



1     **Human Activities Caused Hypoxia Expansion in a Large Eutrophic**  
2     **Estuary: Non-negligible Role of Riverine Suspended Sediments**

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4     Yue Nan<sup>1</sup>, Zheng Chen<sup>2</sup>, Bin Wang<sup>3</sup>, Bo Liang<sup>4</sup>, Jiatang Hu<sup>1,5,6\*</sup>

5  
6     <sup>1</sup> School of Environmental Science and Engineering, Sun Yat-Sen University,

7     Guangzhou, 510275, China

8     <sup>2</sup> Earth, Ocean and Atmospheric Sciences Thrust, The Hong Kong University of

9     Science and Technology (Guangzhou), Guangzhou, 511455, China

10    <sup>3</sup> Department of Oceanography, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada

11    <sup>4</sup> Eco-Environmental Monitoring and Research Center, Pearl River Valley and South

12    China Sea Ecology and Environment Administration, Ministry of Ecology and

13    Environment of the People's Republic of China, Guangzhou, 510611, China

14    <sup>5</sup> Guangdong Provincial Key Laboratory of Environmental Pollution Control and

15    Remediation Technology, Guangzhou, 510275, China

16    <sup>6</sup> Southern Marine Science and Engineering Guangdong Laboratory (Zhuhai), Zhuhai,

17    519000, China

18

19    **Correspondence: Jiatang Hu ([hujtang@mail.sysu.edu.cn](mailto:hujtang@mail.sysu.edu.cn))**

20



## 21 **Abstract**

22 Increase in riverine nutrient loads was generally recognized as the primary cause of  
23 coastal deoxygenation, whereas the role of other riverine factors, especially suspended  
24 sediments, has received less attention. This study aims to discern the impacts of  
25 anthropogenic alterations in various riverine inputs on the subsurface deoxygenation  
26 over the past three decades in a large river-dominated estuary, the Pearl River Estuary  
27 (PRE). By utilizing the physical-biogeochemical model, we reproduced the observed  
28 dissolved oxygen (DO) conditions off the PRE in the historical period (the 1990s with  
29 high-suspended sediments-DO and low-nutrient inputs) and the present period (the  
30 2010s with low-suspended sediments-DO and high-nutrient inputs). Due to the decadal  
31 changes in riverine inputs, the PRE has witnessed more extensive and persistent low-  
32 oxygen events during summer in the 2020s, with larger spatial extents of ~2926 km<sup>2</sup>  
33 for low oxygen (DO < 4 mg/L, increased by ~148% relative to the 1990s) and 617 km<sup>2</sup>  
34 for hypoxia (DO < 3 mg/L, by 192%) and longer duration (by ~15-35 days), evolving  
35 into three distinct hypoxic centers controlled by different factors. Model experiments  
36 suggested that the decreased riverine DO content (46%) has led to a low-oxygen  
37 expansion in the upper regions, accounting for 44% to the total increment. Meanwhile,  
38 the increased nutrient levels (100% in nitrogen and 225% in phosphorus) and the  
39 declined suspended sediment concentration (60%) have jointly promoted the primary  
40 production and bottom oxygen consumptions (dominated by sediment oxygen uptake),  
41 thus resulting in a substantial enlargement of low-oxygen area (104%) and hypoxic area  
42 (192%) in the lower reaches. Our results revealed a more critical role of the riverine  
43 suspended sediment decline in the exacerbation of eutrophication and deoxygenation  
44 off the PRE via improving light conditions to support higher local productivity, which  
45 could further amplify the effect combined with the growth in nutrients and confound  
46 the effectiveness of hypoxia mitigation under nutrient controls. Overall, in the context  
47 of global changes in riverine suspended sediments, it is imperative to reassess the  
48 contribution of riverine inputs to the coastal deoxygenation worldwide over the past

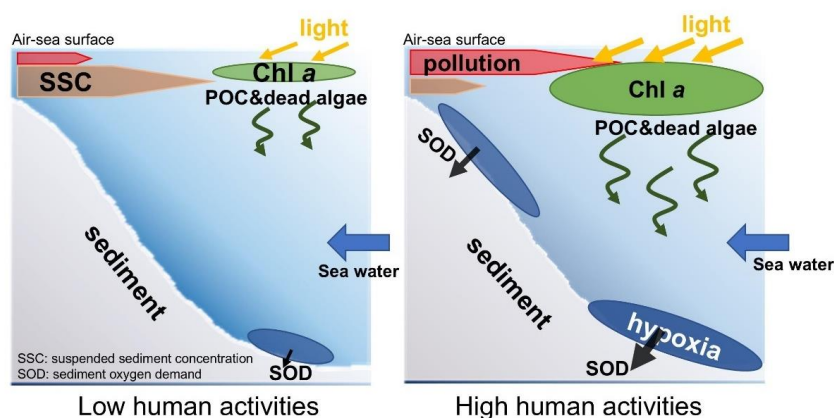


49 decades, given that the impact of suspended sediments has been constantly overlooked  
50 in relevant investigations.

51 **Key words:** Deoxygenation; suspended sediments; nutrient inputs; decadal changes;

52 Pearl River Estuary

### 53 Graphical Abstract



54  
55 DO process under low human activities (left) and high human activities (right). Note that  
56 pollution indicates DIN, DIP and low oxygen water from the discharge.

## 57 1. Introduction

58 Hypoxia emerges when dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration drops below 3 mg/L  
59 in aquatic systems. It is an undesirable phenomenon which can lead to a series of  
60 biological and ecological consequences, such as damaging the habitat for aquatic  
61 organisms and imposing detrimental effects on the ecosystem community structure  
62 (Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008; Roman et al., 2019). Due to the substantial impacts from  
63 human socioeconomic activities, coastal regions have become a hotspot for hypoxia  
64 (Breitburg et al., 2018; Pitcher et al., 2021). Moreover, long-term exacerbation of  
65 hypoxia with spatial expansion and increased intensity has been frequently reported in  
66 estuarine and coastal regions worldwide during the past decades, including the Baltic



67 Sea (Carstensen et al., 2014), the northern Gulf of Mexico (Bianchi et al., 2010),  
68 Chesapeake Bay (Murphy et al., 2011), the Yangtze River Estuary (Chen et al., 2017),  
69 and the Pearl River Estuary (Hu et al., 2021).

70 Plenty of studies were conducted to reveal the mechanism of hypoxia formation  
71 and evolution in coastal regions. It has been widely recognized that coastal  
72 deoxygenation is largely attributed to the eutrophication-driven production of organic  
73 matters (Su et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2016), which sink to the subsurface waters and  
74 bottom sediments, leading to intense oxygen depletion (Wang et al., 2014). This would  
75 induce hypoxia when the density stratification restricts DO replenishment from the  
76 surface waters (Wang et al., 2018). One important reason underlying eutrophication and  
77 hypoxia is the excessive nutrients that are discharged into the water column and  
78 stimulate phytoplankton blooms (Cullen, 2015; Wang et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2021).  
79 In addition, an improved light condition, e.g., due to the decreased suspended sediment  
80 loads, could also favor the enhancement of local production and hence hypoxia (Ge et  
81 al., 2020; Huang et al., 2022). The effects of nutrient and light conditions vary in coastal  
82 systems due to different hydrodynamic and topographic features, which makes the  
83 formulation of hypoxia mitigation strategies more challenging. Therefore, a  
84 quantitative assessment on the importance of these factors in generating hypoxia is  
85 crucial for understanding the primary drivers of hypoxia evolution and for proposing  
86 effective countermeasures.

87 A case in point is the Pearl River Estuary (PRE), which is situated in the northern  
88 South China Sea and close to the Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macao Great Bay Area (Fig.  
89 1a). Owing to the relatively large nutrient inputs and vertical stratification formed by  
90 freshwater plume, hypoxia typically occurs during summer in the bottom waters of the  
91 PRE. Before the 2000s, it was an episodic and small-scale issue because of the  
92 synergetic effect of shallow topography, high turbidity (Ma et al., 2022), and the  
93 intermittent stratification due to periodic disturbance by the tides. However, large-scale  
94 occurrences of low oxygen (when  $DO < 4$  mg/L) and hypoxia were frequently reported



95 in recent years. For example, it was estimated that the low-oxygen area within the PRE  
96 achieved 1000 km<sup>2</sup> and 1500 km<sup>2</sup> during summer in 2010 (Wen et al., 2020) and 2015  
97 (Li et al., 2018), respectively, which were nearly double to that before the 2000s (Li et  
98 al., 2020b). Hu et al. (2021) compiled historical observations over four decades to  
99 investigate the long-term deoxygenation trend and its spatial expansion in the PRE.  
100 They highlighted the significant contributions of increased nutrient and decreased  
101 sediment fluxes from the Pearl River to the exacerbation of low-oxygen conditions in  
102 the region. Besides, the low-oxygen inflows from the Pearl River could also contribute  
103 to the low-oxygen area in the upper estuary (Hu et al., 2021). Nevertheless, a  
104 quantitative understanding of their relative contributions to the low-oxygen expansion  
105 in the PRE is lacking, particularly in different subregions (Fig.1b) where the  
106 mechanisms controlling the low-oxygen conditions are different (Li et al., 2020a).

107 In this study, we use a coupled physical-biogeochemical model to investigate the  
108 decadal changes (the 1990s versus the 2010s) in summertime DO contents and related  
109 biogeochemical processes in the PRE and to quantify the relative contributions of the  
110 changing riverine inputs (including nutrients, suspended sediments, and oxygen content;  
111 Fig. 1c-f) to the long-term expansion of low oxygen (DO < 4 mg/L) and hypoxia (DO  
112 < 3 mg/L) in the region.

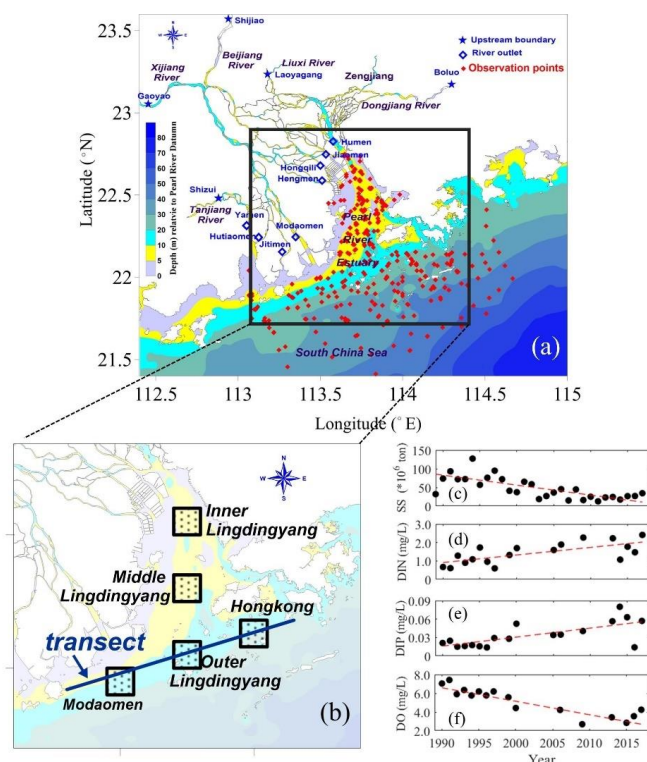
## 113 **2. Material and methods**

### 114 **2.1 Study area**

115 The PRE and its adjacent shelf waters (Fig. 1a) represent an estuarine system  
116 under intensive human activities. One major anthropogenic impact in the PRE is the  
117 terrestrial substances fed by the Pearl River, which is the third largest river in China  
118 with an average annual runoff of  $3.26 \times 10^8$  m<sup>3</sup> (Luo et al., 2002), through eight river  
119 outlets, including Humen, Jiaomen, Hongqili, Hengmen, Modaomen, Jitimen,  
120 Hutiaomen, and Yamen (Fig. 1a). The long-term DO and water quality data used here  
121 were collected from open sources (e.g. government websites) and published studies



122 (Table S1). Over the past few decades, the terrestrial inputs from the Pearl River has  
 123 experienced remarkable changes in oxygen content, sediment loads, and nutrients  
 124 including dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) and dissolved inorganic phosphorus (DIP)  
 125 (Fig. 1c-f). Consequently, the ecological environments of the PRE have changed  
 126 significantly.



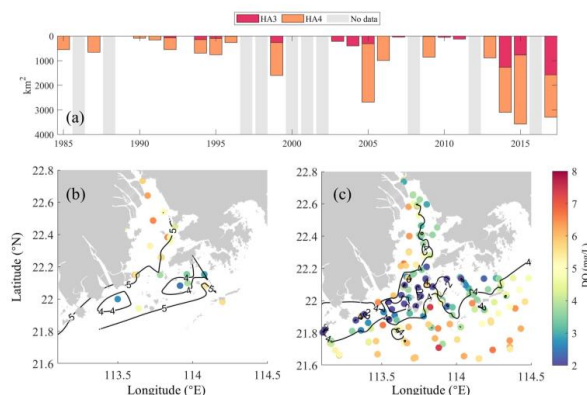
127  
 128 Fig. 1. (a) Study area of the PRE and sampling sites during 1985-2017; (b) five  
 129 subregions and a transect along the coastal transition zone used for analysis; (c) annual  
 130 loads of suspended sediments (SS) from the Pearl River; (d-f) the summertime  
 131 concentrations of nutrients (DIN, DIP) and dissolved oxygen (DO) in the river outlets  
 132 of the PRE.

133

134 In the 1990s, the PRE displayed a low level of eutrophication due to the weak  
 135 urbanization in the upstream regions and high turbidity because of the absence of large-  
 136 scale hydraulic facilities, e.g., dams, which could block the suspended sediments from  
 137 being transported into the estuary. Until the late 1990s, at least 8636 reservoirs were



138 established in the Pearl River basin, the vast majority of which were built after China's  
139 reform and opening up in 1980 (Wu et al., 2016). After the 2000s, with the acceleration  
140 of urbanization and construction of hydraulic facilities, the PRE has undergone a  
141 significant increase in nutrients and decline in sediment loads (Fig. 1c-e), both of which  
142 are favorable for phytoplankton blooms and therefore for eutrophication and hypoxia.  
143 These long-term variations of riverine substances have also been reported by Lai et al.  
144 (2022) and Hu et al. (2021). In the meantime, the oxygen content in the PRE has  
145 exhibited a notable drawdown with significant expansions in low-oxygen extents in  
146 recent summers (Fig. 2), which has been revealed by the cruise observations in the PRE  
147 (Li et al., 2021; Su et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2018).



148 Fig. 2. (a) Interannual variations of low-oxygen area (HA4, DO < 4 mg/L) and hypoxic  
149 area (HA3, DO < 3 mg/L) in the bottom waters of the PRE during summer estimated  
150 from the cruise observations (note that the grey patches represent the lack of data);  
151 spatial distributions of summer-averaged DO concentrations during (b) 1991-1996 and  
152 (c) 2013-2017.  
153

## 154 2.2 Model settings and validation

### 155 2.2.1 Model descriptions and settings

156 A 1D-3D coupled physical-biogeochemical model, which has been extensively  
157 verified and applied in the PRE (Wang et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2011;  
158 Zhang et al., 2022), was utilized here to reproduce the oxygen dynamics under the long-  
159 term changes in riverine nutrients, suspended sediment concentration (SSC), and



160 oxygen content (Fig. 1c-f). For the sake of conciseness in the main text, detailed  
161 descriptions on the physical and suspended sediment modules were provided in the  
162 Supplement (Text S1). Regarding the biogeochemical module, it is based on the Row-  
163 Column Aesop (RCA), which simulates interactive cycles of oxygen, carbon, nitrogen,  
164 phosphorus, and silicon in the water column (Fizpartick, 2004). As for the oxygen  
165 dynamics, it can be described as follows:

$$166 \frac{\partial DO}{\partial t} = -\left(u \frac{\partial DO}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial DO}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial DO}{\partial z}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(A_H \frac{\partial DO}{\partial x}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(A_H \frac{\partial DO}{\partial y}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(K_H \frac{\partial DO}{\partial z}\right) +$$

167  $Rea + Phot + WCR + SOD$  (1)

168 where  $DO$  represents the dissolved oxygen concentration (mg/L);  $-\left(u \frac{\partial DO}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial DO}{\partial y} +$   
169  $w \frac{\partial DO}{\partial z}\right)$  represents the horizontal and vertical advection of oxygen (mg O<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>);  
170  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(A_H \frac{\partial DO}{\partial x}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(A_H \frac{\partial DO}{\partial y}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(K_H \frac{\partial DO}{\partial z}\right)$  represents the horizontal and vertical  
171 diffusion of oxygen (mg O<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>);  $Rea$  and  $Phot$ ,  $WCR$ , and  $SOD$  represent the  
172 rates of air-water oxygen exchange, photosynthesis, water column respiration, and  
173 sediment oxygen demand, respectively (unit: mg O<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>). The  $SOD$  is calculated  
174 by the sediment flux module (SFM) coupled to the RCA. The sediment module  
175 simulates the sedimentation and remineralization of organic carbon, nitrogen, and  
176 phosphorus, and dynamically estimates the oxygen and nutrient fluxes across the  
177 sediment-water interface (Fizpartick, 2004).

178 The growth of phytoplankton is co-limited by temperature, light, and nutrient  
179 conditions. The calculation of gross primary production ( $GPP$ , mg C L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>) of  
180 phytoplankton in RCA (Fizpartick, 2004) is determined as:

$$181 GPP = G_{Pmax} * e^{-\beta(T_{opt}-T)^2} * G_N(N) * G_I(I) * P_c$$
 (2)

182 where  $G_{Pmax}$  is the maximum grow rate of phytoplankton at the optimum temperature  
183 (day<sup>-1</sup>);  $T_{opt}$  is the optimum temperature (°C);  $\beta$  is the shaping coefficients;  $T$  is the  
184 water temperature (°C);  $G_I(I)$  is the light limitation factor;  $G_N(N)$  is the nutrient  
185 limitation factor;  $P_c$  is the phytoplankton biomass (mg C L<sup>-1</sup>).

186 The nutrient limitation factor is parameterized as:





$$187 \quad G_N(N) = \text{Min} \left( \frac{DIN}{K_{mN} + DIN}, \frac{DIP}{K_{mP} + DIP}, \frac{Si}{K_{mSi} + Si} \right) \quad (3)$$

188 where  $DIN$ ,  $DIP$ , and  $Si$  represent the concentration ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ) of dissolve inorganic  
189 nitrogen (including  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ), dissolve inorganic phosphorus ( $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ ), and  
190 dissolve inorganic silicon ( $\text{SiO}_3^{2-}$ ), respectively;  $K_{mN}$ ,  $K_{mP}$ , and  $K_{mSi}$  represent the  
191 half-saturation constants ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ) for  $DIN$ ,  $DIP$ , and  $Si$ , respectively. It should be noted  
192 that a higher nutrient limitation factor  $G_N(N)$  indicates a weaker nutrient limitation  
193 effect on phytoplankton growth (Fizpartick, 2004). Moreover, the nitrogen and  
194 phosphorus limitation are more significant than silicon limitation within the PRE, thus  
195 this study mainly focuses on the former.

196 The light limitation factor  $G_I(I)$  is parameterized as:

$$197 \quad G_I(I) = \frac{e}{k_e H} \left[ \exp \left( \frac{-I_0(t)}{I_s} e^{-k_e H} \right) - \exp \frac{-I_0(t)}{I_s} \right] \quad (4)$$

$$198 \quad k_e = k_{e\text{base}} + k_c * a_{cchl} * P_c + k_{sed} * SSC \quad (5)$$

$$199 \quad I_0 = I_{surf} * e^{-k_e * H} \quad (6)$$

200 where  $H$  is the depth of water column (m);  $I_0$  is the incident light intensity at the  
201 segment surface ( $\text{ly day}^{-1}$ );  $I_s$  is the saturating light intensity ( $\text{ly day}^{-1}$ );  $k_e$  is the light  
202 extinction coefficient ( $\text{m}^{-1}$ );  $k_{e\text{base}}$  is the background light extinction coefficient of  
203 water ( $\text{m}^{-1}$ );  $k_c$  is the phytoplankton-related extinction coefficient ( $\text{m}^2 \text{mg}^{-1} \text{Chla}$ );  $a_{cchl}$   
204 is the ratio of chlorophyll to phytoplankton carbon biomass;  $k_{sed}$  is the SSC-related  
205 extinction coefficient ( $\text{m}^2 \text{mg}^{-1} \text{SSC}$ );  $I_{surf}$  is the instant light radiation received at the  
206 water surface ( $\text{ly day}^{-1}$ ) (Fizpartick, 2004; Zhang and Li, 2010).

207 To estimate the spatial characteristics of light conditions, we also calculated the  
208 eutrophic depth in the PRE, which is defined as the water depth reached by 1% of the  
209 surface light intensity ( $I_0$ ). Basically, a larger eutrophic depth indicates a better light  
210 condition for phytoplankton growth.

## 211 2.2.2 Model validation

212 The coupled physical-biogeochemical model mentioned above has already been  
213 validated against a variety of observations for several periods, which showed good



214 performance in reproducing the physical conditions, suspended sediment dynamics,  
215 and biogeochemical cycles in the PRE. We briefly summarized the validation results  
216 here. For the physical and suspended sediment modules, Hu and Li (2009) has applied  
217 the 1D-3D coupled model to establish 30-day realistic simulations for July 1999 and  
218 February 2001. The simulated water levels, discharges, salinity, and SSC agreed well  
219 with the observations in the Pearl River network and the PRE for both periods, with  
220 correlation coefficients all greater than 0.65 in summer. The simulated SSC at the  
221 surface was also compared to satellite remote sensing data, which showed a fairly close  
222 spatial pattern and comparable concentration magnitude. Furthermore, Wang et al.  
223 (2017) provided an extensive model validation using field data collected from four  
224 seasonal cruises in 2006, with high correlations for water levels ( $> 0.95$ ), salinity ( $>$   
225  $0.90$ ) and temperature ( $> 0.80$ ) and low root-mean-standard-errors between the  
226 simulation and observations in summer.

227 Then, the biogeochemical module was established and used to explore the nutrient  
228 and oxygen dynamics off the PRE in July 1999 and January-December 2006 (Hu and  
229 Li, 2009; Wang et al., 2017). The point-to-point comparisons with the water quality  
230 profiles indicated that the biogeochemical module was robust to reproduce the spatial  
231 distributions of ammonia, nitrate, phosphorus, oxygen, and chlorophyll *a* in the PRE.  
232 In addition, Wang et al. (2017) has compared the simulated oxygen kinetic terms  
233 (including the air-sea re-aeration rate, water-column respiration and production rates,  
234 and sediment oxygen demand) with observations in summer, which demonstrated the  
235 model's capability in representing the important oxygen source-sink processes (e.g.,  
236 oxygen consumptions across the sediment-water interface) in the PRE. Detailed model  
237 settings and parameters can be found in Wang et al. (2017).

### 238 **2.3 Model experiments**

239 Based on the well-validated model run in 2006 (Wang et al., 2017), the present  
240 study performed diagnostic simulations for two representative periods, characterized



241 by low nutrients and high suspended sediments and oxygen content during 1991-1996  
242 (referring as to the “1990s case”; Table 1) versus high nutrients and low suspended  
243 sediments and oxygen content during 2013-2017 (referring as to the “2010s case”).  
244 Each case was run from 1 January to 31 August, driven by climatological physical  
245 conditions (freshwater discharges and wind speeds) averaged over 1990-2017 and by  
246 mean observed values of riverine water quality components in the corresponding period.  
247 Specifically in summertime (a period used for formal analysis here), the riverine  
248 concentrations were set to 1.0 mg/L (DIN), 0.02 mg/L (DIP), and 6.5 mg/L (DO) in the  
249 1990s case, while they were set to 2.0 mg/L, 0.065 mg/L, and 3.5 mg/L in the 2010s  
250 case (Table 1). The riverine SSC was specified at 40 mg/L in the 2010s according to the  
251 in-situ observation near the Humen outlet in 2015 summer (Chen et al., 2020), and was  
252 set to 100 mg/L in the 1990s based on the ratio of the sediment loads between the 1990s  
253 and the 2010s (2.5 times). Furthermore, three additional model scenario simulations  
254 were conducted in order to disentangle the individual impact of each varying riverine  
255 input on the summer deoxygenation off the PRE. The setting of each scenario was  
256 identical to that of the 1990s case except that the riverine nutrients, SSC, and DO were  
257 separately replaced by the representative value in the 2010s (referring as to the “High-  
258 nutrient case”, “Low-SSC case”, and “DO-restore case”, respectively; Table 1).

259

260

**Table 1. Riverine inputs (in unit of mg L<sup>-1</sup>) for model experiments.**

Cases	DIN	DIP	DO	SSC
1990s	1.0	0.020	6.5	100
2010s	2.0	0.065	3.5	40
High-nutrient	2.0	0.065	6.5	100
Low-SSC	1.0	0.020	6.5	40
DO-restore	2.0	0.065	6.5	40

261 **3. Results**



262       **3.1 Responses of eutrophication to human-induced changes in**  
263 **the PRE**

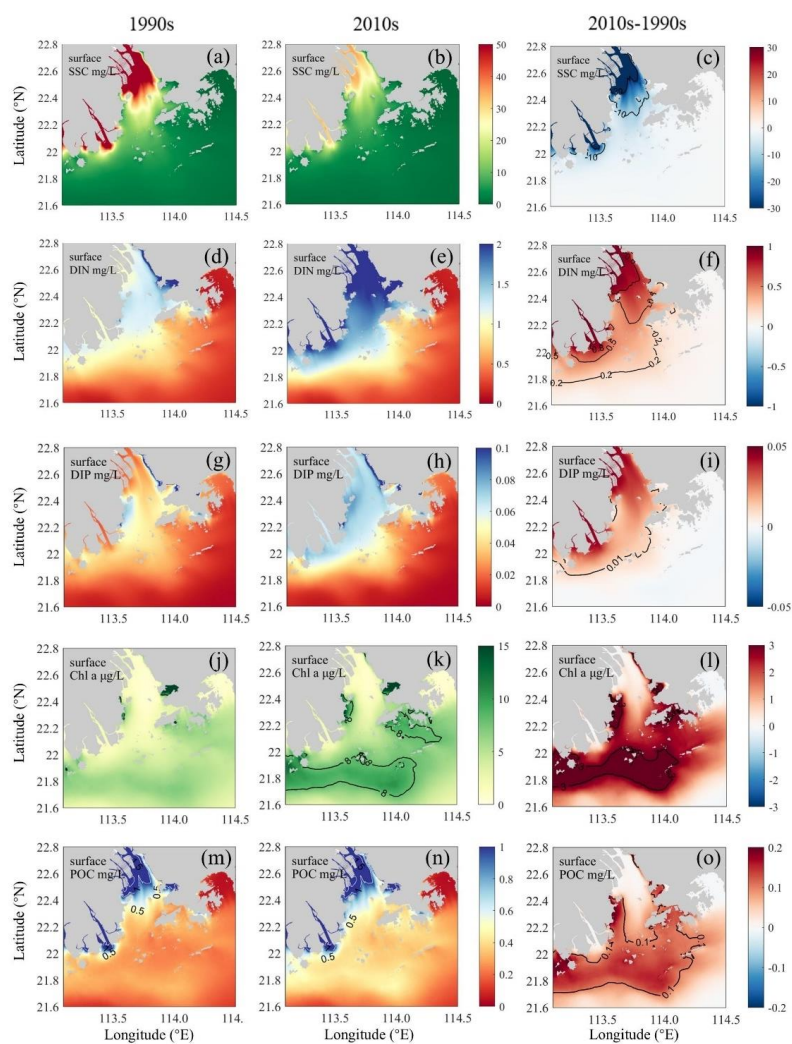
264       **3.1.1 Long-term variations in water quality distributions**

265       To examine changes in eutrophication (a key process affecting DO dynamics) and  
266 its influential factors during summer in the PRE, we compared the simulated  
267 distributions of SSC, nutrients, Chl *a*, and POC in the surface waters between the 1990s  
268 and the 2010s cases (Fig. 3) as well as their vertical integrations in subregions (Table  
269 2). Model results showed that the surface SSC within the PRE largely declined during  
270 the two periods. In the 1990s, SSC maintained at a high level in the inner Lingdingyang  
271 Bay (see its location in Fig. 1b), ranging from 70.0 to 100.0 mg/L (Fig. 3a). Due to the  
272 consecutive sinking along with water transport, SSC dropped to ~10.0 mg/L in the  
273 lower reaches of the PRE. While in the 2010s, the riverine sediment loads have  
274 remarkably decreased, resulting in a corresponding drawdown in SSC downstream (Fig.  
275 3b-c). Overall, the vertically-integrated SSC content in the inner Lingdingyang Bay and  
276 lower PRE dropped by 56.1% and 45.6%-47.3% to 244.5 mg/m<sup>2</sup> and 38.4-69.2 mg/m<sup>2</sup>,  
277 respectively (Table 2).

278       In terms of nutrients, the variation induced by riverine inputs was also evident  
279 during the two periods, acting on the main estuary in association with the spreading of  
280 the river plume. As shown, the DIN content in the 1990s was mostly below 1.5 mg/L  
281 within the entire PRE (Fig. 3d). With respect to the 2010s, the DIN concentration has  
282 increased by 0.8 mg/L and 0.2 mg/L in the surface waters of the upper Lingdingyang  
283 Bay and the lower PRE, respectively (Fig. 3e-f). The vertically-integrated DIN mass  
284 has increased by 41.9%-102% in the PRE (Table 2). A similar situation occurred with  
285 respect to DIP, with its content increasing from 0.04 mg/L in the 1990s to 0.07 mg/L in  
286 the 2010s in the high-DIP area adjacent to the middle Lingdingyang Bay (Fig. 3g-i). In  
287 terms of vertical integration, DIP increased by 9%-108%, with the lowest increases  
288 located in the Hong Kong waters downstream of the estuary (Table 2).



289



290

291 Fig. 3. Simulated distributions of (a-c) SSC, (d-f) DIN, (g-i) DIP, (j-l) Chl *a*, and  
 292 POC concentrations in the surface waters of the PRE for the 1990s (left panels) and the  
 293 2010s (middle panels) as well as their differences (right panels).  
 294



295  
296

**Table 2. Vertical integrations of DIN, DIP, SSC, Chl  $\alpha$ , and POC contents; nutrient limitation index and euphotic depth; and DO concentrations, low-oxygen frequency (HF4), hypoxia frequency (HF3), and oxygen consumption rates in the bottom waters for subregions of the PRE (see locations in Fig. 1b) during the 1990s and the 2010s.**

Subregions	Inner		Middle		Modaomen sub-estuary		Outer		Hong Kong waters	
	Lingdingyang Bay	Lingdingyang Bay	Lingdingyang Bay	Lingdingyang Bay	sub-estuary	sub-estuary	Lingdingyang Bay	Lingdingyang Bay	1990s	2010s
Cases	1990s	2010s	1990s	2010s	1990s	2010s	1990s	2010s	1990s	2010s
DIN ( $\text{mg m}^{-2}$ )	6.58	12.24	5.42	9.20	4.89	7.62	5.17	7.92	3.62	5.14
DIP ( $\text{mg m}^{-2}$ )	0.23	0.48	0.34	0.48	0.55	0.71	0.56	0.66	0.51	0.56
Nutrient limitation index	0.94	0.97	0.95	0.97	0.92	0.94	0.91	0.93	0.83	0.85
SSC ( $\text{mg m}^{-2}$ )	556.5	244.5	332.9	164.6	120.4	63.4	127.7	69.2	70.6	38.4
Euphotic depth (m)	-1.3	-2.3	-2.0	-4.2	-9.5	-11.2	-11.8	-15.2	-20.7	-21.0
Chl $\alpha$ ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-2}$ )	5.0	7.1	11.7	22.9	39.4	70.4	40.7	72.9	74.3	108.9
POC ( $\text{mg m}^{-2}$ )	8.6	8.64	4.8	5.31	4.82	6.39	5.33	6.85	6.21	7.91
Bottom DO ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ )	4.55	3.52	4.31	3.90	3.50	2.84	4.96	4.12	4.36	3.52
HF4	25.0%	79.7%	26.8%	65.2%	84.5%	99.1%	4.5%	49.3%	20.5%	61.1%
HF3	6.5%	27.6%	4.8%	10.1%	25.2%	56.5%	3.5%	9.1%	4.8%	21.4%
WCR ( $\text{mg O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ )	-0.38	-0.45	-0.20	-0.25	-0.09	-0.11	-0.07	-0.09	-0.06	-0.07
SOD ( $\text{mg O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ )	-1.72	-1.62	-0.89	-0.89	-0.24	-0.46	-0.28	-1.12	-0.91	-1.48

Note: HF4 (frequency of  $\text{DO} < 4 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ); HF3 (frequency of  $\text{DO} < 3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ).



297 In response to changes in light (affected by the SSC content) and nutrient  
298 conditions, phytoplankton biomass has substantially grown in the 2010s, indicated by  
299 the increased Chl *a* concentration. In the 1990s, the phytoplankton biomass was at a  
300 low level, with the Chl *a* generally below 8.0  $\mu\text{g/L}$  in the surface waters (Fig. 3j). As  
301 for the 2010s, significant phytoplankton blooms were found along the Modaomen sub-  
302 estuary, outer Lingdingyang Bay, and Hong Kong waters (Fig. 3k-l), with the vertically-  
303 integrated Chl *a* content rising by 31.0  $\mu\text{g/m}^2$  (by 78.7% compared to the 1990s), 32.2  
304  $\mu\text{g/m}^2$  (79.1%), and 34.6  $\mu\text{g/m}^2$  (46.6%), respectively (Table 2). As a result of the  
305 elevated primary production, a great amount of organic matter was produced in the PRE.  
306 Spatially coupled to the growth of Chl *a* (Fig. 3l), the POC content has significantly  
307 increased in the 2010s, especially in the lower PRE (Fig. 3m-o), with the vertically-  
308 integrated concentration increasing by 1.5-2.0  $\text{mg/m}^2$  (by 27.4%-32.6% compared to  
309 the 1990s) over the water column (Table 2).

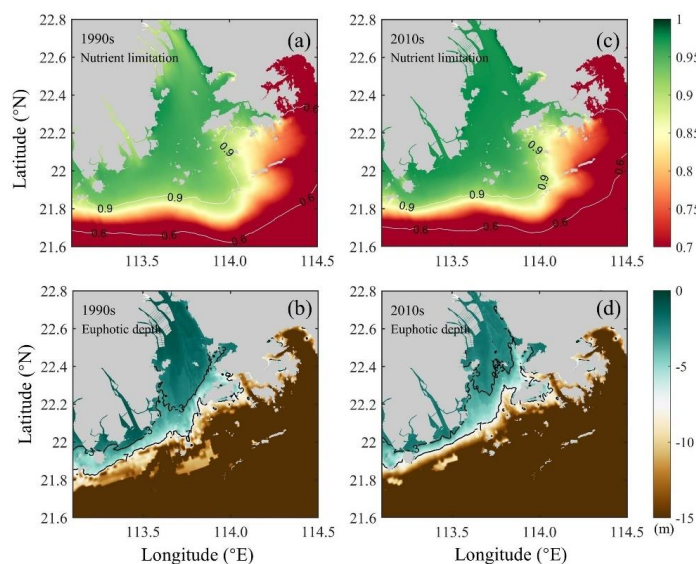
### 310 **3.1.2 Long-term variations in nutrient and light limitations**

311 The primary production in the PRE was controlled by the synergistic effects of  
312 nutrient and light conditions. We calculated the nutrient limitation factor and the  
313 eutrophic depth to quantify the intensity of nutrient limitation and light limitation on  
314 algae growth. It should be noted that a smaller nutrient limitation index and a shallower  
315 eutrophic depth represent a stronger nutrient limitation and a stronger light limitation,  
316 respectively. Results showed that the nutrient limitation exhibited a distinct estuary-  
317 shelf gradient, in which the Hong Kong waters experienced more severe nutrient  
318 limitation than the Modaomen sub-estuary and Lingdingyang Bay (Fig. 4a, c).  
319 Specifically, the nutrient limitation index decreased from the upper estuary (0.94) to the  
320 Hong Kong waters (0.83) in the 1990s. By contrast, the light limitation has attenuated  
321 along the river plume transport, largely ascribed to the decreased SSC (Fig. 3a-b).  
322 Compared to the Hong Kong waters, the regions adjacent to river outlets underwent  
323 more severe light limitation, shown by the eutrophic depth (Fig. 4b) increasing from  
324 the Lingdingyang Bay (1.3 m) and Modaomen sub-estuary (9.5 m) to the Hong Kong



325 waters (20.7 m).

326



327

328 Fig. 4. Simulated distributions of (a, c) nutrient limitation index for the growth of  
329 phytoplankton and (b, d) euphotic depth (in unit of m) in the 1990s and the 2010s.

330

331 Due to the growth in nutrient loads, nutrient limitation has relieved in the 2010s.  
332 For instance, the nutrient limitation index in the Hong Kong waters has increased to  
333 0.85 (by 2.4% of the 1990s) in the 2010s (Table 2). In comparison, the relief of light  
334 limitation was more evident with the reduced riverine suspended sediments. The  
335 deepening of the euphotic depth in the Lingdingyang Bay was significantly greater than  
336 that in the lower estuary (Fig. 4b, d). In the inner Lingdingyang and middle  
337 Lingdingyang Bays, the euphotic depth increased by 1 m and 2.2 m (by 76.9% and  
338 110.0% relative to the 1990s, Table 2), respectively. The alterations in light conditions  
339 in the remaining area were relatively minor, with the euphotic depth increasing to 11.2  
340 m (by 17.9%) in the Modaomen sub-estuary and to 21 m (by 1.4%) in the Hong Kong  
341 waters during the 2010s (Table 2).

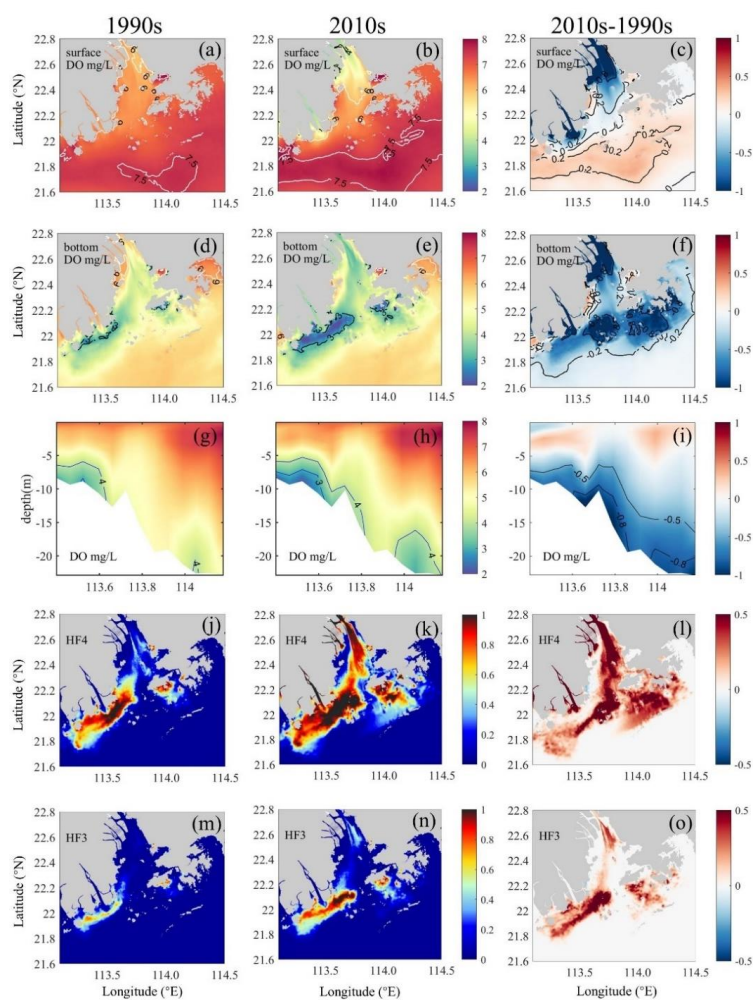




342 **3.2 Responses of DO dynamics to human-induced changes in**

343 **the PRE**

344 **3.2.1 Variations in DO distributions and hypoxia occurrences**



345

346 Fig. 5. (a-c) Surface DO and (d-f) bottom DO distributions, (g-i) vertical DO  
 347 distributions along the transect (see its location in Fig. 1b), and (j-l) low-oxygen  
 348 frequency (HF4, DO < 4 mg/L) and (m-o) hypoxia frequency (HF3, DO < 3 mg/L) in  
 349 the bottom waters of the PRE for the 1990s (left panels) and the 2010s (middle panels)  
 350 as well as their differences (right panels).



351 Our model results demonstrated significant changes in the spatial pattern of  
352 summertime DO and hypoxia incidences from the past to the present (Fig. 5). The  
353 surface DO concentration in the 1990s was generally higher than 6 mg/L and exhibited  
354 an increasing trend towards the shelf regions (Fig. 5a). While in the 2010s, the surface  
355 DO has undergone an evident increase by 0.2-0.3 mg/L (Fig. 5b-c), with an oxygen-  
356 enriched zone in the lower PRE, which was closely coupled to the surface high Chl *a*  
357 value (Fig. 3k). However, low-oxygen events (DO < 4 mg/L) have appeared in the  
358 surface waters adjacent to the river outlets in the 2010s (Fig. 5b) due to the low DO  
359 influx from the Pearl River along with the freshwater discharge.

360 In the bottom waters, the observed shift from small-scale hypoxia in the 1990s to  
361 extensive hypoxia in the 2010s (Fig. 2b-c) was well reproduced by our model (Fig. 5d-  
362 e). In the 1990s, the low-oxygen events were primarily concentrated along the western  
363 side of the PRE (i.e. the Modaomen sub-estuary and adjacent waters; Fig. 5d). The  
364 simulated low-oxygen area (HA4) and hypoxic area (HA3) were approximately 1179.7  
365 km<sup>2</sup> and 211.3 km<sup>2</sup> (Table 3), respectively, which is consistent with the observational  
366 estimates of  $802 \pm 437$  (mean  $\pm$  standard deviation) and  $131 \pm 84$  km<sup>2</sup> during the  
367 summers of 1994-1999 (Fig. 2a). The low-oxygen conditions have considerably  
368 worsened over the estuary in the 2010s (Fig. 5e-f), especially evident in the inner  
369 Lingdingyang Bay, outer Lingdingyang Bay, and Hong Kong waters. The bottom DO  
370 levels have dropped to 2.8-4.1 mg/L on average in the five subregions (Table 2).  
371 Simultaneously, the simulated low-oxygen area (HA4) has increased to  $\sim 1.5$  times  
372 larger than that in the 1990s, reaching 2925.5 km<sup>2</sup> (Table 3). The enlarged low-oxygen  
373 coverage in our model is consistent with the observational estimates of  $2715 \pm 1068$   
374 km<sup>2</sup> during 2013-2017 (Fig. 2a). Besides, the simulated hypoxic area (HA3) has  
375 approximately increased by twofold and reached 617.2 km<sup>2</sup> in the 2020s, which is also  
376 comparable to the observational estimates of  $901 \pm 591$  km<sup>2</sup> during 2013-2017.  
377



378

379 **Table 3. Simulated low-oxygen (HA4, DO < 4 mg/L) and hypoxic (HA3, DO < 3**  
 380 **mg/L) areas in the bottom waters of the PRE and their changes relative to the**  
 381 **1990s.**

Cases	HA4 (km <sup>2</sup> )	Percentage of change	HA3 (km <sup>2</sup> )	Percentage of change
1990s	1179.7	/	211.3	/
2010s	2925.5	+148%	617.2	+192%
High-nutrient	1542.6	+31%	282.5	+34%
Low-SSC	1737.0	+47%	412.4	+95%
DO-restore	2409.7	+104%	617.2	+192%

382

383 In addition, the two observed hypoxic centers along the coastal transition zone (i.e.,  
 384 the Modaomen sub-estuary and Hong Kong waters; Fig. 2b-c) were also successfully  
 385 reproduced by our model, showing heterogeneous deoxygenation features in terms of  
 386 spatial extents and duration (Fig. 5g-o). In the 1990s, the low-oxygen conditions in  
 387 these two centers were confined to a relatively small extent, especially in the Hong  
 388 Kong waters, where the simulated thickness of low oxygen (DO < 4 mg/L) was less  
 389 than 1 m (Fig. 5g). The low-oxygen and hypoxic waters probably sustained for 18-76  
 390 days and 4-23 days within the hypoxic centers during the three summer months (June-  
 391 August), respectively, synonymous with 20.5%-84.5% of low-oxygen occurrences  
 392 (HF4) and 4.8%-25.2% of hypoxia occurrences (HF3) in summer (Fig. 5j, m; Table 2).  
 393 As for the 2010s, the estimated thickness of hypoxia in the Modaomen sub-estuary has  
 394 substantially increased to ~1.5 m, while the low-oxygen thickness in the Hong Kong  
 395 waters has reached ~5 m (approximately 4 m thicker relative to the 1990s; Fig. 5h).  
 396 Furthermore, the duration of the low-oxygen and hypoxic events in the 2010s was  
 397 prolonged, roughly at 55-89 days (61.0%-99.1% of HF4) and 19-51 days (21.4%-56.5%  
 398 of HF3) in the hypoxic centers (Fig. 5k, n; Table 2), respectively.

### 399 3.2.2 Variations in bottom oxygen consumption

400 To further explore the mechanism of long-term deoxygenation off the PRE, we  
 401 investigated the oxygen consumption rates and their changes during the two periods



402 (the 1990s versus the 2020s). We specifically focused on the oxygen consumption at  
403 the bottom layers covering the 20% of the water depth above the sediments, where the  
404 majority of hypoxic events in the PRE occurred (Fig. 5).

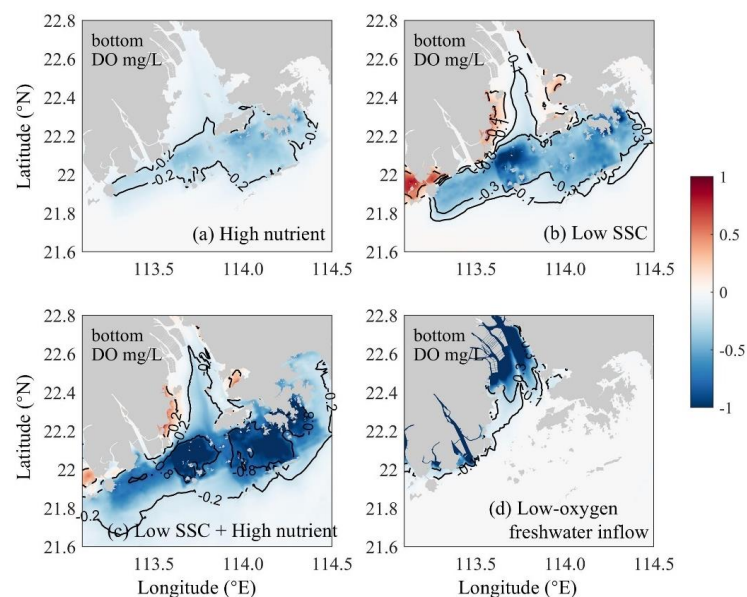
405 As shown in Table 2, the predominant oxygen sink in the bottom waters of the  
406 PRE was sediment oxygen demand (SOD) induced largely by the remineralization of  
407 organic matter in sediments, whereas water column respiration (WCR) only accounted  
408 for 15.2% of the bottom oxygen consumption on average. Over the past three decades,  
409 both the WCR and SOD have generally enhanced in the PRE, primarily attributed to  
410 the growth in local production of organic matter associated with aggravated  
411 eutrophication (Fig. 3j-o). Particularly, the SOD in the outer Lingdingyang Bay and  
412 Hong Kong waters has remarkably increased from 0.28-0.92 mg O<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> in the  
413 1990s to 1.12-1.48 mg O<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> in the 2010s (Table 2), which contributed to 80%~95%  
414 of the increment in total oxygen consumption. Although the absolute increase of SOD  
415 in the Modaomen sub-estuary was comparatively small, the SOD in the 2010s has  
416 almost doubled compared to the 1990s, leading to a substantial increase in the  
417 occurrence of hypoxic events in this region (Fig. 5d-o).

### 418 **3.2.3 Disentangling contributions of riverine oxygen, suspended** 419 **sediments, and nutrient changes on deoxygenation**

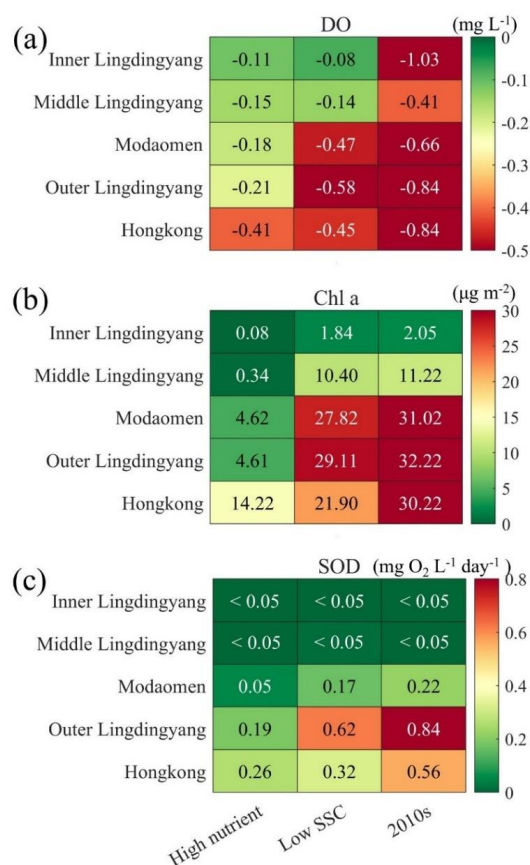
420 As detailed in Section 2.3, three scenario simulations were performed to quantify  
421 the relative contributions of riverine changes to the decadal low-oxygen expansion in  
422 the PRE (Table 1). In general, the riverine impacts on DO and related biogeochemical  
423 factors varied significantly between subregions (Figs. 6-7). Specifically, increasing the  
424 riverine nutrient levels from the 1990s to the 2020s alone (High-nutrient case) led to a  
425 marked drawdown in the bottom DO around the lower PRE (by over 0.2 mg/L relative  
426 to the 1990s; Fig. 6a). The DO decline, extending from the Modaomen sub-estuary to  
427 the Hong Kong waters, was ascribed to the elevated phytoplankton biomass (Fig. 7b)  
428 facilitated by better nutrient conditions, which subsequently sustained stronger bottom  
429 oxygen depletions compared to the 1990s (Fig. 7c). Among the subregions, the Hong



430 Kong waters was more susceptible to the changes in riverine nutrients as it was subject  
 431 to comparatively severe nutrient limitation (Table 2). Therefore, with the improvement  
 432 of nutrient utilization, this region experienced more pronounced deoxygenation in  
 433 association with significant alterations in Chl *a* content and SOD (increased by 14.2  
 434  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^2$  and  $0.26 \text{ mg O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ , respectively, equivalent to 47.1% and 46.4% of their  
 435 total increments over the past three decades; Fig. 7). While in the inner Lingdingyang  
 436 Bay, the increased nutrient inputs only caused a slight change in Chl *a* content because  
 437 the phytoplankton growth in this region was mostly light limited due to high water  
 438 turbidity (Table 2). The concomitant changes in SOD and bottom DO were fairly small  
 439 as well. Collectively, the high-nutrient scenario alone resulted in a 31% and 34% growth  
 440 in the area affected by low oxygen (HA4) and hypoxia (HA3) relative to the 1990s,  
 441 respectively (Table 3).



442  
 443 Fig. 6. Bottom DO changes induced by (a) riverine nutrient increases (the High-nutrient  
 444 case minus the 1990s case), (b) riverine SSC declines (the Low-SSC case minus the  
 445 1990s case), (c) the combined effects of nutrient increases and SSC declines (the DO-  
 446 restore case minus the 1990s case), and (d) riverine DO declines (the DO-restore case  
 447 minus the 2010s case), respectively.



448  
 449 Fig. 7. Changes of (a) bottom DO concentration, (b) vertically-integrated Chl *a* content,  
 450 and (c) SOD in subregions of the PRE for the High-nutrient, the Low-SSC, and the  
 451 2010s cases relative to the 1990s case.

452

453 Compared with the High-nutrient case, reducing the riverine suspended sediment  
 454 loads from the 1990s to the 2020s alone (Low-SSC case) imposed a greater impact on  
 455 the DO conditions, causing more extensive and intense deoxygenation through the PRE  
 456 (Fig. 6b). Apparent DO decline (exceeding 0.3 mg/L relative to the 1990s) occurred  
 457 within the lower PRE, similar to that of the changing riverine nutrients described above.  
 458 This is also attributed to the intensified SOD (with an increment of 0.17-0.62 mg O<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup>  
 459 day<sup>-1</sup>, accounting for 57.1%-77.3% of the total increment during the two periods; Fig.  
 460 7c), accompanied by a prominent increase in Chl *a* content (by 21.9-29.1 µg/m<sup>2</sup>,



461 accounting for 72.4%-90.3% of the total increment; Fig. 7b) due to the improved light  
462 condition (the relief of light limitation; Table 2). The SSC-induced changes in these  
463 biogeochemical factors were more pronounced in the outer Lingdingyang Bay and  
464 Modaomen sub-estuary than in other regions including the Hong Kong waters, which  
465 coincided with the alterations in deoxygenation among the subregions (Fig. 7). Overall,  
466 under the low-SSC scenario the low-oxygen area (HA4) and hypoxic area (HA3)  
467 expanded by 47% and 95% compared to the 1990s, respectively (Table 3). In addition,  
468 it is important to note that the low-SSC-induced exacerbation could be further escalated  
469 by superimposing with the effect of high nutrient inputs (Fig. 6c). As shown, the  
470 combined actions of decreasing SSC and increasing nutrients (DO-restore case)  
471 promoted a larger area of bottom waters off the lower PRE to develop into a low oxygen  
472 or hypoxic state, yielding a substantial expansion of low-oxygen conditions (reaching  
473 2409.7 km<sup>2</sup> of HA4 and 617.2 km<sup>2</sup> of HA3; Table 3) that eventually exceeded the sum  
474 of changes induced by individual riverine input.

475 With respect to the influence of altered riverine DO influx, it could be deduced  
476 from the difference between the 2010s and the DO-restore cases (Fig. 6d). There was a  
477 considerable DO decrease (by over 0.8 mg/L) in the bottom waters adjacent to the river  
478 outlets (also in the surface waters) owing to the low-oxygen inflows from the upstream  
479 river channels. The impact of these low-oxygen waters was largely restricted within the  
480 upper Lingdingyang Bay under the effects of air-sea reoxygenation and water-column  
481 mixing along with the river plume transport. Collectively, reducing the riverine DO  
482 content from the 1990s to the 2020s alone resulted in an enlargement of low-oxygen  
483 area by nearly 515.8 km<sup>2</sup> (derived by subtracting the HA4 of the 2010s case from that  
484 of the DO-restore case; Table 3).

#### 485 **4. Discussion**



#### 486 **4.1 Impacts of decadal changes in riverine inputs on** 487 **deoxygenation off the PRE**

488 By combining the long-term observations with simulations from the physical-  
489 biogeochemical coupled model, we have elucidated the subsurface deoxygenation and  
490 associated mechanisms driven by changes in a variety of riverine inputs over the past  
491 three decades in a typical eutrophic estuarine system, namely the Pearl River Estuary  
492 (PRE). With the rapid socio-economic development, the inorganic nitrogen and  
493 phosphorus contents flowing into the PRE during summer have approximately  
494 increased by 100% and 225% from the historical period (1990s) to the present period  
495 (2020s), respectively (Table 1). Also, the riverine SSC has decreased by ~60%,  
496 consequent to the intense human activities such as dam construction (Liu et al., 2022)  
497 and reforestation (Cao et al., 2023). Besides, the amplified oxygen depletion fueled by  
498 terrestrial pollutants discharged into the upstream rivers has led to a lower riverine DO  
499 concentration (dropped by 46%) entering the estuary (Ma et al., 2024). These alterations  
500 have jointly triggered more extensive and persistent low-oxygen conditions in the  
501 bottom waters of the PRE (Fig. 5). Based on our model estimation, the summertime  
502 low-oxygen ( $DO < 4$  mg/L) and hypoxic ( $DO < 3$  mg/L) areas in the PRE have risen  
503 by 148% and 192% during the two periods, respectively (Table 3), together with a  
504 significant increase in the vertical thickness (expanding upwards by ~1-4 m) and the  
505 duration (extending by ~15-35 days during June-August) of low-oxygen events.

506 More interestingly, the PRE has developed three distinct hypoxic centers  
507 (including the inner Lingdingyang Bay, Modaomen sub-estuary, and Hong Kong waters)  
508 controlled by different dominant factors, which renders the deoxygenation problem in  
509 this region as a great reference for estuaries and coastal systems worldwide. Specifically,  
510 the impact of riverine low-oxygen waters was confined within the upper estuary close  
511 to the river outlets, leading to a ~44% increase in the low-oxygen area relative to the  
512 1990s. Such local low-oxygen issue could be mitigated to a large extent if the riverine





513 DO recovered to a comparatively higher level (e.g., ~6.5 mg/L in the 1990s) according  
514 to the DO-restore scenario (Fig. 6d). By comparison, the deoxygenation in the lower  
515 estuary primarily followed the classic eutrophication-driven paradigm. As indicated in  
516 the High-nutrient and the Low-SSC cases, the increased nutrient inputs and declined  
517 suspended sediment loads have separately alleviated the nutrient and light limitations  
518 on algae growth in the region, thereby stimulating phytoplankton blooms and local  
519 production of organic matter to support subsurface oxygen consumption (dominated by  
520 sediment oxygen uptake, SOD; Fig. 7). Our results also indicated that the riverine SSC  
521 reduction played a more important role in driving the long-term low-oxygen expansion  
522 in the PRE. Its synergistic effect with the riverine nutrient changes could further amplify  
523 the exacerbation of eutrophication and subsequent deoxygenation, resulting in an  
524 enlarged growth in the low-oxygen area (by 104%) and hypoxic area (by 192%) that  
525 was notably larger than the total of their partial contributions (Table 3).

526 It is worth mentioning that the relative importance of the riverine nutrient and SSC  
527 changes were different between the two hypoxic centers in the lower PRE, depending  
528 upon their distances from the river outlets. Closer to the river outlets, the Modaomen  
529 sub-estuary and its surrounding waters (located on the western side of the coastal  
530 transition zone off the PRE) possessed a fairly high SSC level, which imposed a  
531 stronger light limitation on the growth of phytoplankton in the region, ultimately  
532 making the oxygen dynamics more susceptible to the decline in riverine SSC. On the  
533 contrary, the Hong Kong waters and adjacent coastal areas (located on the eastern side  
534 of the coastal transition zone) far from the river outlets were less affected by the riverine  
535 inputs, where the relatively low nutrient levels promoted more sensitive responses of  
536 biogeochemical processes (e.g. primary production and SOD) and hypoxia occurrences  
537 to nutrient variations.



538        **4.2 Nutrient control and hypoxia mitigation in the context of**  
539        **sediment declines**

540        Our results underscored the substantial spatial variability in the regulation of  
541        riverine inputs on deoxygenation, which implies the necessity for establishing more  
542        refined and targeted strategies for hypoxia mitigation. Compared with the riverine  
543        nutrients, the influences of SSC on eutrophication and hypoxia have received less  
544        attention. It follows that there might be overestimations of the nutrient impacts in the  
545        previous studies without considering SSC to ensure the model simulation aligning with  
546        the observed deoxygenation. Such an overfitting problem could further lead to an  
547        optimistic assessment on the hypoxic mitigation effect under a certain nutrient control  
548        plan. Therefore, it is imperative to disentangle or re-evaluate the contribution of riverine  
549        nutrients and SSC to the coastal deoxygenation over the past decades. As exemplified  
550        in our study for the PRE, a more stringent nutrient reduction might be required to curb  
551        the deoxygenation issue given the low SSC status at present.

552        Furthermore, it should be noted that although the dam constructions in the Pearl  
553        River Basin have mostly completed since the 2000s, it is still unclear whether the  
554        declining trend of riverine SSC will persist in the future. For instance, the reforestation  
555        in recent years has shown to be effective in reducing the summer freshwater discharges  
556        and sediment loads in the Pearl River Basin (Cao et al., 2023). Therefore, the role of  
557        riverine SSC variations remains critical for oxygen dynamics in the future, which poses  
558        greater challenges and uncertainties for eutrophication and hypoxia mitigation. Similar  
559        problems also exist in other estuaries and coastal systems suffering hypoxia. For  
560        example, it was reported that the decrease of riverine SSC (by ~56%) appeared to be  
561        the predominated factor for the intensifying eutrophication (with a 61% increase in the  
562        Chl *a* concentration) in the Yangtze River Estuary over the past decades (Wang et al.,  
563        2019). In addition, several modelling studies have showed that the dam constructions  
564        in the upper regions of Guadiana Estuary have significantly reduced the water turbidity



565 and exacerbated eutrophication in the lower estuary (Domingues et al., 2012; Barbosa  
566 et al., 2010). A global-scale survey revealed that the sediment loads in 414 major rivers  
567 has approximately decreased by 51% since the 2000s due to human activities (Dethier  
568 et al., 2022), suggesting that the deteriorating eutrophication and deoxygenation in the  
569 context of sediment declines has become a global concern and merits more attention  
570 and investigations in the future.

571 Some caveats to our work require further studies. For example, apart from  
572 anthropogenic activities, alterations in regional physical conditions aligning with  
573 climate changes could also regulate the long-term deoxygenation in coastal regions  
574 (Chen et al., 2024). The impacts of ocean warming on deoxygenation (Laurent et al.,  
575 2018) remain unclear in the PRE as well. While these factors have not been considered  
576 in this study, the relative contributions of human activities and climate changes  
577 represent a significant topic for future investigations, which can facilitate a more  
578 comprehensive understanding of oxygen dynamics and hypoxia development in  
579 estuaries and coastal systems.

## 580 **5. Conclusion**

581 We applied a well-validated physical-biogeochemical model to reconstruct the  
582 summertime oxygen distributions in the PRE during two representative periods (the  
583 1990s and the 2010s) and to disentangle the contribution of alterations in riverine inputs  
584 (i.e., suspended sediments, nutrients, and oxygen concentration) to the long-term  
585 deoxygenation off the PRE based on a suite of model experiments. We found that owing  
586 to the changes of riverine inputs over the past three decades, the low-oxygen and  
587 hypoxic areas in the bottom waters of the PRE have expanded by about 1.5 times and  
588 two-fold, respectively, with the duration time prolonged by ~15-35 days in summer.  
589 Concurrently, three hypoxic centers dominated by distinct factors were identified.  
590 Scenario simulations revealed that the decline in riverine oxygen concentration has  
591 caused a low-oxygen expansion (by ~44%) in the upper PRE. By comparison, the



592 alterations in riverine nutrients and suspended sediments have separately provided  
593 better nutrient and light conditions to promote higher production of labile organic  
594 matter, which jointly maintained considerable oxygen depletions and exacerbated the  
595 low-oxygen conditions in the lower PRE. The relative importance of the changing  
596 riverine nutrients and suspended sediments to deoxygenation varied between  
597 subregions. The suspended sediment reduction was the predominated factor in the  
598 downstream regions close to the river outlets (e.g. the Modaomen sub-estuary), while  
599 the nutrient increase exerted a more substantial influence in the regions far from the  
600 river outlets (e.g. the Hong Kong waters). Our study highlights the significant role of  
601 the declined suspended sediments in the low-oxygen expansion off the PRE, which can  
602 further amplify the effect in association with the increasing nutrients. Therefore, in the  
603 context of global regimes changes of riverine suspended sediments, we call for an  
604 urgent re-evaluation of the impacts of riverine inputs on deoxygenation in addition to  
605 nutrients in order to better understand the mechanism controlling hypoxia and thereby  
606 proposing effective mitigation strategies.

607

#### 608 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

609 **Yue Nan:** Investigation, Model experiments, Formal analysis, Visualization,  
610 Writing-original draft. **Zheng Chen:** Model experiments, Writing-review. **Bin Wang:**  
611 Writing-review. **Bo Liang:** Writing-review. **Jiatang Hu:** Project administration,  
612 Supervision, Conceptualization, Writing-review & editing.

#### 613 **Declaration of competing interest**

614 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or  
615 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this  
616 paper.

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621    **Data availability**

622            Data will be made available on request.

623



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