Influence of Hydrodynamic Processes on the Fate of Sedimentary Organic Matter on Continental Margins

Rui Bao1,2, Tessa S. van der Voort1, Meixun Zhao3,4, Xinyu Guo5, Daniel B. Montluçon1, Cameron McIntyre1,6,7 and Timothy I. Eglinton1

1Geological Institute, ETH Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland, 2Now at Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA, USA, 3Laboratory for Marine Ecology and Environmental Science, Qingdao National Laboratory for Marine Science and Technology, Qingdao, China, 4Key Laboratory of Marine Chemistry Theory and Technology (Ocean University of China), Ministry of Education, Qingdao, China, 5Center for Marine Environmental Studies, Ehime University, Matsuyama, Japan, 6Laboratory for Ion Beam Physics, Department of Physics, ETH Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland, 7Scottish Universities Environmental Research Centre, Glasgow, UK

Abstract Understanding the effects of hydrodynamic forcing on organic matter (OM) composition is important for assessment of organic carbon (OC) burial in marginal seas on regional and global scales. Here we examine the relationships between regional oceanographic conditions (bottom shear stress), and the physical characteristics (mineral surface area and grain size) and geochemical properties (OC content [OC%] and carbon isotope compositions [13C, 14C]) of a large suite of surface sediments from the Chinese marginal seas to assess the influence of hydrodynamic processes on the fate of OM on shallow continental shelves. Our results suggest that 14C content is primarily controlled by organo-mineral interactions and hydrodynamically driven resuspension processes, highlighted by (i) positive correlations between 14C content and OC% (and surface area) and (ii) negative correlations between 14C content and grain size (and bottom shear stress). Hydrodynamic processes influence 14C content due to both OC aging during lateral transport and accompanying selective degradation of OM associated with sediment (re) mobilization, these effects being superimposed on the original 14C characteristics of carbon source. Our observations support the hypotheses of Blair and Aller (2012, https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-marine-120709-142717) and Leithold et al. (2016, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2015.10.011) that hydrodynamically driven sediment translocation results in greater OC 14C depletion in broad, shallow marginal seas common to passive margin settings than on active margins. On a global scale, this may influence the extent to which continental margins act as net carbon sources and sinks. Our findings thus suggest that hydrodynamic processes are important in shaping the nature, dynamics, and magnitude of OC export and burial in passive marginal seas.

1. Introduction

Understanding the fate of organic matter (OM) deposited in continental margin sediments is critical for constraining carbon cycle models, including carbon exchange between terrestrial, oceanic, and atmospheric carbon reservoirs (Bauer et al., 2013; Bianchi et al., 2018; Bianchi & Allison, 2009; Hedges & Keil, 1995). Large amounts of marine and terrestrial organic carbon (OC) are produced in and delivered to river-dominated marginal seas (Bianchi et al., 2018; Blair & Aller, 2012; Hedges & Keil, 1995). Preservation of OM in continental margin sediments is mainly attributed to physical protection via association with minerals (Arnarson & Keil, 2007; Burdige, 2005, 2007; Mayer, 1994). Marginal sea systems are highly dynamic and heterogeneous, with spatially diverse sediment transport processes as well as OC inputs that influence the distribution and composition of sedimentary OM (Bao et al., 2016; Bianchi et al., 2018). Significant gaps remain in our understanding of relationships between transport processes and OM characteristics; spatially comprehensive investigations are needed to deconvolve the intertwined influences of carbon sources and transport processes on the composition and distribution of OM accumulating in continental shelf sediments (e.g., van der Voort et al., 2018).

Surface sediments of river-dominated margins typically exhibit significant variability in OC radiocarbon (14COC) content (Bao et al., 2016; Bianchi et al., 2016; Canuel & Hardison, 2016; Griffith et al., 2010; Wakeham & McNichol, 2014). While this variability can be partly attributed to variations in OC sources,
there is evidence that hydrodynamic processes also influence $^{14}$COC content of marine sediments (Bao et al., 2016, 2018; Bröder et al., 2018; Cathalot et al., 2013; Inthorn et al., 2006; Keil et al., 2004; Kusch, Eglinton, et al., 2010; Kusch, Kashiyama, et al., 2010; Ohkouchi et al., 2002; Pedrosa-Pàmies et al., 2013; Mollenhauer & Eglinton, 2007; Mollenhauer et al., 2003, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008; Shah et al., 2008; Tesi et al., 2008, 2010, 2014, 2016; Table S1). In addition to inducing widespread dispersal of sediments, hydrodynamic processes also affect the extent of degradation and compositional characteristics of associated OM (Bao et al., 2016, 2018; Bröder et al., 2018; Pedrosa-Pàmies et al., 2013; Thomsen & Gust, 2000). For instance, the sortable silt component of sediment that is most prone to resuspension and redistribution exhibits relatively low OC loadings (Bao et al., 2016), likely due to enhanced degradation and preferential removal of labile OC during entrainment in deposition-resuspension loops (Aller & Blair, 2004, 2006; Bröder et al., 2018; Keil et al., 2004). These processes are considered to alter both stable carbon ($^{13}$COC) and $^{14}$COC compositions of residual OM (Bao et al., 2016). However, incomplete knowledge of the interplay between hydrodynamic processes, OM-mineral associations, selective protection, and attenuation or modification of OM during sediment translocation presently limits our understanding of carbon cycling on continental shelves.

In this study, we have undertaken an extensive survey of mineral-specific surface area (SA), mean grain size, and the OC content (OC%) and $^{13}$COC, $^{14}$COC in surface sediments from an large passive marginal sea system: the Chinese marginal seas (abbreviation: CMS), encompassing the Bohai Sea (BS), the Yellow Sea (YS), and the East China Sea (ECS; Figure 1). Spatial variations in these sedimentological and geochemical properties are examined within a hydrodynamic context (bottom shear stress). Broader, global-scale implications are discussed in the context of carbon cycling on passive and active continental margins.

2. Sampling and Methods
2.1. Study Area and Sampling

The CMS, as a passive marginal sea system, constitutes the interface between the Eurasian continent and Pacific Ocean. The CMS receives vast quantities of terrestrial material primarily from the Yellow River (Huang He) and Yangtze (Changjiang) River that originate in the highlands of the Tibetan Plateau and integrate materials emanating from their extensive drainage basins. The Yellow River alone exports ~150 Mt/
year sediment to the BS (Wang et al., 2010, 2011). While the coastal area adjacent to the Yellow River delta acts as a sediment sink in summer, these sediments are subject to subsequent remobilization triggered by winter storms (Yang et al., 2011) and are exported to the YS through the seasonal currents (e.g., Chinese Coastal Current [CCC]; Yang & Liu, 2007; Figure 1a). About 30% of the Yellow River sediment is estimated to reach the central YS (Liu et al., 2004; Yang & Liu, 2007). The Yangtze River discharges ~110 Mt/year sediment into the ECS (Yang et al., 2014, 2015). Although a large fraction of Yangtze-derived sediments is deposited proximal to the river mouth, significant amounts of material are dispersed by seasonal shelf currents (Gao & Collins, 2014). In winter, Yangtze-derived, fine-grained sediments are carried southward by an intensified CCC that transports materials parallel to the coastline. Due to these prevailing southward flowing coastal currents, an elongated distal subaqueous mud wedge overwhelmingly derived from Yangtze River materials has developed on the inner shelf of the ECS. In spring, Changjiang Diluted Water strengthens and turns eastward, while the CCC in the ECS weakens and the Taiwan Warm Current begins to intensify. In summer, Taiwan-derived sediments are delivered westward, while the Changjiang Diluted Water transports fluvially derived sediment eastward across the ECS (Figure 1a). In fall, the Yellow Sea Warm Current that originates from the Kuroshio Current dominates the circulation from the ECS to the YS.

These seasonal currents play a crucial role in the mobilization, transport, and dispersal of fluvially derived sediments and associated OM of both terrestrial and marine origin (Liu et al., 2007; Yang & Liu, 2007; Yao et al., 2014, 2015), with broader-scale hydrodynamic processes likely driven by interactions between both local and regional current systems (Chen, 2009; Figure 1a). These spatially and temporally complex hydrodynamic conditions can lead to widespread dispersal of suspended sediment and associated OM in the CMS. In order to develop regional-scale assessments of OC fate influenced by hydrodynamic processes and keep a uniform regional delineation for comparative analysis with prior studies, we separate the CMS into the BS-YS and ECS, delineated by a line between Shanghai and Jeju Island (Figure 1b), according to prior studies of Saito et al. (1998), Harris et al. (2014), and Lie and Cho (2016).

Surface sediment (0–2 cm) samples (n = 270) were collected in 2011, 2013 on the R/V Dongfanghong II, and in 2014 on the R/V Yanping II. The samples were retrieved by box-corer or grab sampler and stored at −20 °C prior to analysis. Combined with published results, the database including oceanographic conditions, physical characteristics, geochemical properties, and carbon isotope compositions of surface sediment samples in the CMS is shown in Figure 2 and Table S2 (n = 358).

2.2. Mineral-Specific Surface Area Analysis

After freeze-drying, aliquots of a subset of sediment samples (n = 183) were heated at 350 °C for 24 hr in order to remove OM (Mayer, 1994), outgassed at 350 °C under vacuum for 2 hr to ensure complete removal of moisture, and then measured using a 5-point Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method on a NOVA 4000 (Quantachrome Instruments) in order to determine mineral-specific SA (Keil et al., 1997; Mayer, 1994; Tao et al., 2015). Based on replicate measurements (n = 4) of one standard sample, we estimate a standard error of ± ~2–3%.

2.3. Bulk Organic Carbon Isotopic Analysis

Aliquots of freeze-dried bulk sediment samples (n = 270) were analyzed for stable carbon isotope composition of bulk OM (δ13COC) on a Vario MICRO cube elemental analyzer (Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH) coupled to a VisION stable isotope mass spectrometer (Isoprime Ltd, UK) that was calibrated against standard materials (Laboratory of Ion Bean Physics, ETH Zurich). Prior to analysis, inorganic carbon was removed by fumigation in the presence of HCl (37%, 72 hr) and drying over NaOH pellets (72 hr) in a desiccator at 60 °C (Bao et al., 2016; Tao et al., 2015). Resulting δ13COC values were measured to a precision of less than 0.1‰, based on standards.

Methods and results from 14C analysis of bulk OC in sediment samples have been reported previously (n = 358; Bao et al., 2016). Sampling dates are shown in Table S2.

2.4. Bottom Shear Stress

Resuspension phenomena are pervasive in shallow marginal seas under conditions when bottom shear stress exceeds critical threshold for initiation of surface sediment motion (McCave, 1986; McCave & Hall, 2006). In this context, the magnitude of bottom shear stress is an important consideration in sediment mobilization.
and dispersal. Spatial variability in shear stress in the CMS is poorly constrained and certainly varies temporally. Nonetheless, some insights can be gleaned from tidal currents.

Based on established relationships between bottom current velocity (shear stress), sediment grain size, and sediment resuspension (McCave, 1986; Thomsen & Gust, 2000), there is ample potential for sediment mobilization and dispersal over this large continental shelf system (Milliman et al., 1985). To understand these potential influences on observed spatial variations in surface sediment properties, we calculated the bottom stress \( \tau \) at our sampling sites using a hydrodynamic model (Wang et al., 2008) as follows:

\[
\tau_x = \rho C_d u \sqrt{u^2 + v^2}
\]

\[
\tau_y = \rho C_d v \sqrt{u^2 + v^2}
\]

where \( \tau_x \) and \( \tau_y \) are the eastward and northward components of bottom shear stress, \( u \) and \( v \) are the eastward and northward component of bottom currents, \( \rho \) is water density, and \( C_d \) is the bottom drag coefficient. The bottom current is composed of tidal components and a subtidal component, in which the tidal currents are a superposition of several tidal constituents (\( M_2, S_2, K_1, \) and \( O_1 \)) with each tidal constituent having a fixed period. In the BS, YS, and ECS (<200-m water depth), the amplitude of the \( M_2 \) tidal current (principal lunar semidiurnal and the strongest tidal constituent) is over 0.5 m/s (Guo & Yanagi, 1998), whereas...
Subtidal currents have a magnitude of 0.2 m/s or less (Lie & Cho, 2016). We thus argue that the former is the major contributor to bottom shear stress. A harmonic analysis program (T-tide; Pawlowicz et al., 2002) is then used to obtain the amplitude and phase of tidal current and bottom shear stress with the periods encompassing all tidal constituents at each of the grid points in our hydrodynamic model. We use a grid size of 1/18 degree in meridional and zonal directions and 20 layers in the vertical direction (Wang et al., 2008). Among tidal constituents used in the model (Wang et al., 2008), M2 tidal current is the strongest with a magnitude at least twice that of other tidal constituents (Guo & Yanagi, 1998; Lie & Cho, 2016). Consequently, the bottom shear stress associated with M2 tidal period is at least 4 times stronger than that related to other tidal constituent periods because the bottom shear stress is proportion to square of bottom current (equations (1) and (2)). As an approximation, we therefore use the amplitude of bottom shear stress with M2 tidal period to represent the amplitude of bottom shear stress in the CMS (Figure 2f). Wave-induced bottom shear stress is over one magnitude smaller than the tide-induced bottom shear stress (Luo et al., 2017) and is therefore not considered.

2.5. Statistical Analysis

In order to evaluate and quantify the significance of correlations between various key parameters related to hydrodynamic processes (e.g., water depth and bottom shear stress) and geochemical characteristics (e.g., OC% $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$), Spearman correlations were determined (significant for $p < 0.05$) for the subset of CMS samples ($n = 194$), which was determined for all parameters (Table 1). The latter method was chosen to account for nonparametric nature of the data. The statistical analyses were applied using the open-source statistical software, “R,” version 3.2.3.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. OC Characteristics of Surface Sediments in the BS-YS and ECS

Spatial variations in $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ for bulk sediments from the CMS were previously described by Bao et al. (2016). The measured $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ values exhibit a general decrease with decreasing OC% (Figure 3). The lower $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ values in BS-YS samples may be due to prolonged resuspension and reworking of sediments on the inner shelf (Bao et al., 2016, 2018), as well as inputs of preaged OC from the Yellow River (Tao et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2012). While some lower-OC% and $^{14}C$-depleted samples from the ECS are from shallow regions, a substantial proportion ($\geq 35\%$) of samples with the low $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ values (i.e., $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ less than $\sim -400\%$) originate from deeper regions (Figure 3). The latter observation might be explained by export and supply of preaged OM from small rivers draining the Taiwan Island (Hilton et al., 2011; Kao et al., 2014), while the lower $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ values from shallower, inner-shelf regions may reflect the supply of $^{14}C$-depleted OM from the Yangtze River and subsequent sediment remobilization processes (Bao et al., 2016; Li et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2013). Provenance analyses based on clay mineralogy indicate that the Yangtze River is the predominant source for fine-grained sediments in shallower regions of the ECS (Qiao et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2009), and it is therefore unlikely that preaged OM from Taiwanese rivers is the primary driver of the depleted $^{14}C_{OC}$ in shallow ECS regions. Furthermore, van der Voort et al. (2018) found that Taiwan acts as a point source with a primarily local impact. In addition, sedimentation rates along the coast of the ECS are high ($>5$ cm/year; Figure 2h), and given this as well as sediment mixed layer depths on the order of $\sim 10$ cm (based on $^{210}$Pb analysis; Su & Huh, 2002; Liu et al., 2006)—which are significantly greater than that of the sampling interval (0–2 cm)—upward mixing of older OC due to

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>$\Delta^{14}C$ (%)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Water depth (m)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA (m$^2$/g)</td>
<td>0.29 ($p &lt; 0.0005$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC (%)</td>
<td>0.32 ($p &lt; 0.0005$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC/SA (C mg/m$^2$)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\delta^{13}C$ (%)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean grain size (μm)</td>
<td>$-0.19$ ($p &lt; 0.05$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottom shear stress (N/m$^2$)</td>
<td>$-0.46$ ($p &lt; 0.0005$)</td>
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Note: Hyphen indicates nonsignificant correlation.

Figure 3. Relationship between $\Delta^{14}C$ values and OC% in the CMS surface sediments. Bubble sizes correspond to approximate water depth (ranging between approximately 20 and 1,000 m for smallest and largest symbols). The two dashed circles in the right panel correspond to marine sediments surround Taiwan Island.
Figure 4. Bulk $^{14}$COC versus $^{13}$COC values of samples from the (a) Bohai Sea-Yellow Sea (BS-YS) and (b) East China Sea (ECS). Bubble sizes correspond to approximate water depth. The dashed boxes indicate approximate ranges of $^{14}$COC and $^{13}$COC values of marine OM (Blair & Aller, 2012; Wang et al., 2016) and of Yellow and Yangtze River suspended particle organic matter (SPM; Marwick et al., 2015; Tao et al., 2012). The data from Wu et al. (2013) and Kao et al. (2014) (solid symbols) are plotted without water depth information in the lower panel.

The $^{13}$COC values of surface sediments in the CMS exhibit large spatial variability, ranging from $-25.9$ to $-19.1\%$ (Figure 3b; $n = 358$). In general, depleted $^{13}$COC values are found in the prodelta regions, along the coast (inner shelf) of the CMS, Northern YS, and adjacent to Taiwan, whereas relatively high $^{13}$COC values are evident on the outer-shelf and slope of the ECS extending to the Okinawa Trough (Figure 2b). These $^{13}$COC values reflect contributions from different sources of sedimentary OM (Blair & Aller, 2012, with the observed spatial pattern of $^{13}$COC values suggesting that point sources (i.e., OC discharge from rivers) may have regional impacts. In the BS-YS, $^{13}$COC values generally fall within a narrower range, from $-23$ to $-21\%$ (ave. $-22.1 \pm 0.6\%_o$, $n = 137$), lying between values for corresponding marine and fluvial (Yellow River) end-members (Figure 4a). Despite the likely influence of aging and/or selective degradation of OM in the BS-YS during sediment redistribution (Bao et al., 2016, 2018; Tao et al., 2016), these processes do not clearly manifest themselves in a $^{14}$COC-$^{13}$COC scatter plot (Figure 4a). This may be due to the replacement of terrestrial OM by $^{13}$C-enriched (Keil et al., 1997) and younger ($^{14}$C values) marine OM (Blair & Aller, 2012).

In contrast to the BS-YS system, $^{14}$COC-$^{13}$COC values of ECS sediments fall outside of a simple mixing between two end-members of marine and terrestrial OM (Figure 4b). In this regime, the Yangtze River is the dominant sediment source (Qiao et al., 2017), with mean annual sediment discharge for the other smaller rivers contributing <25% ($\approx 1.0 \times 10^5$ Mt) of that of the Yangtze (Qiao et al., 2017). Based on the studies of Wang et al. (2012), the $^{14}$COC values of suspended particulate matter (SPM) in the Yangtze River are relatively high ($\approx 110\%$) compared to those of the Yellow River. Moreover, ECS surface sediments exhibit a larger variation of $^{14}$C contents compared with the BS-YS (Figure 4). Again, while Taiwanese rivers may supply preaged OC to the ECS, the sediment load from western Taiwan is much smaller ($<16\%$) than that of the Yangtze River (Qiao et al., 2017). Additionally, the bulk sediment emanating from Taiwan fluvial systems empties into the Taiwan Strait or southern and eastern trough areas (Kao et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2009) and is therefore unlikely to contribute significantly to the variability in $^{14}$COC values of surface sediments across the entire ECS (Figure 4b).

Recently, Bao et al. (2016, 2018) provided evidence for OM aging during the lateral sediment redistribution in the CMS. Both $^{14}$C decay associated with protracted entrainment in repeated resuspension-deposition loops on the shallow inner shelf (Zhu et al., 2006) and removal of labile (i.e., $^{14}$C- and $^{13}$C-enriched) OM could result in lower $^{14}$COC ($^{13}$COC) values (Bao et al., 2016; Mollenhauer & Eglinton, 2007). Samples with lower $^{13}$C values in Figure 2b (blue regions in the ECS) are also primarily sediments from the inner shelf, suggesting that this region is characterized by enhanced terrestrial OC contributions and/or selective degradation of $^{13}$C-enriched OC. Additionally, sediments underlying deeper waters (e.g., $>100$ m) are relatively enriched in $^{14}$COC and $^{13}$COC (Figures 2b and 4b), implying that $^{14}$C aging and selective degradation processes are most pronounced on the inner shelf relative to deeper regions.
3.2. Influence of Hydrodynamic Processes on Fate of OC

Grain size influences both hydrodynamic properties and SA of marine sediments (Mayer, 1994; McCave & Hall, 2006). Effects of hydrodynamic processes on OC% and carbon isotope composition are closely intertwined due to physical protection through OM association with mineral surfaces (positive Spearman correlation 0.29 of $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ with $\text{SA}$, $p < 0.0005$; Table 1), thereby complicating assessment of the influence of hydrodynamic processes on $^{14}C_{OC}$-$^{13}C_{OC}$ characteristics. Hydrodynamic processes should manifest themselves through differential (re) mobilization and dispersal of sediment grain sizes (McCave, 1986; Thomsen & Gust, 2000; Thomsen & McCave, 2000), which, in turn will influence the $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ values of associated OM. For instance, Bao et al. (2016) suggested that older OC in the sortable silt fraction ($20\, \text{–} \, 63 \, \mu\text{m}$) of inner shelf sediments reflects the susceptibility of this fraction to cyclic resuspension, transport, and deposition within the benthic nepheloid layer.

In the CMS, grain size is negatively correlated with SA (Figure S1), with the latter invoked as a control on OM preservation in continental margin sediments (Blair & Aller, 2012; Mayer, 1994). The sortable silt fractions ($20\, \text{–} \, 63 \, \mu\text{m}$) and coarser sediments ($> 63 \, \mu\text{m}$) correspond to SA values with a range of $10\, \text{–} \, 20 \, \text{m}^2/\text{g}$ and $< 10 \, \text{m}^2/\text{g}$, respectively. Although high SA sediments can be expected to have generally higher OC% as compared to lower SA sediments, and sediment characterized by higher OC% also exhibit higher $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ values among the three corresponding SA ranges ($> 20$, $10\, \text{–} \, 20$, and $< 10 \, \text{m}^2/\text{g}$, respectively; Figures 5 and S2). This suggests that mineral surface protection of fresher OM associated with sortable silt fractions (i.e., SA 10–20 m$^2$/g) may be undermined by hydrodynamic processes. Consequently, although OC% exhibits a general correlation with $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ values in the CMS, OC% exhibits a general correlation with $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ values in the CMS.

General relationships between abundance of terrestrial and marine OC with respect to mineral-specific surface area (OC:SA) have emerged from studies of continental shelf sediments (Blair et al., 2003; Blair & Aller, 2012; Burdige, 2005; Coppola et al., 2007; Goñi et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2013). Typical OC:SA ratios for river-dominated continental shelf sediments range from 0.5 to 1.0 mg C/m$^2$ (Bianchi et al., 2018; Blair & Aller, 2012; Eglinton & Repeta, 2003; Hedges & Keil, 1995; Mayer, 1994). This ratio has been used as an index to assess terrestrial OM loading on sedimentary particles (Burdige, 2005; Keil et al., 1997; Wu et al., 2013) and to place constraints on terrestrial OC burial efficiency in marginal sea sediments (Burdige, 2005; Keil et al., 1997; Nuwer & Keil, 2005). In the CMS, surface sediment OC:SA ratios exhibit distinctly spatial variability (Figure 2d), with generally lower ratios in the BS-YS than in the ECS (significant difference, $t$-test; Figure S3). Furthermore, while BS-YS sediments exhibit large variability in OC:SA ratios ($< 0.05$ to $> 0.55$ mg C/m$^2$; ave. 0.32 mg C/m$^2$, $n = 117$), they are generally higher than those of Yellow River SPM (0.18 mg OC/m$^2$, mean grain size: 8–17 μm; Tao et al., 2015). Interestingly, $\delta^{13}C_{OC}$ values of BS-YS sediments are relatively uniform (ave. $-22.1 \pm 0.6\%o$, $n = 123$; mean grain size: 59 μm, $n = 119$; Figure 6a), despite significant variability in $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ values (Figure 6b). Some samples with lower OC:SA ratios, particularly those originating from the shallower parts of the BS-YS, exhibit more scattered and generally lower $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ values (dashed circle, Figure 6b). These differing relationships between OC:SA ratios and $\Delta^{14}C_{OC}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{OC}$ values suggest that hydrodynamic processes influence OC isotopic composition, especially for sediments from shallower inner-shelf settings.

It has been previously observed that marine sediments accumulating proximal to the Fly (Papua New Guinea) and Columbia (northwest USA) rivers exhibited lower OC/SA ratios and higher $\delta^{13}C_{OC}$ values than those of...
corresponding riverine SPM (Keil et al., 1997). This change in OC loading has been attributed to a process of loss of terrestrial OM and replacement with marine OM on mineral surfaces. In the case of the ECS, we note that some sediments from deeper regions exhibit OC:SA ratios and δ13COC values that are both higher than riverine SPM (Figure 6c, green area), whereas Δ14COC values are lower than those of Yangtze River SPM (Figure 6d, orange area). This may reflect the influence of other hydrodynamic processes, such as preferential displacement of certain grain size fractions, on OM composition. Therefore, loss-and-replacement processes are unlikely to be the only cause of the observed changes of δ13COC and Δ14COC with OC:SA ratios.

While hydrodynamic processes are a driving factor promoting sediment resuspension (McCave, 1986; McCave et al., 1995) and contributing to the above geochemical characteristics, they are difficult to constrain from direct field observations. We therefore use bottom shear stresses calculated from a hydrodynamic model that is based on tidal forcing and circulation patterns in the CMS in order to examine the dependence of surface sediment Δ14COC on hydrodynamic conditions. Our results reveal a significant negative correlation between Δ14COC and bottom shear stress for the entire CMS (Spearman correlation −0.46, p < 0.0005; Table 1); that is, greater bottom shear stress corresponds to lower Δ14COC values (14C aging; Figure 2f), presumably as a consequence of processes associated with enhanced sediment mobilization.

Figure 6. Relationships between carbon isotopic characteristics (Δ14COC, δ13COC) and OC:SA in surface sediments of the (a and b) Bohai Sea-Yellow Sea (BS-YS) and the (c and d) East China Sea (ECS). The bubble size represents the sample water depth; (a) the shaded area highlights the low variability in δ13COC values (ave. −22.1 ± 0.6‰); (b) the dashed circle indicates the samples from shallow (<25 m) locations that are characterized by lower OC% and Δ14COC values; (c and d) the green envelope shows the samples with larger OC:SA ratios and higher δ13COC than SPM, and the orange envelope shows the samples with larger OC:SA ratios and lower Δ14COC than SPM. The box circle indicates approximate corresponding values for SPM from the Yellow River (a and b) and Yangtze River (c and d).

and hydrodynamically induced particle sorting. Once the shear stress exceeds the critical erosion threshold, this will lead to resuspension and an abrupt increase in the concentrations of SPM in the water column. Entrainment in repeated suspension-deposition loops results in enhanced OC remineralization (Aller & Blair, 2006), with selective degradation of younger OC and hence an apparent increase in 14C age (decrease in 14C content) of residual OM. The OM associated with those sediments subjected to greater bottom shear stress is thus likely to exhibit lower 14C contents (older OC ages). These findings suggest that hydrodynamic processes are a key factor in dictating 14C content (age) of underlying sediments in the CMS.

3.3. Contrasting OC Fates on Passive and Active Margins

Sediment resuspension and redistribution is widespread on and beyond, continental margins (Hwang et al., 2010). The underlying hydrodynamic processes influence OC characteristics, likely through a combination particle sorting effects and OM-mineral surface interactions, of which 14C content is perhaps most diagnostic (Table S1). Such processes may exert greater influence on passive margins that host expansive shallow continental shelf seas (e.g., BS-YS and ECS), leading to longer sediment residence and transport times (aging) and protracted entrainment in resuspension-deposition loops (Bao et al., 2018; Blair & Aller, 2012; Bröder et al., 2018). Examination of OC versus SA relationships in shelf and upper slope sediments from passive margins suggests that these systems are generally characterized by lower OC loadings (i.e., OC:SA < 0.5 mg C/m²) than those from active margins (OC:SA > 1.0 mg C/m²; Figure S4). Thus, on a global scale, OC may experience contrasting fates on active and passive margins, underlining a need to better understand relationships between physical dynamics and nature and efficiency of OC burial (Blair & Aller, 2012). While data coverage remains sparse, and additional factors (e.g., bottom oxygen concentration) are also likely important (Bianchi et al., 2018), we suggest that the distinctive physical dynamics of active and passive margins strongly influence the fate of OC.

A plot of 14C content (expressed as Fraction modern [Fm]; Stuiver & Polach, 1977) × OC% versus OC% reveals the contrasting characteristics of surface sediments from active and passive margins (Figure 7).
active margins fall close to a straight line, suggesting that OC content in these sediments strongly influences $^{14}$C content, whereas passive margin sediments exhibit considerable scatter and fall below the 1:1 line. This implies that other factors, independent of OC%, control $^{14}$C content. These may include selective degradation of OC, preferential export of OC from different carbon sources (Zonneveld et al., 2010), or lateral transport times. Decreasing $^{14}$C contents associated with the latter phenomenon is independent on OC%, composition, and/or carbon source. Due to likely influence of each of these factors in passive margin systems, lower $^{14}$C contents caused by lateral transport is likely often masked. However, in the case of the CMS, ancillary evidence points to a clear role for these processes as a cause for the observed scatter in this relationship. We therefore speculate that sediment resuspension and other hydrodynamically driven processes that impact on $^{14}$C content are a hallmark of passive margin systems. Consequently, the type of plot exemplified in Figure 7 may prove useful in assessing relationships between continental margin dynamics and the fate of OC (Galy et al., 2008; Tao et al., 2015).

In addition to varying degrees of OC incineration linked to margin type and length scales for sediment resuspension (Figure 7; Bao et al., 2018; Blair et al., 2012; Bröder et al., 2018), the different geometries of active and passive margins have implications for dynamics and nature of OC delivered to, and buried in the deep ocean, both for the present and the geologic past (Blair et al., 2004; Drenzek et al., 2007; Leithold et al., 2016; Muller-Karger et al., 2005). For example, reduced accommodation space and sediment resuspension on continental shelves during intervals of lower sea level may help to explain elevated OC% of margin sediments during glacial maxima (Cartapanis et al., 2016; Hilton et al., 2015; Wagner et al., 2014). In this context, diminished OC remineralization on active margins and more direct OC transfer to deep ocean would correspond to a short-term OC sink, whereas more extensive processing on OM on passive margins acts as a OC source. This balance of OC source-to-sink processes on active versus passive margins may thus play an important role in regulating global carbon cycle.

### 4. Summary and Conclusions

Hydrodynamic processes are known to influence carbon cycling on continental margins, however, the underlying mechanisms and their impact on the distribution and characteristics of sedimentary OM remain elusive. Our in-depth survey of shallow CMS sediments reveals the following:

1. In addition to carbon provenance, bulk $^{14}$COC contents are impacted by both organo-mineral interactions and hydrodynamically-driven resuspension processes, highlighted by (a) positive correlations between $\Delta^{14}$COC and OC% and SA, and (b) negative correlations between $\Delta^{14}$COC, grain size, and bottom shear stress (Table 1).
2. Relationships between $^{14}$COC contents, OC%, and SA reveal widespread influence of resuspension processes on the $^{14}$C age and OC% in sediments from shallow, broad marginal seas (Figures 3 and 5).
3. Our sediment data set supports prior hypotheses that resuspension processes exert greater influence on OC fate on passive margins compared with active margins (Figure 7). This in turn may influence the extent to which continental margins act as net carbon sources and sinks globally, both for the present-day and the past.
4. The differing extents of OM processing on active and passive margins have implications of the characteristics and fate of OC exported to the interior ocean (Figure 7). Remobilization and redistribution of sedimentary OM on the continental margins thus emerge as an important component of the global oceanic carbon cycle and should be considered in budgets and fluxes of oceanic OC burial and export.

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