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- 1 Thorium isotopes tracing the iron cycle at the Hawaii Ocean Time-series Station ALOHA
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11 Abstract

The role of iron as a limiting micronutrient motivates an effort to understand the supply and removal of lithogenic trace metals in the ocean. The long-lived thorium isotopes (232Th and ²³⁰Th) in seawater can be used to quantify the input of lithogenic metals attributable to the partial dissolution of aerosol dust. Thus, Th can help in disentangling the Fe cycle by providing an estimate of its ultimate supply and turnover rate. Here we present time-series (1994-2014) data on thorium isotopes and iron concentrations in seawater from the Hawaii Ocean Time-series station ALOHA. By comparing Th-based dissolved Fe fluxes with measured dissolved Fe inventories, we derive Fe residence times of 6-12 months for the surface ocean. Therefore, Fe inventories in the surface ocean are sensitive to seasonal changes in dust input. Ultrafiltration results also reveal that Th has a much lower colloidal content than Fe, implicating a predominant role for sub-micron organic ligands specific to Fe, or possibly inorganic Fe colloids. In the deep ocean, Fe approaches a solubility limit while Th, surprisingly, is continually leached from lithogenic particles. This distinction in solubility suggests Th is not a good tracer for Fe in the deep (>2 km) ocean. While uncovering divergent behavior of these elements in the water column, this study finds that dissolved Th flux is a suitable proxy for the supply of Fe from dust

1. Introduction

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Determination of the supplies of iron to the ocean is relevant to understanding Earth's climate and the ocean's ecology. Ocean storage of carbon dioxide is mediated by iron supply in large areas of the ocean where Fe is a limiting resource, both today (Moore et al., 2013) and during the ice ages (Martínez-García et al., 2014). Additionally, the marine distribution of diazotrophic phytoplankton that modulate the nitrogen cycle may be determined by Fe supply rates (Ward et al., 2013). Atmospheric dust is arguably the major source of Fe to the euphotic zone (Boyd et al., 2010; Conway and John, 2014; Jickells et al., 2005; Tagliabue et al., 2014). Debate on the sources of marine Fe ensues largely because the techniques to estimate the supply rate of Fe from dust in particular, or Fe residence times in general, are only beginning to be developed. In this study, we assess the utility of thorium isotopes in seawater to provide rate information on the Fe cycle. In addition to producing a measure of total dust flux to the ocean (Deng et al., 2014; Hsieh et al., 2011), by pairing ²³²Th, sourced from dust, with radiogenic ²³⁰Th (or ²³⁴Th) that provides a timescale of thorium flux, one can make quantitative estimates of the trace metals released by dust dissolution (Hayes et al., 2013a). Our study site is the Hawaii Ocean Time-series station ALOHA (22° 45' N, 158° W) (Church et al., 2013; Karl and Lukas, 1996) in the subtropical North Pacific, where Asian dust is deposited in spring (Boyle et al., 2005; Hyslop et al., 2013; Prospero et al., 2003). Presenting time-series data spanning 20 yrs (1994-2014), we demonstrate that the behaviors of Fe and Th in seawater are consistent with a variable dust source to the surface ocean. Thorium-based fluxes indicate that the residence time of dissolved Fe in the upper 125 m of the water column is less than one year. In the sub-surface

ocean (>250 m), the thorium and iron cycles begin to diverge considerably. These divergences reveal new insights into the marine geochemistry of these elements.

2. Background

2.1 Finding the timescale: thorium removal

The rate information on trace metal cycling that we seek is obtained by exploiting the natural radioactive disequilibrium between insoluble ²³⁰Th and its soluble parent ²³⁴U in seawater. The oceanic distribution of ²³⁴U (half-life 245,620 yrs (Cheng et al., 2013)) is homogeneous within a few parts per thousand, as ²³⁸U concentrations vary only with salinity (Owens et al., 2011) and ²³⁴U/²³⁸U ratios vary by less than 1 per mil (Andersen et al., 2010). Therefore, the decay of ²³⁴U produces ²³⁰Th at a known rate everywhere in the ocean. Due to its insolubility, thorium adsorbs onto sinking particulate matter, a process called scavenging, on a timescale of years, much faster than ²³⁰Th decay (half-life 75,584 yrs (Cheng et al., 2013)).

Thus by comparing the amount of ²³⁰Th that remains in seawater to the amount produced by U decay, one can calculate a removal timescale (Eq. 1, Fig. 1), or residence time (τ), of thorium in seawater. This technique is analogous to that used with a more commonly used flux tracer, the shorter-lived ²³⁴Th (half-life 24.1 days). By the same principles, using its production rate from parent isotope ²³⁸U, ²³⁴Th inventories can also be used to determine the scavenging rate of Th in seawater (Buesseler et al., 1992; Coale and Bruland, 1985).

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$$\tau_{Th}(z) = \frac{\int_0^{z_{230}} Th \, dz}{\int_0^{z_{234}} U * \lambda_{230} \, dz}$$
 Eq. 1

To meet the requirements of a steady-state assumption between source and removal terms, we calculate thorium residence times in an integrated sense, from the surface to a particular depth. Thus as one integrates deeper into the water column, the ²³⁰Th inventories reflect longer timescales of removal. Residence times calculated in this way also neglect

dispersal fluxes by ocean circulation. Lateral gradients in oceanic ²³⁰Th concentrations are generally small (Hayes et al., 2014), while large vertical gradients may make vertical fluxes significant, for instance due to upwelling (Luo et al., 1995).

2.2 Finding the source: lithogenic metal fluxes

The dominant isotope of seawater thorium is primordial and long-lived (half-life 14.1 x 10⁹ yrs) ²³²Th. It is added to the ocean only through the partial dissolution of continental material, which in the context of station ALOHA we consider to be primarily aerosol dust. As scavenging tendencies are characteristic of all isotopes of an element, once in the water column, ²³²Th undergoes scavenging removal (Fig. 1) assumedly at the same rate, i.e. with the same residence time, as ²³⁰Th (or ²³⁴Th). Assuming a steady-state for Th concentrations, with knowledge of the Th residence time, derived from ²³⁰Th, one can calculate the flux of dust-derived ²³²Th necessary to support the observed ²³²Th inventory (Eq. 2). As in calculating thorium residence times, the dissolved ²³²Th flux derived is reflective of the integrated depth zone, rather than at a particular depth. More details on ²³²Th flux calculations are reported by Hayes et al. (2013a).

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$$^{232}Th \, flux(z) = \frac{\int_0^{z_{232}} Th \, dz}{\tau_{Th}(z)}$$
 Eq. 2

In comparison to the relative simplicity of the supply and removal terms in the thorium cycle, seawater iron cycling has many more terms to consider. These include biological uptake, remineralization, redox chemistry, anthropogenic or hydrothermal sources, in addition to supply by dust and removal by scavenging (Fig. 1). Scavenging of Fe also occurs but at a different rate than that of Th. The utility of this element pair is their common source from dust. We propose using dissolved ²³²Th flux as a proxy for the Fe released during dust dissolution. This can be

done with knowledge of the Fe/Th ratio in the dust and the relative fractional solubility of the two elements ($S_{\text{Fe/Th}}$, Eq. 3).

Dust-dissolved Fe flux = dissolved ²³²Th flux \times (Fe/Th)_{dust} \times S_{Fe/Th} Eq. 3

By weight, the Asian desert dust which undergoes long-range transport over the North Pacific contains 232 Th at 14.3 ± 0.8 ppm, based on fine grained (<8 µm) source materials (McGee, 2009; Serno et al., 2014), and Fe at 3.8 ± 0.4 %, based on a literature compilation by Mahowald et al. (2005). Therefore, we assume the Fe/Th ratio in dust at station ALOHA of 2660 \pm 320 g/g or $11,040 \pm 1450$ mol/mol. These ratios are close to the average for the upper continental crust of Fe/Th = 3271 g/g = 13,553 mol/mol (Taylor and McLennan, 1995).

The relative fractional solubility of Fe and Th in dust is currently unconstrained. Hayes et al. (2013a) assumed $S_{\text{Fe/Th}} = 1$ as a starting point, based solely on the similarly insoluble nature of these two elements in seawater. While much more work is needed to constrain this parameter, here we continue to assume $S_{\text{Fe/Th}} = 1$, and our observations of the time-series variability in the seawater Fe/²³²Th ratio (section 4.4) support this assumption.

2.3 Iron residence times

We cannot rule out significant marine Fe sources by anthropogenic (e.g., derived from fossil fuel combustion) aerosols, continental margin sediments, or deep-sea hydrothermal vents. We can, however, entertain the thought that if dust were the only Fe source to the water column, the comparison between measured dissolved Fe inventories to the source (dust-dissolved Fe flux) would produce a measure of the turnover rate or residence time of dissolved Fe in seawater (Eq. 4). This residence time again represents the residence time within the integrated water column. Additional sources of Fe, such as combustion aerosols or hydrothermal fluids, would cause the

dust-based Fe residence time to be an overestimate. Relevant to iron cycling, this residence time provides a rough timescale over which one can expect Fe concentration to vary as a result of variation in sources, such as springtime Asian dust events (Boyle et al., 2005).

Dissolved Fe residence time = Fe inventory ÷ dust-dissolved Fe flux Eq. 4

3. Materials and Methods

3.1 Sample collection during 2012-2014

Samples were collected on several cruises on the R/V *Kilo Moana*, led by the Center for Microbial Oceanography: Research and Education (C-MORE), to station ALOHA in July-September 2012 (HOE-DYLAN), May-June 2013 (HOE-PhoR-I), September 2013 (HOE-PhoR-II) and March 2014 (HOE-BOE-I). Depth profiles for ²³⁰Th/²³²Th analysis were collected from the ship's Niskin bottle rosette, filtered with a 0.45 µm Acropak cartridge filter, and acidified to pH 1.8 with Savillex-distilled 6 M HCl.

Filtered surface seawater (0.4 μ m) was collected for ²³²Th (which requires smaller volumes than for ²³⁰Th), as well as for dissolved Fe, using the trace-metal clean MITESS sampler (Bell et al., 2002) at near daily time intervals on the 2012-2013 C-MORE cruises. MITESS collection methods, including "Vane" sampling for Fe depth profiles, on the HOE campaigns are discussed fully by Fitzsimmons et al. (submitted). Within 3 hours of collection, the seawater was filtered using 0.4 μ m polycarbonate track etch filters (PCTE, Whatman). Particulate samples were immediately frozen, and dissolved filtrates were acidified to pH 2 with trace metal clean HCl. The filters used for filtering MITESS water were analyzed for particulate Fe and ²³²Th (representing on average 0.7 liters of seawater).

On HOE-PhoR-II, cross flow filtration was performed to assess colloidal ²³²Th/²³⁰Th using protocols developed to study colloidal Fe (Fitzsimmons and Boyle, 2014a). Seawater was

pre-filtered at 0.45 µm and, within 1-2 hours, pumped over a Millipore Pellicon XL filter made of regenerated cellulose with a nominal molecular weight cutoff of 10 kDa, roughly equivalent to an effective pore size of 10 nanometers. Both permeate and retentate fractions were analyzed to determine any loss of Th by adsorption, which turned out to be minimal (88-100% dissolved Th recovery).

3.2 Hawaii Ocean Time-series (HOT) seawater

Seawater samples, typically 0.5 liter size, have been collected during the HOT program for trace metal analysis at MIT periodically since 1997. Most of these samples were collected as unfiltered water using the MITESS sampler (Bell et al., 2002) and subsequently preserved by acidification to pH 2 with HCl. Further sampling details are given by Boyle et al. (2005). We also make use of literature seawater ²³²Th/²³⁰Th data, collected at station ALOHA in September 1994 (HOT-57), reported by Roy-Barman et al. (1996).

3.3 Thorium and iron analyses

Dissolved 230 Th concentrations at station ALOHA are as low as 10^{-18} moles per kilogram seawater (10^{-18} mol 230 Th = 0.1746 µBq). Therefore, for measurement by inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS), 4-5 liter water samples are required. Thorium concentrations were determined by isotope dilution by spiking with 229 Th (not present in natural seawater). Sample preparation (pre-concentration, acid digestion, and chromatographic purification) was performed using published methods (Anderson et al., 2012; Auro et al., 2012). A portion of the 230 Th samples were prepared and analyzed at the Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory (L-DEO), using an Element XR single-collector ICP-MS. The remaining 230 Th samples were prepared at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) and analyzed using a

Neptune Plus multi-collector ICP-MS at Brown University. Th-232 was also analyzed in samples prepared for ²³⁰Th.

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Analysis of ²³²Th, at 10⁻¹⁵ mol or femtomoles per kg seawater, required smaller samples (200-800 mL) and was measured on archive HOT and HOE samples for which sample volume did not allow ²³⁰Th determination. While not as prone to contamination as some other trace elements, clean lab techniques were required to produce blanks that were consistent and low enough to allow detection of the relatively small sample size of ~20-40 femtomoles ²³²Th. Therefore, modifications of the cited procedures for Th analysis (Anderson et al., 2012; Auro et al., 2012) were made. Instead of co-precipitation with added Fe, pre-concentration of ²³²Th was achieved using magnesium hydroxide co-precipitation, such as that described for Pb by Reuer et al. (2003). Thorium was purified using a smaller amount (100 µl rather than 1 ml) of anionexchange resin (AG1-X8) on columns fashioned from Teflon shrink-tubing. Samples were loaded onto AG1-X8 resin in 8 M HNO₃ and Th was eluted with 6 M HCl (instead of 12 M HCl, to reduce acid blank), following Edwards et al. (1987). Blank determinations were made on 125 mL aliquots of acidified seawater samples whose ²³²Th content had been determined during previous 230 Th analysis. The mean procedural blank (n = 6) was 3.5 ± 1.6 fmol 232 Th, resulting in a detection limit of 4.8 fmol ²³²Th. Samples for seawater ²³²Th were prepared and analyzed at MIT, using a Micromass IsoProbe multi-collector ICP-MS.

In this study, we refer to measured trace metal concentrations as dissolved (filtered at 0.4 or 0.45 μ m), particulate (>0.4 μ m), or total (acidified unfiltered water). The "total" concentrations in this sense are sometimes referred to as "total dissolvable", allowing for the possibility that some forms of Th are not preserved by acidification or collected with coprecipitation. Since our goal in interpreting seawater 230 Th concentrations is to determine

scavenging rates based on uranium decay, we made small (0-10%) corrections for the dissolved 230 Th released from dust (or lithogenic material in general). This correction is based on measured dissolved 232 Th and a lithogenic 230 Th/ 232 Th mole ratio of 4 x 232 Th (Roy-Barman et al., 2009). The corrected dissolved 230 Th values are denoted as "xs".

Particulate ²³²Th and particulate Fe, were analyzed at Florida State University by total digestion of the filter samples and subsequent analysis by ICP-MS, using slightly modified versions of published protocols (Ho et al., 2011; Morton et al., 2013; Upadhyay et al., 2009). In brief, samples were microwaved (CEM MARS Xpress) for 40 minutes at 180°C with HNO₃ and H₂O₂ (to digest the organic and less refractory biogenic and authigenic components) and HF (to digest the more refractory lithogenic components). The detection limit (based on 3 standard deviations of the digested acid blanks) for particulate ²³²Th was 8 fmol/L (n=19) and the particulate Fe detection limit was 0.2 nmol/L (n=21). Dissolved Fe was measured by isotope dilution after pre-concentration onto nitrilotriacetate resin on the Micromass IsoProbe ICP-MS at MIT (Lee et al., 2011). Further details on Fe analyses are discussed by Fitzsimmons et al. (submitted).

Data presented in this study can be accessed in the Supplemental Material online.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 ²³⁰Th-²³²Th depth profiles to 1.5 km

We focus first on the 2012-2013 thorium isotope depth profiles in the upper 1.5 km of the water column for a sense of the type of data used to calculate thorium fluxes (Fig. 2). High resolution depth profiles were analyzed in late July 2012, early June 2013 and late September 2013. The mixed layer depths during these sampling casts (based on 0.125 kg/m³ density change)

were 54, 33 and 53 m, respectively, and below 100 m these profiles displayed little distinguishing hydrography (Figs. 2C, 2D, 2E).

For dissolved ²³²Th (Fig. 2A), there were increased concentrations near the surface, minimum concentrations at the depth of maximum chlorophyll concentration (the DCM, ~120-140 m), and a relatively constant local concentration maximum at 500-600 m depth. At intermediate depths (900-1200 m), each profile exhibited smooth variations in concentration but concentrations at the different sampling dates vary by up to 30%.

The surface ²³²Th maxima are consistent with aerosol dust as the major source of ²³²Th to station ALOHA, as recognized by Roy-Barman et al. (1996). An interesting feature of these high-depth resolution measurements is that the surface (5 m) ²³²Th concentration was lower than that in the core of the mixed layer (25 m depth) at these three sampling times. This is perhaps related to small-scale scavenging and export dynamics, or particle cycling in general.

The coincidence of the subsurface chlorophyll maximum and the minimum in ²³²Th is apparently a universal feature for lithogenic trace elements such as Al, Ti and Fe (Dammshäuser et al., 2013; Fitzsimmons and Boyle, 2014b; Fitzsimmons et al., in press; Ohnemus and Lam, in press). This was also true for dissolved and particulate Fe at Station ALOHA during this study (Fitzsimmons et al., submitted). Increased particle aggregation efficiency, through the formation of fecal pellets, may more efficiently scavenge dissolved ²³²Th from this depth.

Scavenged ²³²Th may be partially released through remineralization of particles in mesopelagic depths (300-500 m). Thus remineralization may be responsible for some of the subsurface ²³²Th maxima at 400-600 m depth. In support of this view, this depth range coincides with a rapid increase in phosphate concentration and apparent oxygen utilization, as inferred from HOT climatology (http://hahana.soest.hawaii.edu/hot/trends/trends.html). On the other

hand, the attenuation of particulate organic carbon at station ALOHA is most intense at shallower depths, between 100 and 200 m (Bishop and Wood, 2008).

The dominant basalts of the Hawaiian Islands (tholeiitic) are low in Th content, 0.8 ± 0.4 ppm, according to available data in PetDB (www.earthchem.org/petdb) (Lehnert et al., 2000). Nonetheless, with our seawater observations, we cannot fully rule out lateral input of Th from the Hawaiian Islands. For instance, dissolved Mn concentrations reach a maximum near 800 m depth at station ALOHA (Boyle et al., 2005) that may reflect a coastal source of metals.

The variability in ²³²Th concentration at intermediate depths (900-1400 m) could be due to the effect of hydrothermal activity at the nearby Loihi seamount. The iron oxide particles associated with hydrothermal plumes strongly scavenge Th, and depleted deep-sea Th concentrations have been observed up to 1400 km away from a vent site in the Atlantic (Hayes et al. 2014). We note however, that while variability in ²³²Th could suggest hydrothermal scavenging, intriguingly, this effect is apparently weak enough to not significantly perturb the near-linear ²³⁰Th profiles (Fig. 2). Time-variability in the influence of the Loihi hydrothermal system on trace metals at ALOHA is discussed more fully by Fitzsimmons et al. (submitted).

The ²³⁰Th profiles also displayed interesting temporal variations. The theory of reversible scavenging contends that a steady-state is achieved between thorium adsorption and desorption on uniform particles that settle at a constant rate (Bacon and Anderson, 1982). Under these assumptions, one expects ²³⁰Th concentrations to increase linearly with depth with a boundary condition of zero concentration at the surface. While the observed depth profiles are essentially linear (Fig. 2B), it appears that mixing at the surface homogenizes ²³⁰Th concentrations to some depth. Interestingly, the layer of relatively homogeneous ²³⁰Th extends deeper than the density-defined mixed layer (30-50 m), down to the deep chlorophyll maximum (Fig. 2). This

phenomenon is worthy of future time-series study. Potentially a remnant of deep winter mixed layers (< 100 m), the homogeneous surface ²³⁰Th layer could also represent some combination of vertical mixing and enhanced scavenging related to export of organic matter from the euphotic zone.

Another significant observation is that while the surface 230 Th concentrations from June and September 2013 were nearly identical (1.2 μ Bq/kg), the surface 230 Th concentrations from July 2012 were about a factor of 2 lower (0.6 μ Bq/kg). This implies a relatively rapid change in scavenging and/or export production. Future time-series studies are warranted to further assess the short-term (daily-monthly) variability in euphotic zone 230 Th concentrations and how closely these changes can be correlated with organic matter export. In the next section, we assess what changes in the removal timescale are implied by these results.

4.2 Surface thorium residence times

Residence times of dissolved ²³⁰Th as described in section 2.1 using the 2012-2014 results are presented in Figure 3. In this assessment, we integrate production due to ²³⁴U decay (based on salinity) and the measured ²³⁰Th inventory to 150 m depth. This allows comparison to Th residence times calculated on the basis of ²³⁴Th: ²³⁸U disequilibrium established by previous work at station ALOHA, during April 1999-March 2000 (Benitez-Nelson et al., 2001) and June-July 2008 (Buesseler et al., 2009). The ²³⁴Th results differ slightly from the approach used here for dissolved ²³⁰Th since the ²³⁴Th fluxes are calculated using unfiltered seawater. Since adsorbed ²³⁰Th concentrations are on the order of ~10-20% of total ²³⁰Th (Roy-Barman et al., 1996), residence times based on total ²³⁴Th can be expected to be up to 10-20% lower than those based on the dissolved phase only.

We also assessed the influence of vertical mixing on surface 230 Th inventories, which could influence the derived residence time. Assuming a vertical mixing coefficient (K_v) of 10^{-5} m²/s (Charette et al., 2013), using a second-order polynomial regression of the 230 Th depth profiles (above 250 m), we can calculate the vertical mixing rate of 230 Th, as $K_v \times d^2$ Th/dz². The results indicate that vertical mixing adds 230 Th to surface water at a rate of less than 5% of production due to 234 U decay. Therefore we can assume that vertical mixing does not significantly affect the 230 Th residence time estimates at Station ALOHA.

Nearly all of the thorium residence time estimates fall in the range of 1 to 3 years with no significant seasonal cycle (Fig. 3). In the HOT climatology, organic carbon export at 150 m is highest in May-August. While export seasonality is relatively weak in this oligotrophic, subtropical location (Church et al., 2013), long-term monitoring has revealed episodic export events related to diatom blooms and symbiotic cyanobacteria, typically in late July and early August (Karl et al., 2012).

The concept of "residence time" used here is based on a steady-state assumption for sources and sinks. Therefore with a residence time of \sim 2 years, one would not expect significant variation in the removal timescale over a period of months. However, the range in observed Th residence times for Station ALOHA indicates that this steady-state assumption is not quite correct. More precisely, the steady-state for scavenging removal of Th appears to hold within a factor of 2-3. The range in removal timescales observed based on 230 Th is similar to that based on 234 Th. Thus, it seems the rate of thorium scavenging can change dynamically at Station ALOHA possibly related to export pulses, but the data are consistent with a long-term average thorium residence time of 2 ± 1 years in the upper 150 m.

4.3 Surface ²³²Th concentrations

With relatively good control on the removal timescale of thorium, we turn to observed variability in surface ²³²Th concentrations. Barring significant fluxes due to lateral circulation, this variability represents the balance between removal by scavenging and input by dust. Smaller volume requirements for analysis (<1 liter) allowed us to investigate ²³²Th from daily, monthly and decadal timescales.

Collected during a series of cruises in summer 2012 (HOE-DYLAN), daily-scale samples of 250 mL were analyzed for dissolved and particulate ²³²Th. Sample size required combining the samples from 2-4 days for dissolved ²³²Th, contributing to some degree of smoothing. Dissolved concentrations ranged from 45-90 fmol/kg (Fig. 4C). Particulate ²³²Th, although measured at a higher, daily resolution, had a higher range of variability, from 10-290 fmol/kg. Of the total seawater ²³²Th (dissolved + particulate) during HOE-DYLAN, on average 42% was in the particulate phase (range 26-66%). This fraction particulate is higher than that for ²³⁰Th (~15%, Roy-Barman et al., 1996) since particulate ²³²Th represents both adsorbed Th and structural Th in mineral dust.

The decadal time-series observations (1994-2014) of total ²³²Th (Fig. 4A) exhibit a range in concentration (~50-300 fmol/kg) that is consistent with the higher frequency observations of particulate Th in 2012-2013. Since most of the data fall within the range of 50-150 fmol/kg, we are not fully confident in the five observations of elevated concentrations (150-300 fmol/kg) observed in 1994, 1998, and 1999 samples. In particular, the 1998 and 1999 samples were collected using a moored, rather than ship-based, MITESS sampler in which bottles were filled with 1 M HCl prior to filling with seawater. Mooring-collected water at times had higher Th concentrations than ship-based sampling (Fig. 4) and thus the possibility of contamination during sampling, sample storage, or sample analysis cannot be fully discounted. In fact, the 1994 results

from Roy-Barman et al. (1996) came from samples collected on the same Niskin bottle cast. Spatial variability, related to mesoscale eddies, is another potential source of rapid changes in surface ²³²Th concentration. Conservatively excluding the elevated observations >150 fmol/kg, no significant temporal term trend can be derived.

When all observations are placed on a monthly axis (Fig. 4B), there is a hint that elevated surface ²³²Th concentrations are observed during the spring (Mar-Jun) season of Asian dust transport over the North Pacific. It appears that dissolved ²³²Th may be relatively constant throughout the year, consistent with the Th residence times of ~2 yrs derived in section 4.2. Unfortunately, few observations of dissolved ²³²Th have been yet made during the spring season when dust input can increase by 2 orders of magnitude (Hyslop et al., 2013). Of course, these data are sparse, but they do provide a baseline of variability against which future trace metal observations can be measured.

4.4 Fe/Th ratio behavior in surface water and in colloidal content

Before applying the ²³²Th flux technique, comparison of the time-series behavior of Fe (Fitzsimmons et al., submitted) and ²³²Th is informative in terms of relative solubility and relative removal rates (Fig. 5). This is possible because both elements have been analyzed on the same samples from HOE-DYLAN, HOE-PhoR and many of the HOT archive samples.

In the context of daily, monthly and decadal variability, it appears that the ratio of total and particulate Fe/²³²Th tends to be at or above the dust-ratio of 11,040 mol/mol, while dissolved Fe/²³²Th is at or below the dust-ratio (Fig. 5A & 5B). These observations are consistent with input at the dust Fe/²³²Th ratio and a strong sink from biological uptake for Fe. Thus, the dissolved phase is left depleted in Fe relative to ²³²Th, while the particulate phase becomes enriched in biogenic Fe. The total Fe/Th ratio often exceeds the dust ratio as well, possibly

because biogenic particulate Fe may be efficiently recycled and thus may reside in the surface longer than particulate Th.

The partitioning between dissolved and total/particulate Fe/ 232 Th centers around the dustratio (Fig. 5C). We interpret this to mean that the relative fractional solubility of Fe and 232 Th (S_{Fe/Th}) is close to 1. An alternate interpretation would be that 232 Th is more efficiently leached from dust, leaving the particulate phase enriched in Fe/ 232 Th and the dissolved phase depleted in Fe/ 232 Th. However, given the known ability for phytoplankton to efficiently utilize Fe from dust sources (e.g., (Rubin et al., 2011)), the assumption of S_{Fe/Th} = 1 during dissolution followed by rapid biological uptake of Fe seems more likely.

Consideration of the size-partitioning of Fe and Th within the dissolved phase provides another constraint on the pathways these elements take after being released by dust. This investigation was also used as an opportunity to determine whether 232 Th and 230 Th have coherent speciation, as assumed for the 232 Th flux method. Figure 6 presents these results based on measurements of ultra-filtered seawater from HOE-PhoR-II in September 2013. We define colloidal Th as dissolved (< 0.45 μ m) minus soluble (< 10 kDa).

Of the measured dissolved Th, less than 25% was found in the colloidal phase (0.45 μm - $10~kDa\approx0.01~\mu m$). Furthermore, at least at 15 m, 130 m (DCM), and 1000 m, the colloidal percentage for ^{232}Th and ^{230}Th agreed within the uncertainty of the measurements. This result implies coherent speciation of these thorium isotopes despite very different sources and supports the use of ^{230}Th as a tracer for ^{232}Th removal. This coherent speciation result agrees with previous measurements of the $^{232}Th/^{230}Th$ ratio of filtered (< 0.2 μm) and ultrafiltered (< 1 kDa) solutions from the Mediterranean Sea (Roy-Barman et al., 2002).

The role of colloids in Th scavenging has much history and deserves a few words of context. Early models of scavenging inferred that Th likely goes through a colloidal intermediate before being scavenged by larger, sinking particles (Honeyman et al., 1988; Honeyman and Santschi, 1989). Subsequent attempts at measuring colloidal Th focused largely on ²³⁴Th (see review by (Guo and Santschi, 2007)), in part due to its use in quantifying organic matter export. A generalization might be made that outside of the coastal ocean, colloidal ²³⁴Th was found to be relatively small (~<15%) proportion of the total dissolved (e.g., (Guo et al., 1997; Huh and Prahl, 1995; Moran and Buesseler, 1992)), which is also consistent with our ²³⁰Th/²³²Th results. Recent observations from the North Atlantic (Hayes et al., submitted), however, observed scavenging characteristics consistent with a strong role for Th colloids as predicted by Honeyman and Santschi (1989), even at open-ocean particle concentrations of < 10 µg/kg seawater. Further observations on the geographic distribution of colloidal Th are clearly warranted.

Our paired observations of Th and Fe size partitioning nonetheless provide additional information on their physicochemical speciation in a comparative sense. Dissolved Fe has much more colloidal content at ALOHA than Th (Fig. 6). Above the DCM, dissolved Fe can be >50% colloidal. In the deeper water column, to 1.5 km depth, colloidal Fe is relatively constant at 40% (with the exception of one sample < 10% colloidal at 650 m). Since Fe and ²³²Th are apparently solubilized from dust with equal fractional solubility, this difference in size-speciation is most likely also due to the selective uptake or complexation of Fe by organic substrates. Ligands, in the form of macromolecular organic molecules or organic colloidal particles, most likely complex Fe released from dust quite rapidly in the upper water column (Bressac and Guieu, 2013; Mendez et al., 2010). It is the size of these organic Fe-binding ligands that are thought to convert such a large percentage of dissolved Fe to colloidal size, as other similarly hydrolyzable

metals such as Al and Ti do not have significant colloidal components (Dammshäuser and Croot, 2012).

Similar to Al and Ti, the abundance of macromolecular ligands (>10 kDa) with an affinity to complex Th must also be small compared to the source of dissolved Th from dust. This finding does not necessarily contradict previous evidence for significant organic complexation of Th in seawater (Santschi et al., 2006). It does require, however, that any significant Th complexation is done by small (<10 nm), low-molecular weight organic molecules, at least at station ALOHA.

Greater uptake of Fe into the colloidal phase is another piece of evidence that suggests that dissolved Fe is cycled more rapidly than Th in the upper water column. The innovation of the ²³²Th flux method is our ability to be quantitative about the rates of Fe removal, which are presented in the next section.

4.5 Iron residence times

Using the 2012-2013 Th profile data, we extend our calculations for Th residence time down to 1.5 km water depth in Fig. 7A. Beginning at the 1-2 years residence times calculated by integrating to the DCM, the Th residence times increase nearly linearly with integration depth to 14 years at 1.5 km. Dividing the integrated dissolved ²³²Th inventories by these residence times gives our estimate of dissolved ²³²Th flux, as function of integration depth, in Fig. 7B.

In June and Sept. 2013, the dissolved ²³²Th flux increased with integration depth and begins to level-off around 500 m. This reflects that, at these times, the inventory of dissolved ²³²Th increased with integration depth slightly more quickly than the increase in Th residence time with depth. Interestingly, in July 2012, the dissolved ²³²Th flux decreased with integration depth, reflecting that the Th residence time increased more quickly than the dissolved ²³²Th

inventory, largely because the mixed layer ²³⁰Th concentrations were exceptionally low at this time. Estimated ²³²Th fluxes are clearly quite sensitive to short-term variability in scavenging rates. We suggest further time-series analysis along with modelling efforts that contain circulation and realistic particle fluxes to determine more quantitatively the sensitivities involved in calculating dissolved ²³²Th fluxes during moderate changes in scavenging rates and dust input.

The three flux profiles converge around 1000 m depth. This is encouraging that over longer integration times, 10-15 years in this case, we estimate consistent lithogenic metal fluxes at multiple time points. Using Eq. 1, the dissolved 232 Th fluxes are simply converted to dust-dissolved Fe fluxes, using $S_{Fe/Th} = 1$ and $(Fe/Th)_{dust} = 11,040$ mol/mol, shown in the second x-axis in Fig. 7B. The depth profiles of dissolved Fe concentrations from the same sampling campaigns are shown in Fig. 7C (Fitzsimmons et al., submitted). Finally, using Eq. 2, by integrating Fe inventories and dividing by the dust-dissolved Fe fluxes, we estimate the residence time of dissolved Fe, as a function of integrated depth in Fig. 7D.

In the upper 250 m, the residence time of dissolved Fe is 6 months to 1 year. This range agrees well with the 6 month residence time estimated previously at station ALOHA (Boyle et al., 2005), and with other estimates of surface ocean dissolved Fe residence times from the Atlantic based on measured Fe concentrations and assumptions about soluble aerosol deposition (Bergquist and Boyle, 2006; Jickells, 1999; Ussher et al., 2013). With such fast turnover times, dissolved Fe concentrations in surface waters can be expected to vary on monthly to yearly timescales with changes in the seasonal input of dust from Asia, which is exactly what was observed over the HOT and HOE time-series (Fitzsimmons et al., submitted).

Available aerosol data suggest that Asian dust transport over the North Pacific has no significant trend from 1981 to 2000 (Prospero et al., 2003) and perhaps a 6% decline over the

past 10 years (Hyslop et al., 2013). Because of a nearly immediate impact on surface water Fe concentrations and the associated ecological consequences, it is important to monitor future changes in Fe sources. Sources such as Asian desert dust in our changing climate may vary independently of other Fe sources such as combustion aerosols.

As one integrates further from 250 m to 1500 m, while the dissolved Fe fluxes change only moderately, the dissolved Fe residence times increase quickly to about 10 years at 1500 m depth. This is due to the large increase in Fe concentrations at these depths due to remineralization of Fe from sinking organic material and some portion of Fe accumulated and transported to ALOHA laterally via deep ocean circulation. There is potentially additional input of Fe at ~1 km depth due to Loihi hydrothermal activity. Additional lateral sources would cause our dust-based dissolved Fe residence time to be an overestimate, implying even faster timescales of Fe removal. On the other hand, as discussed in the next section, the 10 year Fe residence time at 1500 m could indeed be an underestimate, if the geochemical cycles of Th and Fe become decoupled at greater depths where dust dissolution is no longer a significant source of dissolved Fe.

4.6 Fe and Th decoupling in the deep ocean

Our focus on the upper water column stems from our motivation to understand trace metal cycling due to aerosol deposition and export production. We can extend our analysis of Fe and Th into the deep ocean (4.5 km water depth at station ALOHA) to learn about the geochemistry of these elements over decadal-to-centennial timescales. In Figure 8, we compiled available deep profiles from station ALOHA for dissolved Fe (Boyle et al., 2005; Fitzsimmons et al., submitted; Morton, 2010) and dissolved ²³²Th/²³⁰Th (this study; Roy-Barman et al. (1996)).

Variability in dissolved Fe at 1-1.5 km is clearly apparent, possibly due to hydrothermal inputs. Below 1.5 km depth, Fe, ²³²Th, and ²³⁰Th display relatively constant profile shapes, at least during the sparse sampling dates. From 2 km depth to the bottom, dissolved Fe is nearly constant or slightly decreases with depth to about 0.5 nmol/kg, while dissolved ²³²Th actually increases with depth from 50 to 180 fmol/kg below 3000 m. This divergence in profile shape already suggests a decoupling of the behavior of these elements in the deep ocean.

The deep ocean appears to contain an additional source for ²³²Th. This source is potentially related to resuspension of diagenetically-altered sediments at the seafloor (Hayes et al., 2013a; Okubo et al., 2012). The bottom-increase in ²³²Th begins nearly 2 km above the seafloor, much high than typical benthic vertical mixed layers (50-100 m) (Richards, 1990). This phenomenon, as observed with km-scale nepheloid layers (McCave, 1986), suggests that the ²³²Th at abyssal depths of station ALOHA is being mixed in laterally from locations where isopycnals impinge on surrounding bathymetry.

Also related to bottom sediment resuspension, the July 2012 profile of ²³⁰Th displays a negative concentration anomaly, or deficit of ²³⁰Th, with respect to the linear profile near the seafloor (Fig. 8C). This bottom ²³⁰Th deficit is indicative of enhanced bottom scavenging as observed in many parts of the deep North Pacific (Hayes et al., 2013b; Okubo et al., 2012). It is non-intuitive that in a bottom layer where the scavenging removal of Th is enhanced compared to the overlaying water column, that this layer would also be a strong source of ²³²Th. The resuspension of bottom sediments may produce such a strong release of ²³²Th that this source more than compensates for enhanced scavenging.

Dissolved Fe, on the other hand, appears unaffected by bottom processes, displaying only a slight decrease in concentration with depth (Fig. 8A). The slight decrease with depth may be

related to scavenging of Fe as deep water masses age (Bruland et al., 1994). If we extend our integrated residence time approach to the deep Fe profile at station ALOHA (Fig. 9), we derive a whole ocean residence for dissolved Fe of only 30 years. This is significantly shorter than the 100-300 year estimates of the ocean residence time for dissolved Fe based on deepwater scavenging (Bergquist and Boyle, 2006; Bruland et al., 1994). This discrepancy arises most likely because the deep ocean source of ²³²Th does not add dissolved Fe to the water column at a crustal ratio, unlike what occurs during dust dissolution. Thus, the ²³²Th flux method for Fe residence times cannot be extended to the deep ocean.

The question remains: how is an element like Th, a trace component of continental material, added to the deep ocean without a simultaneous release of a major crustal element like Fe? The answer is likely related to solubility.

Dissolved Fe in the deep central North Pacific at ~0.5 nmol/kg has been found to be at near solubility equilibrium with Fe(III) hydroxide (Kitayama et al., 2009; Kuma et al., 2003). These studies determine Fe(III) solubility by adding gamma-emitter ⁵⁹Fe(III) to filtered seawater, allowing the solutions to come to solubility equilibrium with Fe(III) hydroxide over several weeks, subsequently filtering the seawater and then counting the ⁵⁹Fe gamma-activity on the final filtrate. The observed ~0.5 nmol/kg solubility is elevated over Fe solubility in inorganic seawater because of the presence of organic ligands (Liu and Millero, 2002). Thus, since the deep Pacific is in a near saturation state, dissolved Fe can no longer be expected to increase, even in the presence of increasing Th concentrations.

A problem with this argument is that electrochemically-determined Fe ligand concentrations at station ALOHA are up to 2 nmol/kg, well in excess of dissolved Fe concentrations (Rue and Bruland, 1995), as found in most of the world ocean (Gledhill and

Buck, 2012). However, it may not be appropriate to compare Fe ligand determinations directly with seawater solubility. In either estimation, deepwater dissolved Fe is at least close to (within the same order of magnitude) our best estimates of Fe solubility.

While much less in known about Th solubility in seawater, our large underestimate of Fe residence time in the deep ocean implies that the deep North Pacific, with Th at ~180 fmol/kg, is not near Th solubility equilibrium. Near seawater pH and ionic strength, the solubility of Th(IV) hydroxide may be as high as 0.5-1 nmol/kg, compared to 1 fmol/kg for crystalline ThO₂, due to the amorphous nature of Th(OH)₄ solids (Neck et al., 2003). Despite our findings of low colloidal Th content, electrochemical methods suggest organic Th ligands may also exist at nanomolar concentrations (Hirose, 2004). Significant organic Th could of course be present at station ALOHA if the complexes are smaller than ~10 nm. We advocate direct measurements of Th solubility in seawater, perhaps using radio-tracer additions with similar protocols as developed for Fe (Kuma et al., 1996; Schlosser and Croot, 2008), to confirm that Th exists in the deep ocean at much less than its equilibrium solubility. This would explain the fact that dissolved Th concentrations continue to grow from lithogenic sources in the deep North Pacific, where Fe concentrations become fixed by a solubility limit.

5. Conclusions

Using time-series data from the North Pacific, this study finds variability in surface Fe and ²³²Th concentrations consistent with a source from Asian dust. The dust source likely has a relative Fe/Th fractional solubility close to 1. The application of ²³⁰Th scavenging rates to ²³²Th inventories allows the accurate prediction of the flux of dissolved metals from dust in the remote surface ocean. The source flux of dissolved Fe, derived from ²³⁰Th-based timescales, suggests that dissolved Fe in the upper 250 m is turning over in 1 year or less. A compelling implication

of this result is that Fe delivery to phytoplankton can be expected to vary with seasonal-tointerannual changes in dust delivery from Asia. Continued monitoring of Fe-dependent biological processes, such as nitrogen fixation, are crucial to anticipate the consequences of changing land-use and/or industrial processes that may significantly affect eolian sources of Fe to the North Pacific. In addition, we hypothesize that iron reaches a solubility limit in the deep sea (>2 km) while Th does not, and the influx of Th cannot be used as a proxy for Fe sources in this environment. Thus, the kinetic box model approach to tracing dust-derived elements (Fig. 1) appears applicable only in the upper water column (~250 m). Acknowledgements We acknowledge funding from the W.O. Crosby Postdoctoral Fellowship to CTH and the National Science Foundation through C-MORE, NSF-OIA EF-0424599 to EAB, and NSF-DMR 1157490 supported RW and PLM. Soumen Mallick and Alberto Saal are thanked for facilitating mass spectrometry performed at Brown University. Major thanks go to Tara Clemente and Sam Wilson for their leadership roles on C-MORE cruises, and to Rick Kayser, Gonzalo Carrasco, Abigail Noble, Simone Moos, Mengli Chen, and Rene Boiteau for their help in collecting samples returned to MIT. **Figure Captions** Figure 1. Tracing the Fe cycle with the behavior of the long-lived thorium isotopes. Thorium-230 has a well-known source from the radioactive decay of its parent ²³⁴U. This allows a quantitative estimate of Th removal due to scavenging on to particles. This removal rate can be used to estimate the steady-state source of ²³²Th from the partial dissolution of aerosol dust. While Fe has many more terms in its biogeochemical cycling, its ultimate source from dust dissolution can be predicted using known ²³²Th fluxes and the relative solubility of Fe and Th. Assuming Fe is derived only from dust, one can then estimate a maximum Fe residence time or minimum turnover rate. Figure 2. Depth profiles from the Hawaii Ocean Time-series station ALOHA from sampling campaigns in 2012-2013. In July 2012 and June 2013, profiles for dissolved ²³²Th (A) and ²³⁰Th (B) were collected in two casts (shallow to 250 m and deep to 1500 m) on different days.

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Relative uncertainty in isotope concentrations was 1-5% and thus errors bars would be close to the symbol size. The hydrographic profiles (C-F) are shown from the shallow cast only.

Figure 3. Thorium residence times, or turnover rates, calculated for the upper 150 m at station ALOHA on a monthly axis combining data from 1999 to 2014. These times are calculated by comparing integrated Th inventories to integrated production by uranium decay. The ²³⁴Th-based results are reported by Buesseler et al. (2009) and Benitez-Nelson et al. (2001). Note the ²³⁰Th-based results from March 2014 are not based on profiles but on single samples from 25 m, assuming uniform concentrations in the upper 150 as seen in the 2012-2013 profiles (Fig. 2).

Figure 4. Station ALOHA time-series data from the surface ocean (0-10 meters depth) on dissolved (filtered at 0.45 or 0.4 μ m), total (unfiltered) and particulate (digested 0.4 μ m filter) 232 Th in full time-series (1994-2014) (A), monthly climatology (1991-2014) (B) and during a daily resolution period in July-Sept. 2012 (C). Note change in scale of y-axes at 160 fmol/kg. Results from 1994 were reported by Roy-Barman et al. (1996). Open circles represent samples collected using a mooring rather than ship-based sampling (Sec. 4.1). Relative uncertainty in dissolved, total and particulate 232 Th concentrations was 1-10%.

Figure 5. Station ALOHA time-series data from the surface ocean (0-10 meters depth) (A), monthly climatology (B) and a daily resolution period in July-Sept. 2012 (C) of the dissolved (filtered at 0.45 or 0.4 μ m), total (unfiltered) and particulate (digested 0.4 μ m filter) Fe/²³²Th ratio. Note change in scale of y-axes at 25,000 mol/mol. The dotted lines represent the Fe/²³²Th ratio of Asian dust of 10,800 \pm 1,200 mol/mol (1 σ). Note in (C), four samples with particulate Fe/²³²Th ratios greater than 40,000 are not shown. Open circles represent samples collected using a mooring rather than ship-based sampling (Sec. 4.1).

Figure 6. Depth profiles of the percentage of dissolved metals ($<0.45~\mu m$ for Th or $<0.4~\mu m$ for Fe) that are in the colloidal size fraction (roughly 10-400 nm) from station ALOHA in late September 2013. Colloidal content is estimated by subtracting the metal concentration in 0.4 μm filtered seawater (dissolved) from that passing through a 10 kDa membrane filter by cross-flow filtration (soluble). Colloidal fractions of 232 Th and 230 Th agree within uncertainties, while Fe colloidal content is 2-3 times larger.

Figure 7. Application of dissolved ²³²Th fluxes to predict the residence time of dissolved Fe in seawater at station ALOHA during 2012-2013. Dissolved Th residence times (A) are calculated as a function of integration depth using radioactive disequilibrium between ²³⁴U and ²³⁰Th. The integrated ²³²Th inventories divided by these residence times produces an estimate of the dissolved ²³²Th flux (B) due to dust dissolution. Assuming equal fractional solubilities dissolution and a near crustal composition for Asian dust, the flux of dissolved Fe from dust can be predicted using the second x-axis in (B). The integration of dissolved Fe inventories based on concentration profiles shown in (C) (Fitzsimmons et al., submitted), produces our estimate of dissolved Fe residence time in (D, note change in scale of x-axis at 1.2 yrs).

Figure 8. Full ocean depth profiles from station ALOHA for dissolved Fe (A), ²³²Th (B) and ²³⁰Th (C) using data from this study (July 2012) and compiled from the literature. Iron data from

April 2001 and July 2002 were reported by Boyle et al. (2005) and from June 2002 by Morton (2010). Dissolved Th data from 1994 were reported by Roy-Barman et al. (1996). Note in (C) the dotted grey line is the linear regression of ²³⁰Th data between 1 and 3.5 km, which when extended to the seafloor demonstrates that the bottom two samples are less than expected from reversible scavenging and imply enhanced scavenging (assuming no other processes affect supply and removal of ²³⁰Th here).

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Figure 9. Application of dissolved ²³²Th fluxes to predict Fe residence times for the full depth ocean at station ALOHA. Here data from July 2012 are used to calculate ²³²Th fluxes (A). The depth profiles of Fe concentrations presented in Fig. 8 were averaged to calculate the dissolved Fe residence times as a function of integration depth (B). The 30 year ocean residence for dissolved Fe is significantly lower than the century-scale residence times derived by other approaches, suggesting that ²³²Th flux may not be an accurate proxy for Fe sources in the deep ocean.

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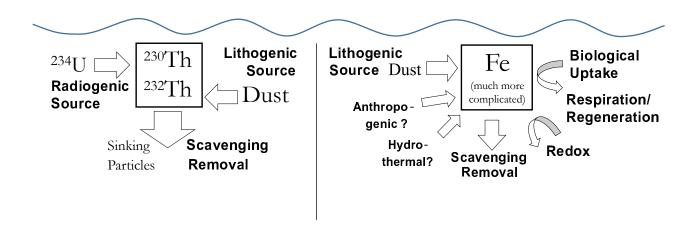
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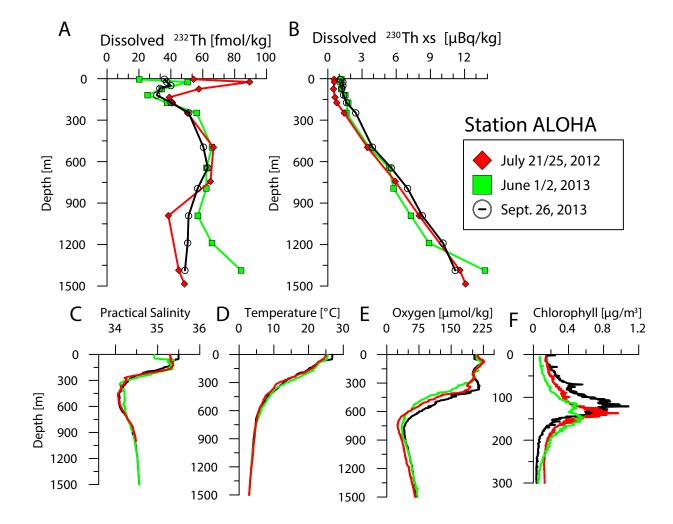
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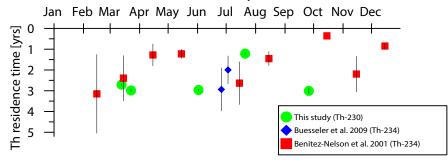
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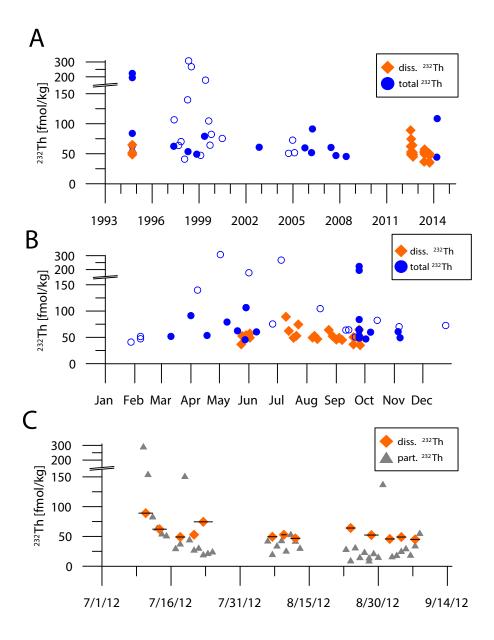
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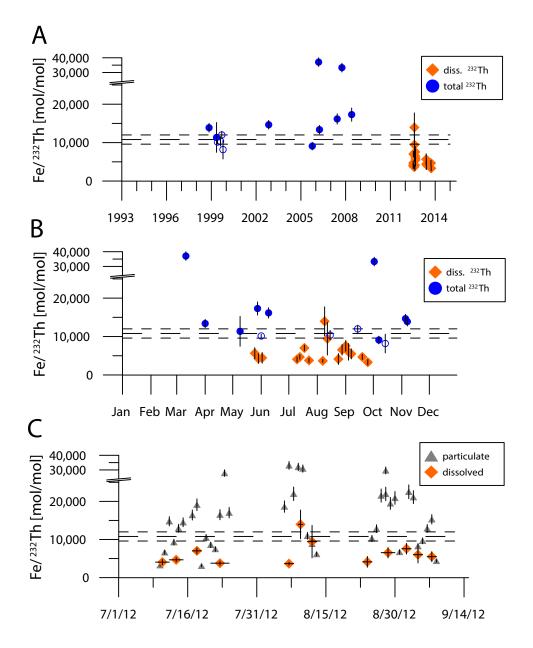


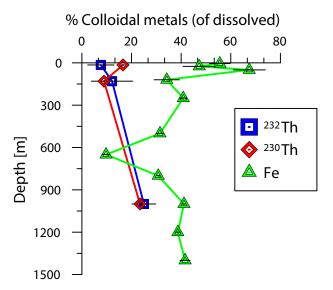


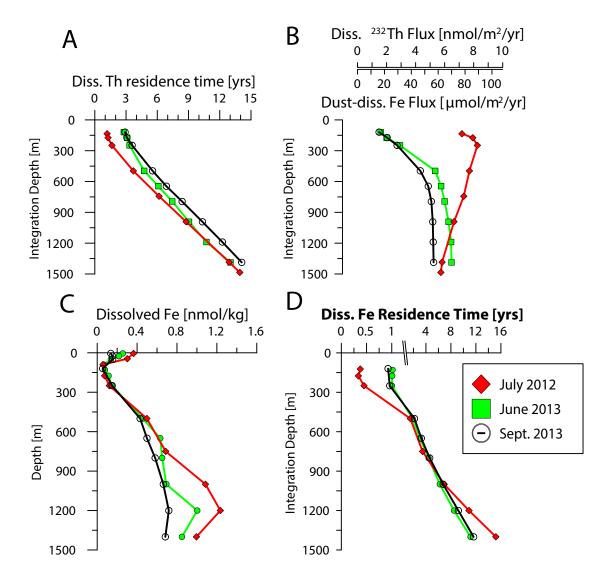
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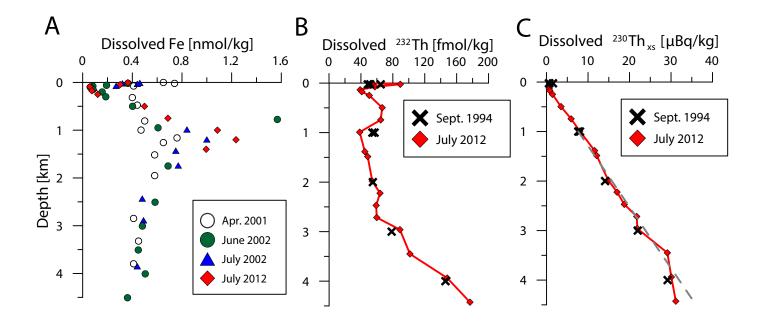


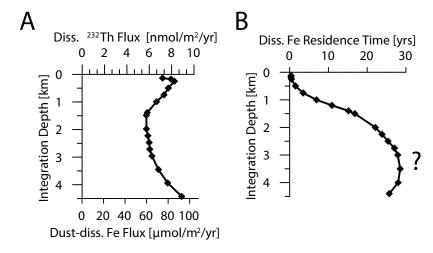












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