

Water column organic carbon in a Pacific marginal sea (Strait of Georgia, Canada)

S.C. Johannessen, G. Potentier, C.A. Wright, D. Masson, R.W. Macdonald

▶ To cite this version:

S.C. Johannessen, G. Potentier, C.A. Wright, D. Masson, R.W. Macdonald. Water column organic carbon in a Pacific marginal sea (Strait of Georgia, Canada). Marine Environmental Research, 2008, 66, 10.1016/j.marenvres.2008.07.008. hal-00563045

HAL Id: hal-00563045

https://hal.science/hal-00563045

Submitted on 4 Feb 2011

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Accepted Manuscript

Water column organic carbon in a Pacific marginal sea (Strait of Georgia, Can ada)

S.C. Johannessen, G. Potentier, C.A. Wright, D. Masson, R.W. Macdonald

PII: S0141-1136(08)00191-8

DOI: 10.1016/j.marenvres.2008.07.008

Reference: MERE 3273

To appear in: Marine Environmental Research

Received Date: 3 January 2008 Revised Date: 20 June 2008 Accepted Date: 22 July 2008



Please cite this article as: Johannessen, S.C., Potentier, G., Wright, C.A., Masson, D., Macdonald, R.W., Water column organic carbon in a Pacific marginal sea (Strait of Georgia, Canada), *Marine Environmental Research* (2008), doi: 10.1016/j.marenvres.2008.07.008

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	Water column organic carbon in a Pacific marginal sea (Strait of Georgia, Canada)
6	
7	S. C. Johannessen* G. Potentier, C. A. Wright, D. Masson, R. W. Macdonald
8	
9	Fisheries and Oceans Canada, Institute of Ocean Sciences, 9860 W. Saanich Rd., P.O.
10	Box 6000, Sidney, B.C., Canada, V8L 4B2
11	
12	
13	
14	* Corresponding author: tel. (250) 363-6616, fax (250) 363-6310, johannessen@pac.dfo
15	mpo.gc.ca
16	
17	

Abstract
Marginal seas provide a globally important interface between land and interior ocean
where organic carbon is metabolized, buried or exported. The trophic status of these seas
varies seasonally, depending on river flow, primary production, the proportion of
dissolved to particulate organic carbon and other factors. In the Strait of Georgia, about
80% of the organic carbon in the water column is dissolved. Organic carbon enters at the
surface, with river discharge and primary production, particularly during spring and
summer. The amount of organic carbon passing through the Strait ($\sim 16 \times 10^8 \text{ kg C/yr}$) is
almost twice the standing inventory (\sim 9.4 x 10^8 kg C). The organic carbon that is
oxidized within the Strait ($\sim 5.6 \times 10^8 \text{ kg/yr}$) presumably supports microbial food webs or
participates in chemical or photochemical reactions, while that which is exported (7.2 x
10 ⁸ kg/yr) represents a local source of organic carbon to the open ocean.
DOC, POC, organic carbon cycling, water column, Strait of Georgia

4	T 4		•	4 •	
	Int	ra	an	₽£1/	ΛH
1.	ш	ΙV	uu	CU	UI.

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

Organic carbon enters the coastal ocean by in situ primary production and with river discharge. As emphasized by Liu et al. (2000), shelf seas are not passive receptors of this organic carbon but rather provide a globally important interface between land and interior ocean where organic carbon is metabolized, buried or exported. Metabolism of organic carbon in coastal waters provides a globally significant source of carbon dioxide (Smith and Hollibaugh, 1993), although marginal seas of the North Pacific generally export organic carbon (Chen et al., 2004). Whether a marginal sea is a net source or net sink of CO₂ varies seasonally, depending on the strength of primary production and river inflow, whose effects are particularly pronounced near shore. A large part of the fixed carbon is suspended in water as dissolved organic carbon (DOC), much of which is readily transformed back to carbon dioxide by microbial respiration and photochemical oxidation. In the global ocean, the inventory of DOC (680 Gt) far outweighs particulate organic carbon (POC; 20 Gt) or biota (3 Gt), and a longstanding puzzle is how a large component of DOC manages to persist for years and even millennia in the ocean (Eglinton and Repeta, 2003). Accordingly, the fate of the reactive pool of DOC helps to determine the ability of the biological pump to sequester organic carbon on time scales ranging from days to thousands of years. In addition to their role in the global carbon cycle, POC and DOC can affect the oceanic transport of contaminants, many of which have a strong affinity for organic matter (e.g. Brannon et al., 1993; Chevreuil et al., 1987), and can mediate their reactions (Blough and Sulzberger, 2003).

56	In some coastal areas, organic carbon can itself be the most important contaminant
57	(Turner et al., 2008).
58	
59	The Strait of Georgia (Fig. 1) is a highly productive marginal sea on the west coast of
60	Canada. Its physical and biological oceanography have been studied extensively (see
61	reviews by Waldichuk, 1957; Thomson, 1981; Harrison et al., 1983; LeBlond, 1983;
62	Harrison et al., 1994; Macdonald and Crecelius, 1994; Thomson, 1994), although little
63	attention has been paid to chemical and geochemical processes, especially in the water
64	column. Estuarine circulation in the Strait of Georgia is driven largely by the discharge
65	of the Fraser River, which supplies about 65% of the fresh water to the Strait (e.g.
66	LeBlond et al., 1983). The Strait is open at both ends, exchanging with the Pacific Ocean
67	through Johnstone Strait in the north and through the much larger Juan de Fuca Strait, via
68	Haro Strait, in the south. Strong tidal currents in Haro Strait cause intense tidal mixing in
69	that area (e.g. LeBlond, 1983). The trophic status of the Strait of Georgia system remains
70	uncertain, although preliminary budgets for particulate and dissolved organic carbon
71	suggest that, unlike the other temperate Pacific marginal seas, the Strait likely provides a
72	small net source for CO ₂ (Johannessen et al., 2003). The data on which the seawater
73	component of these budgets was based were sparse, illustrating the need for more
74	measurements of organic carbon, particularly of DOC, which appeared to be sufficiently
75	important to control whether the system was a net sink or a net source of CO ₂ . Here, we
76	describe the spatial and seasonal variability of organic carbon in the water column of the
77	Strait of Georgia and discuss controls on its distribution. This overview will help to
78	focus future, hypothesis-driven research into local carbon dynamics.

7	79
---	----

81

91

101

2. Methods

80 2.1 Sample collection and in situ measurements 82 In April, June, September and December, 2003, water samples for DOC and TOC 83 analysis were collected along a cruise track from the mouth of Juan de Fuca Strait to the 84 northern Strait of Georgia (Figs. 1 and 2) aboard the CCGS Vector. These samples form 85 part of a larger data set that has been collected quarterly since 1999. The full data set 86 includes conductivity / temperature / depth (CTD), fluorescence, photosynthetically 87 active radiation (PAR), and transmissivity profiles as well as nutrient and oxygen 88 measurements made on discrete water samples. The electronic measurements were made 89 at 76 stations (Fig. 1), including the 20 stations where bottle samples were collected. 90 Some of the accompanying physical and chemical data have been analyzed and published elsewhere (Johannessen et al., 2006; Masson, 2006). 92 Water samples for DOC and TOC analysis were collected at depths of 0, 20, 75 and 150 93 94 m (depth permitting) and at the bottom of each cast (1-5 m off the bottom), with 95 occasional replicates, for a total of 472 samples collected during the four cruises. TOC 96 samples were collected from the Niskin bottle spigots directly into acid-washed, 40 mL 97 glass vials with EPA septa, after three rinses with the sample seawater. DOC samples 98 were gravity-filtered into the same type of vial through a 0.2 μm, Millipore, Opticap 99 cartridge filter attached to the rosette spigot with a short length (~10 cm) of acid-washed 100 Teflon tubing. Before each cruise, a new Opticap filter was flushed with 3 L of milli-Q water. Preliminary experiments had shown that flushing a new filter with 2 L of milli-Q

water was sufficient to prevent contamination of the samples by the filter. Before sampling began at each station, the filter was rinsed with 1 L of seawater from the Niskin bottle collected at the greatest depth at that station. The filter and tubing were emptied after each sample was filtered and then flushed with 250 mL of each sample before any of the filtrate was collected. Samples were frozen immediately after collection and stored frozen until analysis. Nitrile gloves were worn at all times during sample collection and analysis. The concentrations of DOC and TOC were measured by high temperature combustion in an Apollo 9000 TOC analyzer set to 700° C and calibrated with standard additions of potassium hydrogen phthalate (KHP) to filtered open ocean seawater, with a precision of 0.2 μ M (average standard deviation of replicates analysed from the same vial.) The concentration of POC was calculated as the difference between TOC and DOC. The standard deviation of DOC and TOC samples collected in 7-12 separate vials from the same Niskin bottle during each cruise was 1-4 μ M and 3-7 μ M, respectively. By propagation of errors, the standard deviation of POC values was 4-8 μ M.

Transmissivity at 660 nm was measured using a Sea Tech transmissometer attached to the bottom of the frame of the sampling rosette, beside the CTD. Transmissivity was converted to the beam attenuation coefficient, c, according to the equation

121
$$-c = \frac{1}{r} \ln(\frac{tr}{100\%})$$

where r is the pathlength (m) and tr (%) is the percent transmission over that pathlength (Baker and Lavelle, 1984). Chlorophyll a fluorescence was measured with a Seapoint

125	fluorometer also mounted on the frame of the rosette (excitation wavelength 470 nm,
126	emission 685 nm).
127	
128	Dissolved oxygen was measured by Winkler titration aboard the ship, using an automated
129	Dosimat system, and nutrient samples were stored frozen until their analysis on return to
130	the laboratory, according the protocol established by Barwell-Clark and Whitney (1996).
131	
132	2.2 Calculation of inventories and fluxes
133	We calculated surface layer and deep layer organic carbon inventories at each station.
134	We defined the break between upper and lower layers as the top of the deep, relatively
135	uniform layer, as determined by visual inspection of the salinity profiles. The Strait of
136	Georgia does not display a classical density profile with a well defined upper mixed layer
137	and a pycnocline overlying a deep mixed layer (Masson and Peña, 2008). The upper
138	layer comprises a series of interfingered layers of water, and in some places the density
139	decreases all the way to the surface, without any apparently well-mixed surface layer.
140	Consequently, choosing the top of the deep layer was the most consistent way to divide
141	the water column throughout the study area. This depth also usually coincided with a
142	sharp decrease in the concentrations of DOC and TOC between the upper and lower
143	layers (shown in section 3.1 below). We assigned the organic carbon concentration
144	measurements for each station to a small area of the surrounding basin (Fig. 1) and
145	calculated the volume of water that that area represented, using a 1 km by 1 km depth
146	grid (Table 1). The inventories for the upper and lower layers and for the whole water
147	column in each area were calculated as the product of the water volume and the average

148	concentration of TOC (or DOC or POC) in that section. Seasonal inventories for the
149	northern and southern Strait of Georgia, Haro Strait and Juan de Fuca Strait were
150	calculated by summing the inventories at all the stations included in the larger zones.
151	
152	The fluxes of TOC, POC and DOC through Juan de Fuca Strait were calculated as the
153	product of their average surface (or deep) concentrations and the average annual outflow
154	(inflow). The inflow and outflow were taken from a salt balance calculation made by
155	Johannessen et al. (2003) and on previously published current measurements in Juan de
156	Fuca Strait (Godin et al., 1981).
157	
158	
159	3. Results
160	3.1 Distribution of organic carbon
161	Most of the organic carbon in the water column of the Strait of Georgia, Haro Strait and
162	Juan de Fuca Strait is dissolved. Except at the surface and in the deep, northern Strait of
163	Georgia in April and June, DOC makes up at least 80% of the total (POC/DOC \leq 0.25).
164	This ratio is similar to that observed in the East China Sea, where $POC/DOC = 0.1$ (Gao
165	and Song, 2006), but POC is more important in this nearshore region than in the global
166	ocean, where POC/DOC ~ 0.03 (Eglinton and Repeta, 2003). A similarly high
167	POC/DOC ratio was observed off the Oregon coast, to the south of the study area
168	(POC/DOC ~ 0.3; Hill and Wheeler, 2002). The dissolved and particulate organic carbon
169	are not significantly correlated to one another in any of the seasons ($r^2 \le 0.2$), probably
170	indicating that different mechanisms control their distributions.

171	
172	In all four seasons, the concentration of dissolved organic carbon was highest at the
173	surface, particularly in the central and southern Strait of Georgia, and lowest in the
174	subsurface seawater flowing in through Juan de Fuca Strait (Fig. 3, Table 3). The
175	concentration of DOC was inversely related to salinity (Fig. 4a), as similarly observed
176	along a transect perpendicular to the Catalan coast in the Mediterranean Sea (Doval et al.,
177	1999), positively related to oxygen and inversely related to nutrients (Figs. 4b, 4c).
178	
179	The variation in POC through the year differs from that of DOC. Like DOC, POC was
180	highest in surface water in April and June, but in September and December it was
181	generally low throughout the study area, with only small, local maxima, possibly related
182	to particle sinking or resuspension (Fig. 5, Table 3). There was also a relatively high
183	concentration of POC in the deep water of the northern Strait of Georgia in April and
184	June. The extremely high POC concentration indicated at mid-depth in the far northern
185	Strait of Georgia in June is based on only one measurement, so we cannot be certain of
186	exactly what it represents. However, the high concentration in nearby bottom waters is
187	based on multiple measurements. While the wintertime concentration of DOC in the
188	deep, uniform layer was higher than that in the summer and spring, there was essentially
189	no POC in the study area in December.
190	
191	3.2 Inventories and fluxes
192	The water column inventory of TOC in the Strait of Georgia did not vary much with
193	season (average seasonal concentrations in Table 3 multiplied by water volume in Table

194	2) and was generally about $9.5 \times 10^8 \text{ kg C}$ ($9.1 \times 10^8 - 9.8 \times 10^8 \text{ kg C}$). Over the surface
195	area of the Strait of Georgia considered here (7464 km², see Methods) the inventory
196	implies an average of 130 g C m ⁻² , with the highest value occurring in December.
197	However, the distribution of TOC among surface and deep layers, the northern and
198	southern Strait, and particulate and dissolved forms, did vary considerably (Fig. 6, Table
199	4). The proportion of the TOC held in the surface layer varied depending both on the
200	concentration of organic carbon and on the depth of the surface layer.
201	
202	The inventory of organic carbon held in the water column of the Strait of Georgia is low,
203	relative to the fluxes into the Strait. The annual net primary production in the Strait is
204	estimated at 90 - 120 g C m ⁻² yr ⁻¹ (Mackas and Harrison, 1997) Extrapolating that water
205	column primary production rate to the surface area of the Strait of Georgia considered in
206	this study (7464 km ²), the annual net primary production is $6.7 \times 10^8 - 9.0 \times 10^8$ kg C
207	(Table 1). The Fraser and other rivers add an additional 7.5×10^8 kg organic C annually,
208	and anthropogenic sources add up to 1.2×10^8 kg C (Johannessen <i>et al.</i> , 2003). Thus, the
209	total sources of TOC to the Strait are approximately $15 \times 10^8 - 18 \times 10^8$ kg C yr ⁻¹ , about
210	twice the inventory measured year-round. The sinks are burial in the sediments (4.3 \times
211	10 ⁸ kg C yr ⁻¹ , Johannessen et al., 2003) advection through Juan de Fuca Strait (and
212	possibly Johnstone Strait) $(7.2 \times 10^8 \text{ kg C yr}^{-1}, \text{ this study, see Methods})$, and oxidation.
213	Burial and advection come to 11×10^8 kg C yr ⁻¹ . By difference, this leaves 4.0×10^8 –
214	6.2×10^8 kg C yr ⁻¹ , about half of the inventory, to be oxidized in the Strait of Georgia and
215	its sediments each year. The preliminary carbon budget constructed by Johannessen et al.
216	(2003), indicated that about 0.9×10^8 kg C/yr was oxidized in sediments. Using this

217	sediment oxidation value, about $3.1 \times 10^8 - 5.3 \times 10^8$ kg of organic carbon is oxidized in
218	the water column each year. About 1.1×10^8 kg C/yr POC is exported through Juan de
219	Fuca Strait.
220	
221	The area-weighted inventory of organic carbon was lower in Haro and Juan de Fuca
222	Straits than in the Strait of Georgia and was relatively stable year-round in Juan de Fuca
223	Strait, ranging from 76 ± 3 kg C m ⁻² in June to 88 ± 2 kg C m ⁻² in April (Fig. 6). The
224	seasonal variation in the carbon that was held in the surface layer was due principally to
225	changes in the depth of that layer throughout the year (Fig. 6). In Haro Strait the water
226	column inventory of TOC varied from 37 g C m ⁻² in June to about double that in April.
227	
228	
229	4. Discussion
230	The correlations shown in Figure 4 are consistent with both algal and terrigenous sources
231	of DOC to the Strait of Georgia. Phytoplankton release DOC in the daytime as they grow
232	(e.g. Maranon et al., 2004; 2005). During an estuarine phytoplankton bloom, Gobler and
233	Sanudo-Wilhelmy (2003) measured production rates of POC and DOC that were nearly
234	equivalent to one another. In the Strait of Georgia the growth rate of Chaetoceros and
235	other algae is greatest during the late spring bloom (e.g. Harrison et al., 1991). However,
236	we cannot use timing alone to apportion sources of organic carbon as either terrigenous
237	or marine.
238	

239	Terrigenous DOC discharged by the Fraser and other rivers also enters the Strait of
240	Georgia at the surface, where the concentration of oxygen is high and those of the
241	nutrients are low. Of course, some of the DOC carried by the river is undoubtedly
242	produced by algae in the river. Unlike the situation in some Arctic rivers, where the
243	DOC is highest during the spring freshet (Rember and Trefry, 2004), DOC in the Fraser
244	River usually peaks in the late spring, about two months before the peak water discharge
245	(Fig. 7). It is not possible from the data collected for this study to discriminate among the
246	three sources of DOC (terrigenous, riverine algal, marine algal). Future work could use
247	stable isotopes of carbon and nitrogen, ¹⁴ C radiodating, degree of aromaticity or
248	biomarkers to investigate the distribution and fate of DOC from the three sources. For
249	example, in the Mississippi River estuary, $\delta^{13} C$ measurements indicated that most of the
250	terrigenous DOC was removed from the water column in the salt – fresh water mixing
251	zone (salinity ~ 25, Wang et al., 2004). Also, in the Mid-Atlantic Bight, rivers have been
252	shown to export new, high- ¹⁴ C DOC to the coastal ocean (Mortazavi and Chanton, 2004).
253	
254	The distribution of POC was not tied directly to that of total suspended particles. Using
255	data collected during 2000–2003, Johannessen et al. (2006) showed that the beam
256	attenuation coefficient (c), a proxy for suspended particle concentration, was relatively
257	high throughout Haro and Juan de Fuca Straits in the winter, while the POC was low
258	there at that time (Fig.5). There was no significant relationship between POC and c for
259	most of the year and only a weak one (r ² =0.5) in April, indicating that the organic content
260	of particles varies in time and space. The distinction between particulate and dissolved
261	organic carbon is operational - for this project organic carbon that passed through a 0.2

μm filter was considered dissolved – so the lack of a correlation between POC and c is
not surprising. However, the ratio of POC to c describes in a relative way how much of
the particulate matter is organic. The ratio is low throughout the year in Juan de Fuca and
Haro Straits (Fig. 8), implying that most of the suspended particles in that area are
inorganic. This could reflect their source or that all the available organic matter had been
consumed or broken down into DOC by the time the particles had reached that area. In
the Strait of Georgia POC/c is high at the surface in April, June and September (Fig. 8),
indicating a high proportion of organic particles near the surface. This is consistent with
primary production in the surface layer. Near-surface particulate organic matter is likely
largely consumed, oxidized or broken down into DOC within the Strait, consistent with
previous observations of the rapid consumption of organic carbon after a phytoplankton
bloom (Gobler and Sanudo-Wilhelmy, 2003).
Because of the estuarine nature of its circulation and the presence of several sills, the
Strait of Georgia does not export POC to the open ocean along the bottom, as occurs in
some other Pacific marginal seas (e.g. Chen et al., 2004). Rather, POC in bottom waters
is predominantly buried in the Strait itself (Johannessen et al., 2003), although some may
be broken down to DOC and then consumed by bacteria, as occurs in the deep Pacific
Ocean (Hansell and Ducklow, 2006). The observation in this study that POC is exported
in surface water through Juan de Fuca Strait contrasts with Johannessen et al.'s (2003)
conclusion that it was not. The discrepancy probably results in part from the in situ
production of POC in the surface waters of Juan de Fuca Strait that is of necessity
included in the exchange estimate made in this paper but which was excluded from the

2003 work. However, in situ production is unlikely to account for the whole calculated
export. There is no estimate of net primary productivity available for Juan de Fuca Strait,
but the Strait of Georgia rate (90- 120 g C m ⁻² yr ⁻¹ ; Harrison et al., 1983) applied to Juan
de Fuca implies a net annual production of $2.0 \times 10^8 - 2.6 \times 10^8$ kg C, or about a third of
the estimated export. Possibly much of the export occurs on very small particles that did
not contribute much to the total sediment budget. Some of the POC also sinks to the
bottom in the northern Strait, particularly in April. This seasonal pulse of organic-rich
particles in late spring / early summer may explain the high concentration of organic
carbon observed in the bottom sediments of the northern Strait (3.5-5% Johannessen,
2003; ≤3.5% Bornhold, 1978) relative to that measured in the southern Strait and Fraser
River (~1% Vohannessen, 2003). The isotopic composition (δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N) of the organic
matter measured in a northern Strait sediment core implies the organic carbon to be
predominantly recycled material of algal origin (Macdonald et al., 2008), which is
consistent with the pulse of high-POC particles to the bottom observed in April, at the
end of the spring bloom season.
The correlation between DOC and salinity (Fig. 4a) suggests that about 70% of the
variation in DOC is related to conservative mixing. This does not imply that all of the
DOC is terrigenous; rather, both algally-derived and terrigenous DOC enter the system at
the surface and are associated with the fresher water. However, the scatter about the
regression line is not randomly distributed. DOC residuals calculated as the vertical
distance to the regression line in Figure 4a represent non-conservative variations in the

concentration of DOC, with higher values implying production of DOC in situ. The

residuals are generally lower in April and June (study area average -5.1 and -6.8 μM ,
respectively) than in September and December (average +3.1 and +2.9 μM). In the Strait
of Georgia, the residual DOC is high in the surface water in April and June and low in the
deep water at that time, while in September, it is closer to the value expected from mixing
alone (Fig. 9). By December, a pool of high-DOC water appears in the deep Strait of
Georgia. Overall in the study area, DOC is positively correlated with dissolved O_2 ,
because most of the time the two are produced or consumed together. However, in the
deep Strait of Georgia in the winter, the increase in DOC in the winter is accompanied by
a decrease in O2. Since the deep water of the Strait is renewed only a few times a year, in
the late spring and late summer (Masson, 2002; Pawlowicz et al., 2007), it becomes
stagnant in the winter, and oxidation of organic matter uses up oxygen. For DOC to be
produced at the same time, it must be derived from the breakdown of POC. Since the
residuals represent the non-conservative portion of the variation in DOC, the winter
increase is not from the advection of DOC from outside the Strait. Indeed, the deep
ocean water that intrudes periodically into the Strait has a lower concentration of DOC
than that already in the Strait (Fig. 3). The POC that is broken down could derive from
algal material that sinks into the deep northern Strait in late spring, or from resuspended
bottom material. Similarly, the high DOC residual observed in Haro Strait / Victoria Sill
and extending into Juan de Fuca Strait in September and December might result from the
breakdown of POC resuspended from the bottom sediments during storms. The exact
source of the winter DOC cannot be determined from these data.

Summing the DOC residuals in the deep Strait of Georgia using the same procedure as
for the inventory calculation described in Section 3.2 and dividing the inventory by the
sea level surface area of the Strait as calculated for this work (7464 km²), gives a change
in the DOC residual inventory between June and December of about 15 g C m ⁻² (Table
5). This represents about 5 % of the total annual primary production (Harrison et al.,
1983), so there is easily enough carbon entering the system annually to support this
ingrowth. The residual is also smaller than, but a significant portion of, the flux of
sinking organic carbon measured using sediment traps moored in the southern and central
Strait in 1996-1999 (31 – 365 g C m ⁻² yr ⁻¹ , Johannessen <i>et al.</i> , 2005). If the observed
seasonal pattern is repeated annually, then there must be a mechanism to remove the
winter DOC from the Strait by the spring. Likely processes include oxidation,
flocculation and settling to the sediments, or advection as part of the annual replacement
of Strait of Georgia water, which occurs with a time scale of about 65 days, according to
a recent model (Pawlowicz et al., 2007).
Quarterly measurements such as these cannot capture variability on daily, weekly or
monthly time scales, so the difference between the June and December measurements
represents a minimum change in residual inventory over that time period. The spatial
scale of sampling also misses patchiness on the scale of hundreds of meters or smaller,
but this is the first study to provide the requisite data to quantify the spatial and seasonal
variability of water column organic carbon in the Strait of Georgia, and to provide a
general depiction of the seasonal and spatial patterns.

Unfortunately, since we have organic carbon data for 2003 only, we cannot judge the
range of interannual variability in the observed patterns. A useful extension of this work
would be to characterize the source and age of the DOM in the Strait. Davis and Benner
(2007), for example, used carbon-normalized yields of amino acids to assign proportions
of labile, semi-labile and refractory organic matter to the DOC pool in the western Arctic
Ocean. They were able to discriminate terrigenous from marine-derived organic matter,
which would be helpful in understanding the observed seasonal variations in the
distribution of organic carbon in the Strait of Georgia.

4. Conclusions

Organic carbon enters the Strait of Georgia mainly at the surface, from a combination of in situ primary production and river discharge. The seawater that flows in below the surface of Juan de Fuca Strait and through Haro Strait into the Strait of Georgia brings with it very little organic carbon. In the spring and summer, there is a relatively high concentration of particulate organic carbon at the surface and throughout the water column of the northern Strait, with a pulse of probably marine-derived organic particles to the bottom associated with the spring bloom. However, most of the organic carbon in the study area is dissolved, particularly in the autumn and winter, when more than 80% of the TOC is dissolved.

The Strait of Georgia is dynamic with respect to organic carbon. About twice as much organic carbon passes through the Strait each year as is present in the year-round water

column inventory, which implies sub-annual residence times for the carbon. Much of this
carbon is advected out of the Strait or buried in the bottom sediments, but an amount
equivalent to about half of the standing inventory is oxidized in the water column or
sediments. This carbon may sustain microbial ecosystems or undergo photochemical
reactions, producing carbon dioxide, nutrients, free radicals and other photoproducts.
Conservative mixing explains about 70% of the observed variability in the concentration
of DOC, but there are also non-conservative seasonal variations, probably related to the
transport and breakdown of POC. In the deep Strait of Georgia, this non-conservative
variation amounts to a difference of about 15 g C m ⁻² between December and June, when
the concentration is low.
To understand fully the effects of organic carbon cycling in this environment, future
studies should examine the sources and fluxes of organic matter to the Strait and their
variability on time scales of days to seasons.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to Nes Sutherland for her painstaking analysis of the total and dissolved organic carbon and to Dr. Lisa Miller for the use of her TOC analyzer. We thank the officers, crew and scientific party of the *CCGS Vector* for assistance with the water sample collection. Lynne Campo and Andrea Ryan of Environment Canada provided Fraser River flow and DOC data free of charge. We thank two anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments. Funding for this work was provided by Fisheries and Oceans Canada and by Metro Vancouver (formerly the Greater Vancouver Regional District).

400	References
401	Baker, E.T. and Lavelle, J.W., 1984. The effect of particle size on light attenuation
402	coefficient of natural suspensions. Journal of Geophysical Research, 89, 8197-
403	8203.
404	Barwell-Clarke, J. and Whitney, F., 1996. Institute of Ocean Sciences nutrient methods
405	and analysis. Institute of Ocean Sciences, Fisheries and Oceans Canada, Sidney.
406	vi, 43.
407	Blough, N.V. and Sulzberger, B., 2003. Impact of photochemical processes in the
408	hydrosphere. Aquatic Sciences, 65, 317-319.
409	Bornhold, B.D., 1978. Carbon / nitrogen (C/N) ratios in surficial marine sediments of
410	British Columbia. Geological Survey of Canada, Scientific and Technical Notes
411	in Current Research, GSC-78-1C.
412	Brannon, J.M., Price, C.B., Reilly, F.J.J., Pennington, J.C. and McFarland, V.A., 1993.
413	Effects of sediment organic carbon on distribution of radiolabelled fluoranthene
414	and PCBs among sediment, interstitial water and biota. Bulletin of Environmental
415	Contamination and Toxicology, 51, 873-880.
416	Chen, C.A., Andreev, A., Kim, K. and Yamamoto, M., 2004. Roles of continental shelves
417	and marginal seas in the biogeochemical cycles of the North Pacific Ocean.
418	Journal of Oceanography, 60, 17-44.
419	Chevreuil, M., Chesterikoff, A. and Letolle, R., 1987. PCB pollution behaviour in the
420	River Seine. Water Research, 21, 427-434.

421	Davis, J. and Benner, R., 2007. Quantitative estimates of labile and semi-labile dissolved
422	organic carbon in the western Arctic Ocean: a molecular approach. Limnology
423	and Oceanography, 52, 2434-2444.
424	Doval, M.D., Perez, F.F. and Berdalet, E., 1999. Dissolved and particulate organic carbon
425	and nitrogen in the northwestern Mediterranean. Deep Sea Research I, 46, 511-
426	527.
427	Eglinton and Repeta, D., 2003. Organic matter in the contemporary ocean. In: Elderfield,
428	H., (Eds.)., The Oceans and Marine Chemistry. Elsevier-Pergammon, Oxford, pp.
429	145-180.
430	Gao, X. and Song, J., 2006. Main geochemical characteristics and key biogeochemical
431	carbon processes in the East China Sea. Journal of Coastal Research, 22, 1330-
432	1339.
433	Gobler, C.J. and Sanudo-Wilhelmy, S.A., 2003. Cycling of colloidal organic carbon and
434	nitrogen during an estuarine phytoplankton bloom. Limnology and
435	Oceanography, 48, 2314-2320.
436	Godin, G., Candela, J. and de la Paz-Vela, R., 1981. An analysis and interpretation of the
437	current data collected in the Strait of Juan de Fuca in 1973. Marine Geodesy, 5,
438	273-302.
439	Hansell, D.A. and Ducklow, H.W., 2006. Bacterioplankton distribution and production in
440	the bathypelagic ocean: directly coupled to particulate organic carbon export?
441	EOS, Transactions, 87, np.
442	Harrison, P.J., Mackas, D.L., Frost, B.W., Macdonald, R.W. and Crecelius, E.A., 1994.
443	An assessment of nutrients, plankton and some pollutants in the water column of

Juan de Fuca Strait, Strait of Georgia and Puget Sound, and their transboundary
transport. In: Wilson, R.C.H., Beamish, R.J., Aitkens, F. and Bell, J. (Eds.).,
Review of the marine environment and biota of Strait of Georgia, Puget Sound
and Juan de Fuca Strait. Fisheries and Oceans Canada, Vancouver, B.C. pp. 138-
174.
Harrison, P.J., Clifford, P.J., Cochlan, W.P., Yin, K., St. John, M.A., Thompson, P.A.,
Sibbald, M.J. and Albright, L.J., 1991. Nutrient and plankton dynamics in the
Fraser River plume, Strait of Georgia, British Columbia. Marine Ecology Progress
Series, 70, 291-304.
Harrison, P.J., Fulton, J.D., Taylor, F.J.R. and Parsons, T.R., 1983. Review of the
biological oceanography of the Strait of Georgia: pelagic environment. Canadian
Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences, 40, 1064-1094.
Hill, J.K. and Wheeler, P.A., 2002. Organic carbon and nitrogen in the northern
California current system: comparison of offshore, river plume and coastally
upwelled waters. Progress in Oceanography, 53, 369-387.
Johannessen, S.C., Macdonald, R.W. and Paton, D.W., 2003. A sediment and organic
carbon budget for the greater Strait of Georgia. Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf
Science, 56, 845-860.
Johannessen, S.C., Masson, D. and Macdonald, R.W., 2006. Distribution and cycling of
suspended particles inferred from transmissivity in the Strait of Georgia, Haro
Strait and Juan de Fuca Strait. Atmosphere-Ocean, 44, 17-27.

465	Johannessen, S.C., O'Brien, M.C., Denman, K.L. and Macdonald, R.W., 2005. Seasonal
466	and spatial variations in the source and transport of sinking particles in the Strait
467	of Georgia, British Columbia, Canada. Marine Geology, 216, 59-77.
468	LeBlond, P.H., 1983. The Strait of Georgia: functional anatomy of a coastal sea.
469	Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences, 40, 1033-1063.
470	Liu, K.K., Atkinson, L., Chen, C.T.A., Gao, S., Hall, J., Macdonald, R.W., McManus,
471	L.T. and Quinones, R., 2000. Exploring continental margin carbon fluxes on a
472	global scale. EOS, Transactions, 81, 641-642, 644.
473	Macdonald, R.W. and Crecelius, E.A., 1994. Marine sediments in the Strait of Georgia,
474	Juan de Fuca and Puget Sound: What can they tell us about contamination? In:
475	Wilson, R.C.H., Beamish, R.J., Aitkens, F. and Bell, J. (Eds.)., Review of the
476	marine environment and biota of Strait of Georgia, Puget Sound and Juan de Fuca
477	Strait. Fisheries and Oceans Canada, Vancouver, B.C., 101-137 pp.
478	Macdonald, R.W., Johannessen, S. C., Gobeil, C., Wright, C., Burd, B., van Roodselaar,
479	A and Pedersen, T. F., 2008. Sediment redox tracers in Strait of Georgia
480	sediments – can they inform us of the loadings of organic carbon from municipal
481	wastewater? Marine Environmental Research, this issue.
482	Mackas, D.L. and Harrison, P.J., 1997. Nitrogenous nutrient sources and sinks in the Juan
483	de Fuca Strait / Strait of Georgia / Puget Sound estuarine system: assessing the
484	potential for eutrophication. Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science, 44, 1-21.
485	Maranon, E., Cermeno, P., Fernandez, E., Rodriguez, J. and Zabala, L., 2004.
486	Significance and mechanisms of photosynthetic production of dissolved organic
487	carbon in a coastal eutrophic ecosystem. Limnology and Oceanography, 49, 1652-
488	1666.

489	Maranon, E., Cermeno, P. and Perez, V., 2005. Continuity in the photosynthetic
490	production of dissolved organic carbon from eutrophic to oligotrophic waters.
491	Marine Ecology Progress Series, 299, 7-17.
492	Masson, D., 2002. Deep water renewal in the Strait of Georgia. Estuarine, Coastal and
493	Shelf Science, 54, 115-126.
494	Masson, D., 2006. Seasonal water mass analysis for the Straits of Juan de Fuca and
495	Georgia. Atmosphere-Ocean, 44,
496	Masson, D. and Peña, M.A., 2008. Chlorophyll distribution in a temperate estuary: the
497	Strait of Georgia and Juan de Fuca Strait. Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science,
498	submitted,
499	Mortazavi, B. and Chanton, J.P., 2004. Use of Keeling plots to determine sources of
500	dissolved organic carbon in nearshore and open ocean systems. Limnology and
501	Oceanography, 49, 102-108.
502	Pawlowicz, R., Riche, O. and Halverson, M., 2007. The circulation and residence time of
503	the Strait of Georgia using a simple mixing-box approach. Atmosphere-Ocean,
504	45, 173-193.
505	Rember, R.D. and Trefry, J.H., 2004. Increased concentrations of dissolved trace metals
506	and organic carbon during snowmelt in rivers of the Alaskan Arctic. Geochimica
507	et Cosmochimica Acta, 69, 477-489.
508	Smith, S.V. and Hollibaugh, J.T., 1993. Coastal metabolism and the oceanic organic
509	carbon balance. Reviews of Geophysics, 31, 75-89.
510	Thomson, R.E., 1981. Oceanography of the British Columbia Coast. DFO, 291 pp.

511	Thomson, R.E., 1994. Physical oceanography of the Strait of Georgia - Puget Sound -
512	Juan de Fuca Strait system. In: Wilson, R.C.H., Beamish, R.J. and Aitkens, F.
513	(Eds.)., Review of the marine environment and biota of Strait of Georgia, Puget
514	Sound and Juan de Fuca Strait: Proceedings of the BC / Washington Symposium
515	on the Marine Environment, Jan 13 & 14, 1994. Canadian Technical Report of
516	Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences, 1948, Victoria, B. C., 398 pp.
517	Turner R.E., Rabalais, N. N., Justic, D., 2008. Gulf of Mexico hypoxia: Alternate states
518	and a legacy. Environmental Science and Technology 42: 2323-2327.
519	Waldichuk, M., 1957. Physical oceanography of the Strait of Georgia. Journal of the
520	Fisheries Research Board of Canada, 121, 321-486.
521	Wang, X., Chen, R.F. and Gardner, G.B., 2004. Sources and transport of dissolved and
522	particulate organic carbon in the Mississippi River estuary and adjacent coastal
523	waters of the northern Gulf of Mexico. Marine Chemistry, 89, 241-256.
524	

Table 1. Volume and seasonal pycnocline depth for each "box" of the study area. The area represented by each box is shown in Fig.1. The pycnocline depth is the depth of separation between the upper and lower layers, as described in Section 2.2.

527
528
529

Station number	Volume of box	April pycnocline	June pycnocline	September pycnocline	December pycnocline
inside box	$(10^9 \mathrm{m}^3)$	depth (m)	depth (m)	depth (m)	depth (m)
16	47.8	54	49	62	97
14	67.9	54	49	63	92
12	82.4	50	46	65	76
9	53.5	50	44	66	70
6	69.3	49	44	66	63
3	54.0	48	43	64	62
Malaspina	76.1	48	44	64	68
2	137	46	42	62	60
27	175	43	34	59	58
39	213	39	32	63	52
42	71.2	38	30	58	47
46	33.5	10	19	41	41
56	71.4	10	6	35	35
59	65.1	0	0	175	0
62	52.9	0	50	0	0
65	40.5	0	50	0	0
ADCP	45.3	0	50	0	0
69	65.6	119	50	58	120
72	90.7	104	43	54	116
75	105	96	50	45	114
102	28.4	96	48	50	115

Table 2. Areas and volumes of large zones used in Table 3. The station locations are shown in Figure 1.

534	
535	

Zone	Stations / Area (km²) boxes included		Volume (10 ⁹ m ³)
N. Strait of Georgia	16, 14, 12, 9, 6, Malaspina	3058	451
S. Strait of Georgia	2, 27, 39, 42, 46, 56	4408	701
Haro Strait / Victoria Sill	59, 62, 65, ADCP	2239	204
Juan de Fuca Strait	69, 72, 75, 102	2185	290

Table 3. Seasonal and annual average concentrations of DOC, POC and TOC in each zone. The seasonal values are the averages of all the station boxes included in each zone. (See Table 2.) The annual averages were calculated as the average of the four seasonal values, all given equal weight. N. SoG = northern Strait of Georgia, S.SoG = southern Strait of Georgia, Haro = Haro Strait / Victoria Sill, JdeF = Juan de Fuca Strait. Values in brackets following concentrations represent 1 standard deviation, calculated by propagation of error formulae from the standard deviation of replicates described in Section 2.2 of the text.

546	
547	

	Average	Average	Average	Average	Average	Average
	Surface	Deep	Surface	Deep	Surface	Deep
	[DOC]	[DOC]	[POC]	[POC]	[TOC]	[TOC]
	(µM)	(µM)	(µM)	(µM)	(µM)	(µM)
April						
N. SoG	70(2)	52(2)	25(3)	16(3)	94(3)	68(3)
S. SoG	74(2)	49(2)	30(3)	6.1(3)	100(3)	55(3)
Haro		57(2)		6.6(4)	1	64(3)
JdeF	48(2)	40(2)	14(4)	5.3(4)	62(3)	45(3)
June						
N. SoG	76(1)	47(1)	19(2)	13(2)	95(2)	60(2)
S. SoG	74(1)	51(1)	18(2)	8(2)	92(2)	59(2)
Haro	49(1)	44(1)	10(2)	6(2)	59(2)	49(2)
JdeF	52(1)	37(1)	10(2)	3(2)	62(2)	40(2)
September						
N. SoG	62(1)	53(1)	17(2)	6(2)	79(1)	59(1)
S. SoG	69(1)	55(1)	10(2)	4(2)	79(1)	60(1)
Haro	57(1)	49(1)	2(2)	78(2)	59(2)	57(2)
JdeF	52(1)	40(1)	4(2)	4(2)	57(2)	45(2)
December						
N. SoG	64(2)	59(2)	3(3)	5(3)	68(3)	65(3)
S. SoG	63(2)	53(2)	4(4)	6(4)	67(3)	59(3)
Haro		57(2)		5(4)		62(3)
JdeF	56(2)	40(2)	1(5)	8(5)	57(4)	47(4)
Annual ave	rage					
N. SoG	68(1)	53(1)	16(3)	10(3)	84(2)	63(2)
S. SoG	70(1)	52(1)	16(3)	6(3)	85(2)	58(2)
Haro	53(2)	52(1)	6(3)	6(3)	59(3)	58(3)
JdeF	52(2)	39(1)	7(3)	5(3)	59(3)	44(3)

Table 4. Sources, sinks and inventory of organic carbon in the Strait of Georgia

	DOC	POC	TOC	Reference
Sources				
Fraser and other river flux into Strait (10 ⁸ kg C yr ⁻¹)	5.3	2.2	7.5	Johannessen et al., 2003
Net primary production (10 ⁸ kg C yr ⁻¹)	4.9	2.4	7.3	Total production from Mackas and Harrison, 1997 (See Johannessen et al., 2003, for calculation of new production; multiplied by surface area used for this study)
Anthropogenic fluxes into Strait (10 ⁸ kg C yr ⁻¹)	< 0.83	< 0.37	< 1.2	Johannessen et al., 2003
Total sources of organic C (10 ⁸ kg C yr ⁻¹)	11	5.0	16	Sum of above
Sinks				
Burial in sediments of Strait (10 ⁸ kg C yr ⁻¹)	0	4.3	4.3	Johannessen et al., 2003
Net outflow through Juan de Fuca Strait (10 ⁸ kg C yr ⁻¹)	6.1	1.1*	7.2*	this study
Sinks: burial + outflow (10 ⁸ kg C yr ⁻¹)	6.1	4.3 (5.4*)	10 (12*)	Sum of above
Sink: oxidation, by difference (10 ⁸ kg C yr ⁻¹)	4.9	0.7	5.6	Sum of above
Strait of Georgia water column inventory (10 ⁸ kg C): averaged over four seasons	8.1	1.3	9.4	this study

^{*} Apparent outflow of particulate organic carbon may reflect in situ production in Juan de Fuca Strait, and not outflow from the Strait of Georgia

Table 5. Inventory of DOC residuals (10⁷ kg C) calculated, as described in Section 4, from the vertical distance to the mixing line in Fig. 4a: [DOC] vs. salinity. "SoG" = Strait of Georgia; "HS" = Haro Strait/ Victoria Sill; "JdF" = Juan de Fuca Strait.

Area	April	April	June	June	Sept.	Sept.	Dec.	Dec.
	surface	deep	surface	deep	surface	deep	surface	deep
N. SoG	0.30	-1.4	0.70	-3.8	-0.29	-0.39	0.99	1.0
S. SoG	1.1	-4.6	-0.35	-3.8	0.52	0.12	-0.81	3.2
SoG	1.4	-6.0	0.35	-7.6	0.23	-0.27	0.18	4.2
Total	1.7	-0.0	0.55	-7.0	0.23	-0.27	0.16	7.2
HS	0	0.76	-0.09	-0.56	0.24	1.0	0	1.3
JdF	-1.0	-0.06	0.10	-0.05	0.83	0.06	0.04	0.18

563 List of Figures

Fig. 1. The study area. Numbered, circled dots show locations of rosette and CTD casts, where water samples were collected for DOC and TOC analysis. The dots without numbers represent additional CTD casts. The small polygons marked around the rosette stations are those used in the carbon inventory calculations (see section 2.2 and Tables 1 and 2).

Fig. 2. Distribution of sampling stations and depths along a vertical transect from the mouth of Juan de Fuca Strait (station 102) to the northern end of the Strait of Georgia (station 16). The bottom shape (grey) actually shows the cast depth (usually < 5 m off the bottom); all the samples were taken in the water column. The inset map shows the transect route in plan view. Plot generated in Ocean Data View, Schlitzer (2006).

Fig. 3. Vertical profile of DOC concentration in April, June, September and December along the transect shown in Figure 1, overlain with salinity contour lines The vertical lines represent rosette cast locations. Plot generated in Ocean Data View with VG-gridding, Schlitzer (2006).

Fig. 4. Relationships between [DOC] and (a) salinity, (b) the concentration of dissolved oxygen, (c) the concentration of nitrate for all cruises (n=267). All three fits were somewhat improved by omitting the December data (see section 3.1), but for completeness all data are shown and included.

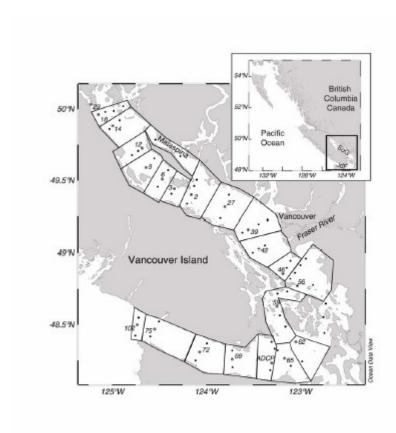
Fig. 5. Vertical profile of POC concentration in April, June, September and December along the transect shown in Figure 1, overlain with salinity contour lines The vertical lines represent rosette cast locations. Plot generated in Ocean Data View with VG gridding, Schlitzer (2006).

Fig. 6. Inventories of DOC (bold) and POC (italic) in the upper and lower layers of the northern and southern Strait of Georgia, Haro Strait / Victoria Sill and Juan de Fuca Strait (gC m⁻²; calculated as inventory divided by total surface area for comparison with average rates of primary production). Horizontal lines represent the average depth of separation of the upper and lower layers at the stations included in each zone in each season (see Tables 1 and 2). The water column is relatively well-mixed in the Haro Strait / Victoria sill zone, and there was no clear separation of layers at most stations in that zone. By propagation of errors from the zone average concentrations shown in Table 3, and assuming no error in the defined volume of each zone, the standard deviation in these inventories is 1-5 gC m⁻².

Fig. 7. (a) Monthly average discharge of the Fraser River and (b) monthly average [DOC] in the river, measured at Hope. Environment Canada, unpublished data, 2007. The discharge and concentration measured in 2003 were comparable to the average observed over the past 10 years.

608 609 610 611	([POC]/c) in April, June, September and December along the transect shown in Figure 1, overlain with salinity contour lines. The vertical lines represent rosette cast locations. Plot generated in Ocean Data View with VG gridding, Schlitzer (2006).
612 613	Fig. 9. Vertical profile of DOC residual (see text section 41) in April, June, September
614 615 616	and December along the transect shown in Figure 1. The residuals represent the vertical distance of each DOC point from the regression line of [DOC] on salinity in Figure 4a. A high value indicates that there is a high concentration of DOC relative to the conservative
617	mixing line.

618 Fig.1



623 Fig.2

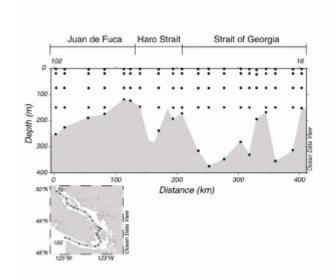
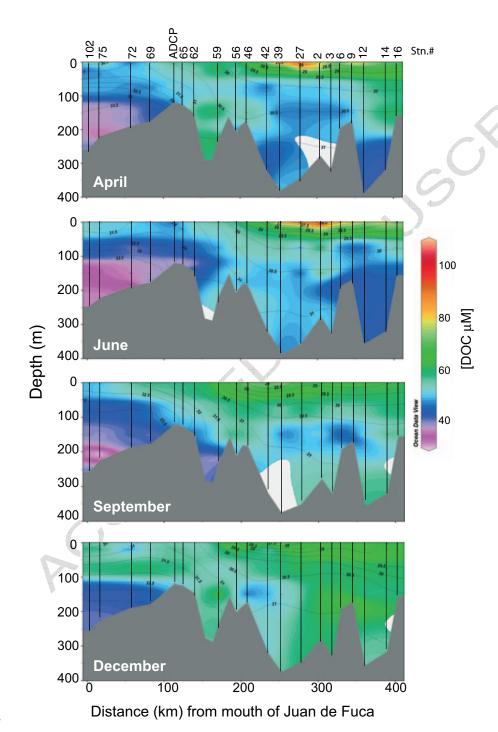
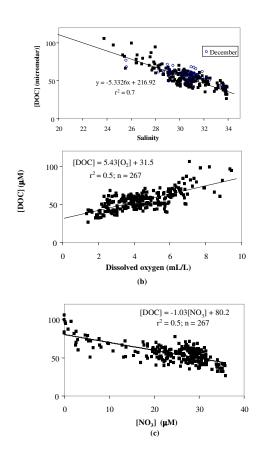




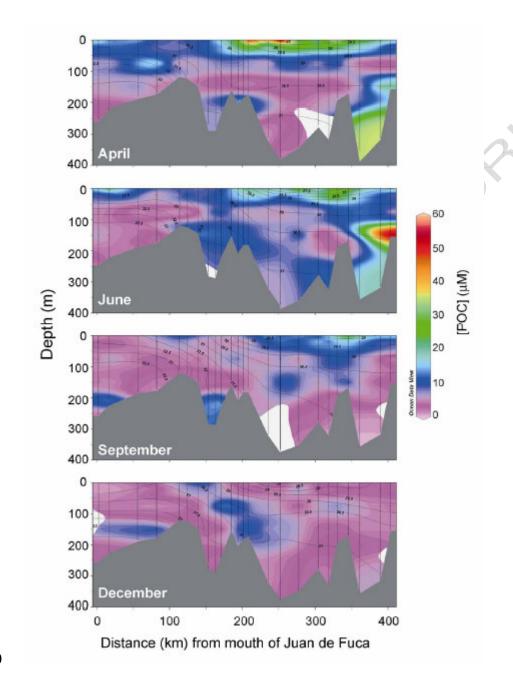
Fig.3



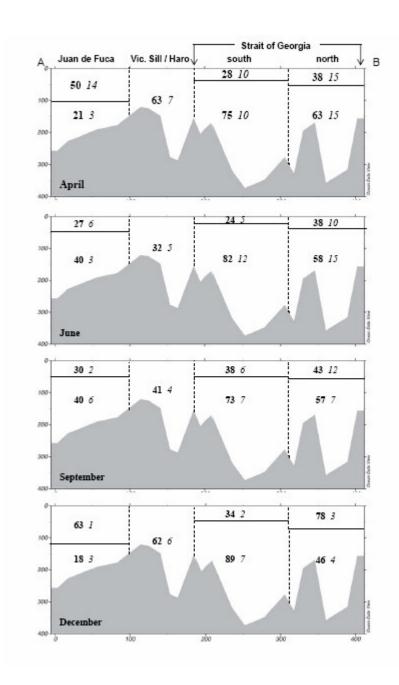
633 Fig.4



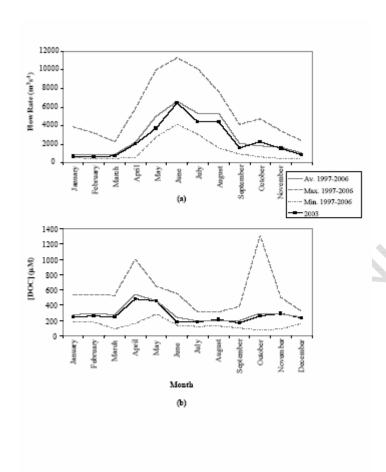
637 Fig.5



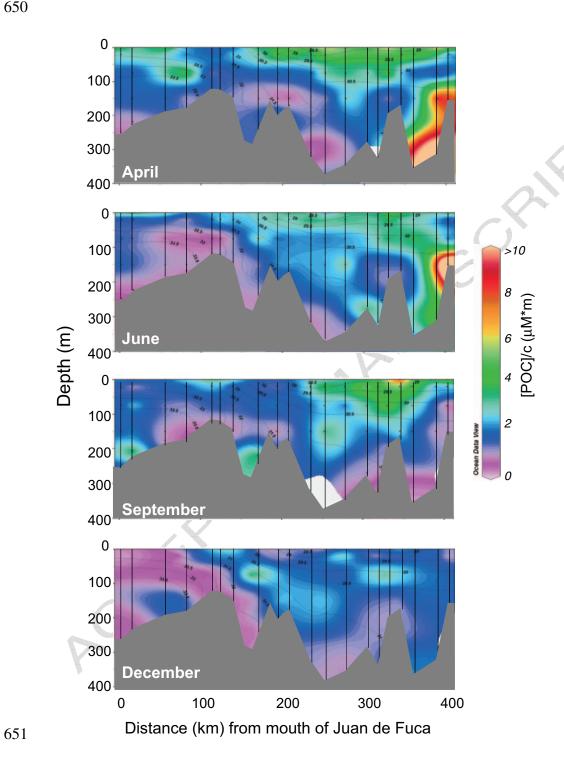
641 Fig.6



645 Fig.7



649 Fig.8



652 Fig.9

653

