4b). Both FDOMH and FDOMM concentrations showed no significant excess in Group 2 (Fig. 3). This implies that the excess DOC of Group 2 may have been introduced from terrestrial sources, which is not fluorescent, through direct interaction between the artificial reclaimed land and seawater (Lee et al., 2020).

Then, we examined the light absorption characteristics of DOM in order to further determine the characteristic of DOM. In 2017, higher Sₑ values (1.37±0.3) were observed for the stations belonging to Group 2, while the Sₑ values of Group 1 (1.17±0.2) were lower than Group 2 (Fig. 3). In general, Sₑ values are negatively correlated to molecular weight of DOM.
and increase on irradiation (Helms et al., 2008). However, the $S_R$ values were relatively low and constant (0.86±0.1) through all stations in 2018 (Fig. 3). Such large variations in $S_R$ values are likely associated with the photodegradation and biological degradation (Moran et al., 2000; Helms et al., 2008). This Group 2 did not show any increases in FDOM$_H$ relative to NH$_4^+$ or salinity. Thus, the particularly higher $S_R$ values observed in Group 2 in 2017 are likely associated with the low molecular weight DOM (Helms et al., 2008), as terrestrial DOM (based on DOC-δ$^{13}$C values) went through intense light (producing non-fluorescent DOM) and bacterial degradation.

If only salinity and FDOM$_H$ were used to trace the source of the excess DOC occurring in Group 2, in-situ production of DOC by biological production can be simply regarded as a main source since there were no changes in these parameters. As such, the fresh, terrestrial source could be regarded as a main source of the excess DOC occurring in low-salinity waters since there were good correlations between salinities and DOC or FDOM$_H$. Therefore, our study suggests that the combination of carbon stable isotope, FDOM$_H$, and $S_R$ values is a critical tool to decipher the sources and characteristics of DOM in coastal waters where various DOM sources are present.

5 Conclusions

The different sources and distributions of DOM were determined in different seasons using various tracers in the Sihwa Lake, South Korea. The main source of DOC in 2018 was found to be produced by marine sediments based on DOC-δ$^{13}$C values (-21.5‰ to -19.1‰) and significant correlations among DOC, FDOM$_H$, and NH$_4^+$ concentrations. However, the main sources of excess DOC were separated into two groups in 2017. DOC in Group 1 was found to be produced by in-situ biological production based on DOC-δ$^{13}$C values (-19.1‰ to -23.4‰) and the relationship with NH$_4^+$ concentrations. The excess DOC in Group 2 seems to be produced in the reclaimed land since the samples showed depleted DOC-δ$^{13}$C values (-22.6‰ to -27.8‰) and higher $S_R$ values (1.37±0.3), without increases in FDOM$_H$ and NH$_4^+$ concentrations. Our results suggest that the combination of these DOM tracers can be successfully used in other coastal waters where the sources and characteristics of DOM are complicated.

Data availability. All data are available upon request to the corresponding author.

Author contributions. HH and GK were involved in planning the research. HH collected samples and performed the analyses. All authors were involved in analyzing the results and writing the paper.

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

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Figure 1: Map of sampling stations in Sihwa, South Korea.
Figure 2: Vertical distributions of salinity, DO, NH$_4^+$, and DOC concentrations in Sihwa in March 2017 and September 2018. The dashed blocks represent stations belonging to Group 2.
Figure 3: Vertical distributions of DOC-$\delta^{13}$C, FDOM$_H$, FDOM$_M$, and $S_R$ values in Sihwa in March 2017 and September 2018. The dashed blocks represent stations belonging to Group 2.
Figure 4: Plots of the salinity versus (a) DOC concentrations, (b) FDOM\textsubscript{H} concentrations, and (c) DOC-\(\delta^{13}\)C values in Sihwa in March 2017 (red) and September 2018 (blue). The dashed lines represent the regression lines and the closed circles (red) represent sample in Group 2.
Figure 5: Plots of the NH$_4^+$ concentrations versus (a) DOC concentrations and (b) FDOM$_{H}$ concentrations in March 2017 (red) and September 2018 (blue). The dashed lines represent the regression lines and the closed circles (red) represent sample in Group 2.