

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

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10 **Abstract**

11 The role of iron as a limiting micronutrient motivates an effort to understand the supply and
12 removal of lithogenic trace metals in the ocean. The long-lived thorium isotopes (²³²Th and
13 ²³⁰Th) in seawater can be used to quantify the input of lithogenic metals attributable to the partial
14 dissolution of aerosol dust. Thus, Th can help in disentangling the Fe cycle by providing an
15 estimate of its ultimate supply and turnover rate. Here we present time-series (1994-2014) data
16 on thorium isotopes and iron concentrations in seawater from the Hawaii Ocean Time-series
17 Station ALOHA. By comparing Th-based dissolved Fe fluxes with measured dissolved Fe
18 inventories, we derive Fe residence times of 6-12 months for the surface ocean. Therefore, Fe
19 inventories in the surface ocean are sensitive to seasonal changes in dust input. Ultrafiltration
20 results further reveal that Th has a much lower colloidal content than Fe does, despite a common
21 source. On this basis, we suggest Fe colloids may be predominantly organic in composition, at
22 least at Station ALOHA. In the deep ocean (>2 km), Fe approaches a solubility limit while Th,
23 surprisingly, is continually leached from lithogenic particles. This distinction has implications
24 for the relevance of Fe ligand availability in the deep ocean, but also suggests Th is not a good
25 tracer for Fe in deep waters. While uncovering divergent behavior of these elements in the water
26 column, this study finds that dissolved Th flux is a suitable proxy for the supply of Fe from dust
27 in the remote surface ocean.

28 **1. Introduction**

29 Determination of the supplies of iron to the ocean is relevant to understanding Earth's
30 climate and the ocean's ecology. Ocean storage of carbon dioxide is mediated by iron supply in
31 large areas of the ocean where Fe is a limiting resource, both today (Moore et al., 2013) and
32 during the ice ages (Martínez-García et al., 2014). Additionally, the marine distribution of
33 diazotrophic phytoplankton that modulate the nitrogen cycle may be determined by Fe supply
34 rates (Ward et al., 2013). Atmospheric dust is arguably the major source of Fe to the euphotic
35 zone (Boyd et al., 2010; Conway and John, 2014; Jickells et al., 2005; Tagliabue et al., 2014).
36 Debate on the sources of marine Fe ensues largely because the techniques to estimate the supply
37 rate of Fe from dust in particular, or Fe residence times in general, are only beginning to be
38 developed.

39 In this study, we assess the utility of thorium isotopes in seawater to provide rate
40 information on the Fe cycle. By pairing ^{232}Th , sourced from dust, with radiogenic ^{230}Th (or
41 ^{234}Th) that provides a timescale of thorium flux, one can make quantitative estimates of both the
42 total dust flux to the ocean (Deng et al., 2014; Hsieh et al., 2011) and the flux of trace metals
43 released by dust dissolution (Hayes et al., 2013a). Our study site is the Hawaii Ocean Time-
44 series Station ALOHA (22° 45' N, 158° W) (Church et al., 2013; Karl and Lukas, 1996) in the
45 subtropical North Pacific, where Asian dust is deposited in spring (Boyle et al., 2005; Hyslop et
46 al., 2013; Prospero et al., 2003). Presenting time-series data spanning 20 yrs (1994-2014), we
47 demonstrate that the behaviors of Fe and Th in seawater are consistent with a variable dust
48 source to the surface ocean. Thorium-based fluxes indicate that the residence time of dissolved
49 Fe in the upper 125 m of the water column is less than one year. In the sub-surface ocean (>250

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

52 **2. Background**

53 *2.1 Finding the timescale: thorium removal*

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

63 Thus by comparing the amount of ^{230}Th that remains in seawater to the amount produced
64 by U decay, one can calculate a removal timescale (Eq. 1, Fig. 1), or residence time (τ), of
65 thorium in seawater. Equation 1 is written with radionuclide concentrations in terms of activity
66 (decays per unit time per unit seawater). The denominator contains a ^{230}Th term to account for
67 ^{230}Th -decay, which, as mentioned above, can be neglected on the timescale of water column
68 processes (for instance, seawater ^{234}U activity is 46.6 mBq/kg at salinity 35, while typical ^{230}Th
69 activities are 1-10 $\mu\text{Bq/kg}$). This approach is analogous to that used with a more commonly used
70 flux tracer, the shorter-lived ^{234}Th (half-life 24.1 days). By the same principles, using its
71 production rate from parent isotope ^{238}U , ^{234}Th inventories can also be used to determine the
72 scavenging rate of Th in seawater (Buesseler et al., 1992; Coale and Bruland, 1985), except that

73 ^{234}Th -decay is much more significant in the water column balance (^{238}U activities being ~40
74 mBq/kg compared to euphotic zone ^{234}Th activities of 30-40 mBq/kg).

$$75 \quad \tau_{Th}(z) = \frac{\int_0^z {}^{230}\text{Th} dz}{\int_0^z ({}^{234}\text{U} - {}^{230}\text{Th}) * \lambda_{230} dz} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

76 To meet the requirements of a steady-state assumption between source and removal
77 terms, we calculate thorium residence times in an integrated sense, from the surface to a
78 particular depth. Thus as one integrates deeper into the water column, the ^{230}Th inventories
79 reflect longer timescales of removal. Residence times calculated in this way also neglect
80 dispersal fluxes by ocean circulation. Lateral gradients in oceanic ^{230}Th concentrations are
81 generally small (Hayes et al., 2015a), while large vertical gradients may make vertical fluxes
82 significant, for instance due to upwelling (Luo et al., 1995).

83 *2.2 Finding the source: lithogenic metal fluxes*

84 The dominant isotope of seawater thorium is primordial and long-lived (half-life 14.1 x
85 10^9 yrs) ^{232}Th . It is added to the ocean only through the partial dissolution of continental
86 material, which in the context of Station ALOHA we consider to be primarily aerosol dust. Once
87 in the water column, ^{232}Th is assumed to undergo scavenging removal (Fig. 1) at the same rate,
88 i.e. with the same residence time, as ^{230}Th (or ^{234}Th), as scavenging tendencies are characteristic
89 of all isotopes of an element. Assuming a steady state for Th concentrations, with knowledge of
90 the Th residence time derived from ^{230}Th , one can calculate the flux of dust-derived ^{232}Th
91 necessary to support the observed ^{232}Th inventory (Eq. 2). As in calculating thorium residence
92 times, the derived dissolved ^{232}Th flux is reflective of the integrated depth zone, rather than at a
93 particular depth. More details on ^{232}Th flux calculations are reported by Hayes et al. (2013a).

$$94 \quad {}^{232}\text{Th flux}(z) = \frac{\int_0^z {}^{232}\text{Th} dz}{\tau_{Th}(z)} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

95 In comparison to the relative simplicity of the supply and removal terms in the thorium
 96 cycle, seawater iron cycling has many more terms to consider. These include biological uptake,
 97 remineralization, redox chemistry, anthropogenic or hydrothermal sources, in addition to supply
 98 by dust and removal by scavenging (Fig. 1). Scavenging of Fe also occurs but at a different rate
 99 than that of Th. The utility of this element pair is their common source from dust. This is, of
 100 course, an idealization of the “simple” thorium cycle. Th will be involved to some extent with
 101 (perhaps inadvertent) uptake into and remineralization from organic matter (Barbeau et al., 2001;
 102 Hirose and Tanoue, 1994). We have also observed a strong hydrothermal sink for Th in the
 103 Atlantic (Hayes et al., 2015a) in addition to an abyssal source of Th from sediments in the North
 104 Pacific (Hayes et al., 2013a). Nonetheless, particularly in the remote surface ocean well above
 105 the seafloor, dust dissolution and scavenging appear to be the dominant terms for Th cycling.
 106 Thus, in this manuscript we propose using dissolved ^{232}Th flux as a proxy for the Fe released
 107 during dust dissolution. This can be done with knowledge of the Fe/Th ratio in the dust and the
 108 relative fractional solubility of the two elements ($S_{\text{Fe/Th}}$, Eq. 3).

$$109 \quad \text{Dust-dissolved Fe flux} = \text{dissolved } ^{232}\text{Th flux} \times (\text{Fe/Th})_{\text{dust}} \times S_{\text{Fe/Th}} \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

110 By weight, the Asian desert dust that undergoes long-range transport over the North
 111 Pacific contains ^{232}Th at 14.3 ± 0.8 ppm, based on fine grained ($<8 \mu\text{m}$) source materials
 112 (McGee, 2009; Serno et al., 2014), and Fe at 3.8 ± 0.4 %, based on a literature compilation by
 113 Mahowald et al. (2005). Therefore, we assume the Fe/Th ratio in dust at Station ALOHA of 2660
 114 ± 320 g/g or $11,040 \pm 1450$ mol/mol. These ratios are close to the average for the upper
 115 continental crust of $\text{Fe/Th} = 3271$ g/g = $13,553$ mol/mol (Taylor and McLennan, 1995).

116 The relative fractional solubility of Fe and Th in dust is currently unconstrained. Hayes et
 117 al. (2013a) assumed $S_{\text{Fe/Th}} = 1$ as a starting point, based solely on the similarly insoluble nature

118 of these two elements in seawater. While much more work is needed to constrain this parameter,
119 here we continue to assume $S_{\text{Fe/Th}} = 1$, and our observations of the time-series variability in the
120 seawater $\text{Fe}/^{232}\text{Th}$ ratio (section 4.4) support this assumption.

121 *2.3 Iron residence times*

122 We cannot rule out significant marine Fe sources by anthropogenic (e.g., derived from
123 fossil fuel combustion) aerosols, continental margin sediments, or deep-sea hydrothermal vents.
124 We can, however, pursue the notion that if dust were the only Fe source to the water column, the
125 comparison between measured dissolved Fe inventories to the source (dust-dissolved Fe flux)
126 would produce a measure of the turnover rate or residence time of dissolved Fe in seawater (Eq.
127 4). This residence time again represents the residence time within the integrated water column.
128 Additional sources of Fe, such as combustion aerosols or hydrothermal fluids, would cause the
129 dust-based Fe residence time to be an overestimate. Relevant to iron cycling, this residence time
130 provides a rough timescale over which one can expect Fe concentration to vary as a result of
131 variation in sources, such as springtime Asian dust events (Boyle et al., 2005).

$$132 \quad \text{Dissolved Fe residence time} = \text{Fe inventory} \div \text{dust-dissolved Fe flux} \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

133 **3. Materials and Methods**

134

135 *3.1 Sample collection during 2012-2014*

136

137 Samples were collected on several cruises on the R/V *Kilo Moana*, led by the Center for
138 Microbial Oceanography: Research and Education (C-MORE), to Station ALOHA in July-
139 September 2012 (HOE-DYLAN), May-June 2013 (HOE-PhoR-I), September 2013 (HOE-PhoR-
140 II) and March 2014 (HOE-BOE-I). Depth profiles for $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ analysis were collected from

141 the ship's Niskin bottle rosette, filtered with a 0.45 μm Acropak cartridge filter, and acidified to
142 pH 1.8 with Savillex-distilled 6 M HCl.

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

152 On HOE-PhoR-II, cross flow filtration was performed to assess colloidal $^{232}\text{Th}/^{230}\text{Th}$
153 using protocols developed to study colloidal Fe (Fitzsimmons and Boyle, 2014a). Seawater was
154 pre-filtered at 0.45 μm and, within 1-2 hours, pumped over a Millipore Pellicon XL filter made
155 of regenerated cellulose with a nominal molecular weight cutoff of 10 kDa, roughly equivalent to
156 an effective pore size of 10 nanometers. Both permeate and retentate fractions were analyzed to
157 determine any loss of Th by adsorption, which turned out to be minimal (88-100% dissolved Th
158 recovery).

159 *3.2 Hawaii Ocean Time-series (HOT) seawater*

160 Seawater samples, typically 0.5 liter size, have been collected during the HOT program
161 for trace metal analysis at MIT periodically since 1997. Most of these samples were collected as
162 unfiltered water using the MITESS sampler (Bell et al., 2002) and subsequently preserved by
163 acidification to pH 2 with HCl. We report data from samples collected via ship-based MITESS

164 collections as well as MITESS units deployed on a mooring (1997-2000, 2004-2005). In ship-
165 board sampling, a sample bottle filled with high-purity dilute (~0.001 M) HCl is lowered over
166 the side on a clean-wire and opened at depth, allowing ~15-20 minutes for the bottle to be
167 completely flushed with the denser seawater, before bottle closure and sample retrieval. The
168 moored sampling worked similarly except that bottles were filled with stronger acid (1 M HCl)
169 prior to sampling. The moored sampling potentially posed a metal contamination risk due to the
170 effective stronger leaching of the HDPE bottles, increasing the chance for leached Th, for
171 example, to remain in the sample bottle at the time of collection. We report the moored sampler
172 data with a unique symbol in our figures and interpret them with caution. Further sampling
173 details are given by Boyle et al. (2005).

174 We also make use of literature seawater $^{232}\text{Th}/^{230}\text{Th}$ data, collected at Station ALOHA in
175 September 1994 (HOT-57), reported by Roy-Barman et al. (1996).

176 *3.3 Thorium and iron analyses*

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

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

188 Analysis of ^{232}Th , at 10^{-15} mol (i.e. femtomoles) per kg seawater, required smaller
189 samples (200-800 mL) and was measured on archive HOT and HOE samples for which sample
190 volume did not allow ^{230}Th determination. While not as prone to contamination as some other
191 trace elements, clean lab techniques were required to produce blanks that were consistent and
192 low enough to allow detection of the relatively small sample size of ~20-40 femtomoles ^{232}Th .
193 Therefore, modifications of the cited procedures for Th analysis (Anderson et al., 2012; Auro et
194 al., 2012) were made. Instead of co-precipitation with added Fe, pre-concentration of ^{232}Th was
195 achieved using magnesium hydroxide co-precipitation, such as that described for Pb by Reuer et
196 al. (2003). Thorium was purified using a smaller amount (100 μl rather than 1 ml) of anion-
197 exchange resin (AG1-X8) on columns fashioned from Teflon shrink-tubing. Samples were
198 loaded onto AG1-X8 resin in 8 M HNO_3 and Th was eluted with 6 M HCl (instead of 12 M HCl,
199 to reduce acid blank), following Edwards et al. (1987). Blank determinations were made on 125
200 mL aliquots of acidified seawater samples whose ^{232}Th content had been determined during
201 previous ^{230}Th analysis. The mean procedural blank ($n = 6$) was 3.5 ± 1.6 fmol ^{232}Th , resulting in
202 a detection limit of 4.8 fmol ^{232}Th . Samples for seawater ^{232}Th were prepared and analyzed at
203 MIT, using a Micromass IsoProbe multi-collector ICP-MS with detection by a Daly-style ion
204 counter.

205 In this study, we refer to measured trace metal concentrations as dissolved (filtered at 0.4
206 or 0.45 μm), particulate (>0.4 μm), or total (acidified unfiltered water). The “total”
207 concentrations in this sense are sometimes referred to as “total dissolvable”, allowing for the
208 possibility that some forms of Th are not mobilized into solution by acidification to pH 2 or

209 collected with co-precipitation. Since our goal in interpreting seawater ^{230}Th concentrations is to
210 determine scavenging rates based on uranium decay, we made small (0-10%) corrections for the
211 dissolved ^{230}Th released from dust (or lithogenic material in general). This correction is based on
212 measured dissolved ^{232}Th and a lithogenic $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ mole ratio of 4×10^{-6} (Roy-Barman et al.,
213 2009). The corrected dissolved ^{230}Th values are denoted as “xs”.

214 Particulate ^{232}Th and particulate Fe, were analyzed at Florida State University by total
215 digestion of the filter samples and subsequent analysis by ICP-MS, using slightly modified
216 versions of published protocols (Ho et al., 2011; Morton et al., 2013; Upadhyay et al., 2009). In
217 brief, samples were microwaved (CEM MARS Xpress) for 40 minutes at 180°C with HNO_3 and
218 H_2O_2 (to digest the organic and less refractory biogenic and authigenic components) and HF (to
219 digest the more refractory lithogenic components). The detection limit (based on 3 standard
220 deviations of the digested acid blanks) for particulate ^{232}Th was 8 fmol/L (n=19) and the
221 particulate Fe detection limit was 0.2 nmol/L (n=21). Dissolved Fe was measured by isotope
222 dilution after pre-concentration onto nitrilotriacetate resin on the Micromass IsoProbe ICP-MS at
223 MIT (Lee et al., 2011). Further details on Fe analyses are discussed by Fitzsimmons et al. (in
224 review).

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

226 **4. Results and Discussion**

227

228 *4.1 ^{230}Th - ^{232}Th depth profiles to 1.5 km*

229

230 We focus first on the 2012-2013 thorium isotope depth profiles in the upper 1.5 km of the
231 water column for a sense of the type of data used to calculate thorium fluxes (Fig. 2). High
232 resolution depth profiles were analyzed in late July 2012, early June 2013 and late September
233 2013. The mixed layer depths during these sampling casts (based on 0.125 kg/m^3 density change)

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

236 For dissolved ^{232}Th (Fig. 2A), there were increased concentrations near the surface,
237 minimum concentrations at the depth of maximum chlorophyll concentration (the DCM, ~120-
238 140 m), and a relatively constant local concentration maximum at 500-600 m depth. At
239 intermediate depths (900-1200 m), each profile exhibited smooth variations in concentration but
240 concentrations at the different sampling dates varied by up to 30%.

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

246 The coincidence of the subsurface chlorophyll maximum and the minimum in ^{232}Th is
247 apparently a universal feature for lithogenic trace elements such as Al, Ti and Fe (Dammshäuser
248 et al., 2013; Fitzsimmons and Boyle, 2014b; Ohnemus and Lam, 2015). This was also true for
249 dissolved and particulate Fe at Station ALOHA during this study (Fitzsimmons et al., in review).
250 Increased particle aggregation efficiency, such as through the formation of fecal pellets, may
251 more efficiently scavenge dissolved ^{232}Th from this depth.

252 Scavenged ^{232}Th may be partially released through remineralization of particles from the
253 near-surface upon sinking to mesopelagic depths (300-500 m). Thus remineralization may be
254 responsible for some of the subsurface ^{232}Th maxima at 400-600 m depth. In support of this
255 view, this depth range coincides with a rapid increase in phosphate concentration and apparent
256 oxygen utilization, as inferred from HOT climatology

257 (<http://hahana.soest.hawaii.edu/hot/trends/trends.html>). On the other hand, the attenuation of
258 particulate organic carbon at Station ALOHA is most intense at shallower depths, between 100
259 and 200 m (Bishop and Wood, 2008).

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

265 The variability in ^{232}Th concentration at intermediate depths (900-1400 m) could be due
266 to the effect of hydrothermal activity at the nearby Loihi seamount. The iron oxide particles
267 associated with hydrothermal plumes strongly scavenge Th, and depleted deep-sea Th
268 concentrations have been observed up to 1400 km away from a vent site in the Atlantic (Hayes et
269 al., 2015a). While intermediate water ^{232}Th variability suggests the influence of hydrothermal
270 scavenging here, the effect is apparently too weak to perturb the near-linear ^{230}Th profiles (Fig.
271 2). Time-variability in the influence of the Loihi hydrothermal system on trace metals at
272 ALOHA is discussed more fully by Fitzsimmons et al. (in review).

273 The ^{230}Th profiles also displayed interesting temporal variations. The theory of reversible
274 scavenging contends that a steady-state is achieved between thorium adsorption and desorption
275 on uniform particles that settle at a constant rate (Bacon and Anderson, 1982). Under these
276 assumptions, one expects ^{230}Th concentrations to increase linearly with depth with a boundary
277 condition of zero concentration at the surface. While the observed depth profiles are essentially
278 linear (Fig. 2B), it appears that mixing at the surface homogenizes ^{230}Th concentrations to some
279 depth. Interestingly, the layer of relatively homogeneous ^{230}Th extends deeper than the density-

280 defined mixed layer (30-50 m), down to the deep chlorophyll maximum (Fig. 2; see also report
281 by Barone et al. (2015)). This phenomenon is worthy of future time-series study. Potentially a
282 remnant of deep winter mixed layers (> 100 m), the homogeneous surface ^{230}Th layer could also
283 represent some combination of vertical mixing and enhanced scavenging related to export of
284 organic matter from the euphotic zone.

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

292 *4.2 Surface thorium residence times*

293
294 Residence times of dissolved ^{230}Th as described in section 2.1 using the 2012-2014
295 results are presented in Figure 3. In this assessment, we integrate production due to ^{234}U decay
296 (based on salinity) and the measured ^{230}Th inventory to 150 m depth. This allows comparison to
297 Th residence times calculated on the basis of ^{234}Th : ^{238}U disequilibrium established by previous
298 work at Station ALOHA, during April 1999-March 2000 (Benitez-Nelson et al., 2001) and June-
299 July 2008 (Buesseler et al., 2009). The ^{234}Th results differ slightly from the approach used here
300 for dissolved ^{230}Th since the ^{234}Th fluxes are calculated using unfiltered seawater. Since
301 adsorbed ^{230}Th concentrations are on the order of ~10-20% of total ^{230}Th (Roy-Barman et al.,
302 1996), residence times based on total ^{234}Th can be expected to be up to 10-20% greater than
303 those based on the dissolved phase only. The low percentage of adsorbed ^{230}Th appears to hold

304 generally for the remote ocean (Hayes et al., 2015b), but it could be higher in coastal or marginal
305 seas with high terrigenous or riverine input (e.g., (Andersson et al., 1995)).

306 We also assessed the influence of vertical mixing on surface ^{230}Th inventories, which
307 could influence the derived residence time. Assuming a vertical mixing coefficient (K_v) of 10^{-5}
308 m^2/s (Charette et al., 2013), using a linear regression of the ^{230}Th depth profiles (from 150 to 300
309 m), we can calculate the ^{230}Th added to the upper 150 m by vertical mixing as $K_v \times d\text{Th}/dz$. The
310 results indicate that this vertical mixing term is 3-5% of the integrated production due to ^{234}U
311 decay in the upper 150 m. Therefore we can assume that vertical mixing does not significantly
312 affect the ^{230}Th residence time estimates at Station ALOHA.

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

319 The concept of “residence time” used here is based on a steady-state assumption for
320 sources and sinks. Therefore with a residence time of ~ 2 years, one would not expect significant
321 variation in the removal timescale over a period of months. However, the range in observed Th
322 residence times for Station ALOHA indicates that this steady-state assumption is not quite
323 correct. More precisely, the steady-state for scavenging removal of Th appears to hold within a
324 factor of 2-3. The range in removal timescales observed based on ^{230}Th is similar to that based on
325 ^{234}Th . Thus, it seems the rate of thorium scavenging can change dynamically at Station ALOHA

326 possibly related to export pulses, but the data are consistent with a long-term average thorium
327 residence time of 2 ± 1 years in the upper 150 m.

328 *4.3 Surface ^{232}Th concentrations*

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

334 Collected during a series of cruises in summer 2012 (HOE-DYLAN), daily-scale samples
335 of 250 mL were analyzed for dissolved and particulate ^{232}Th . Sample size required combining
336 the samples from 2-4 days for dissolved ^{232}Th , contributing to some temporal smoothing.
337 Dissolved concentrations ranged from 45-90 fmol/kg (Fig. 4C). Particulate ^{232}Th , although
338 measured at a higher, daily resolution, had a higher range of variability, from 10-290 fmol/kg. Of
339 the total seawater ^{232}Th (dissolved + particulate) during HOE-DYLAN, on average 42% was in
340 the particulate phase (range 26-66%). This fraction particulate is higher than that for ^{230}Th
341 (~15%, Roy-Barman et al., 1996) since particulate ^{232}Th represents both adsorbed Th and
342 structural Th in mineral dust.

343 The decadal time-series observations (1994-2014) of total ^{232}Th (Fig. 4A) exhibit a range
344 in concentration (~50-300 fmol/kg) that is consistent with the higher frequency observations of
345 particulate Th in 2012-2013. Since most of the data fall within the range of 50-150 fmol/kg, we
346 are not fully confident in the five observations of elevated concentrations (150-300 fmol/kg)
347 observed in 1994, 1998, and 1999 samples. In particular, the 1998 and 1999 samples were
348 collected using the moored MITESS units, as discussed in section 3.2. Mooring-collected water

349 at times had higher Th concentrations than contemporaneous ship-based sampling (Fig. 4) and
350 thus the possibility of contamination during sampling, sample storage, or sample analysis cannot
351 be fully discounted. In fact, the variable 1994 results from Roy-Barman et al. (1996) came from
352 multiple samples collected on the same Niskin bottle cast. Spatial variability, related to
353 mesoscale eddies, is another potential source of rapid changes in surface ^{232}Th concentration.
354 Conservatively excluding the elevated observations >150 fmol/kg, no significant temporal term
355 trend can be derived.

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

364 *4.4 Fe/Th ratio behavior in surface water and in colloidal content*

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

369 In the context of daily, monthly and decadal variability, it appears that the ratio of total
370 and particulate $\text{Fe}/^{232}\text{Th}$ tends to be at or above the dust-ratio of 11,040 mol/mol, while dissolved
371 $\text{Fe}/^{232}\text{Th}$ is at or below the dust-ratio (Fig. 5A & 5B). These observations are consistent with

372 input at the dust Fe/²³²Th ratio and a strong sink from biological uptake for Fe. Thus, the
373 dissolved phase is left depleted in Fe relative to ²³²Th, while the particulate phase becomes
374 enriched in biogenic Fe. The total Fe/Th ratio often exceeds the dust ratio as well, possibly
375 because biogenic particulate Fe may be efficiently recycled and thus may reside in the surface
376 longer than particulate Th. Interestingly, the samples from moored MITESS units (open symbols
377 in Fig. 5) had Fe/Th ratios quite close to the near-crustal ratio of Asian dust. This fact does not
378 necessarily exclude the possibility for Th contamination in these samples but does suggest any
379 potential metal contamination was of near-crustal composition.

380 The partitioning between dissolved and total/particulate Fe/²³²Th centers on the dust ratio
381 (Fig. 5C). We interpret this to mean that the relative fractional solubility of Fe and ²³²Th ($S_{\text{Fe/Th}}$)
382 is close to 1. An alternate interpretation would be that ²³²Th is more efficiently leached from
383 dust, leaving the particulate phase enriched in Fe/²³²Th and the dissolved phase depleted in
384 Fe/²³²Th. However, given the known ability for phytoplankton to efficiently utilize Fe from dust
385 sources (e.g., (Rubin et al., 2011)), the assumption of $S_{\text{Fe/Th}} = 1$ during dissolution followed by
386 rapid biological uptake of Fe seems more likely. It is difficult to assign a quantitative
387 uncertainty to the relative solubility with the existing data. The measured seawater Fe/²³²Th
388 ratios ($n = 30$) are on average within $54 \pm 51\%$ (1 sigma) of the Asian dust ratio. Therefore, the
389 relative solubility is likely close to 1 with less than 50% uncertainty, but 50% could be used as a
390 conservative uncertainty estimate ($S_{\text{Fe/Th}} = 1 \pm 0.5$). Consideration of the size-partitioning of Fe
391 and Th within the dissolved phase provides another constraint on the pathways these elements
392 take after being released by dust. This investigation was also used as an opportunity to
393 determine whether ²³²Th and ²³⁰Th have coherent speciation, as assumed for the ²³²Th flux
394 method. Figure 6 presents these results based on measurements of ultra-filtered seawater from

395 HOE-PhoR-II in September 2013. We define colloidal Th as dissolved ($< 0.45 \mu\text{m}$) minus
396 soluble ($< 10 \text{kDa}$).

397 Of the measured dissolved Th, 8-25% was found in the colloidal phase ($0.45 \mu\text{m}$ - 10kDa
398 $\approx 0.01 \mu\text{m}$). The total Th recovery during ultrafiltration was nearly complete (88-100%),
399 implying that this 8-25% of dissolved Th was indeed colloidal in size, not an artifact of Th
400 sorption/loss to the ultrafiltration system. Furthermore, at least at 15 m, 130 m (DCM), and 1000
401 m, the colloidal percentage for ^{232}Th and ^{230}Th agreed within the uncertainty of the
402 measurements. This result implies coherent speciation of these thorium isotopes despite very
403 different sources, and it supports the use of ^{230}Th as a tracer for ^{232}Th removal. This coherent
404 speciation result agrees with previous measurements of the $^{232}\text{Th}/^{230}\text{Th}$ ratio of filtered (< 0.2
405 μm) and ultrafiltered ($< 1 \text{kDa}$) solutions from the Mediterranean Sea (Roy-Barman et al., 2002).

406 The role of colloids in Th scavenging has much history and deserves a few words of
407 context. Early models of scavenging inferred that Th likely goes through a colloidal intermediate
408 before being scavenged by larger, sinking particles (Honeyman et al., 1988; Honeyman and
409 Santschi, 1989). Subsequent attempts at measuring colloidal Th focused largely on ^{234}Th (see
410 review by (Guo and Santschi, 2007)), in part due to its use in quantifying organic matter export.
411 A generalization might be made that outside of the coastal ocean, colloidal ^{234}Th was found to be
412 a relatively small ($< 15\%$) proportion of the total dissolved (e.g., (Guo et al., 1997; Huh and
413 Prahl, 1995; Moran and Buesseler, 1992)), which is also consistent with our ^{230}Th and ^{232}Th
414 results. Recent observations from the North Atlantic (Hayes et al., 2015b), however, observed
415 scavenging characteristics consistent with a strong role for Th colloids as predicted by the
416 “colloidal pumping hypothesis” of Honeyman and Santschi (1989), even at open-ocean particle

417 concentrations of $< 10 \mu\text{g/kg}$ seawater. Further observations on the geographic distribution of
418 colloidal Th are clearly warranted.

419 Our paired observations of Th and Fe size partitioning nonetheless provide additional
420 information on their physicochemical speciation in a comparative sense. Dissolved Fe has a
421 much higher colloidal content at ALOHA than Th (Fig. 6). Above the DCM, dissolved Fe can be
422 $>50\%$ colloidal. In the deeper water column, to 1.5 km depth, colloidal Fe is relatively constant
423 at 40% (with the exception of one sample $< 10\%$ colloidal at 650 m). Since Fe and ^{232}Th are
424 apparently solubilized from dust with equal fractional solubility, this difference in size-speciation
425 is most likely also due to the selective uptake or complexation of Fe by organic substrates.
426 Ligands, in the form of macromolecular organic molecules or organic colloidal particles, most
427 likely complex Fe released from dust quite rapidly in the upper water column (Bressac and
428 Guieu, 2013; Mendez et al., 2010). We hypothesize that organic Fe-binding ligands are
429 predominantly responsible for converting such a large percentage of dissolved Fe to colloidal
430 size. The inorganic speciation of Th in seawater is largely hydroxo- complexes (Santschi et al.,
431 2006). Other similarly hydrolyzable metals such as Al and Ti do not have significant colloidal
432 components (Dammshäuser and Croot, 2012).

433 Similar to Al and Ti, the abundance of colloidal ligands ($>10 \text{ kDa}$) with an affinity to
434 complex Th must also be small compared to the source of dissolved Th from dust. This finding
435 does not necessarily contradict previous evidence for significant organic complexation of Th in
436 seawater (Santschi et al., 2006). It does require, however, that any significant Th complexation is
437 done by small ($<10 \text{ nm}$), low-molecular weight organic molecules, at least in the subtropical
438 North Pacific.

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

443 *4.5 Iron residence times*

444 Using the 2012-2013 ^{230}Th profile data, we extend our calculations for Th residence time
445 down to 1.5 km water depth in Fig. 7A. The average residence time for the depth zone between
446 the surface and the DCM is 1-2 years. The Th residence times increase nearly linearly with
447 integration depth to 14 years for the average residence time between the surface and 1.5 km. We
448 do not plot integrated values shallower than the DCM (~120 m) on the assumption that steady-
449 state Th scavenging may not apply under the conditions of stronger mixing and organic matter
450 export within the euphotic zone. Dividing the integrated dissolved ^{232}Th inventories by these
451 residence times gives our estimate of dissolved ^{232}Th flux, as a function of integration depth, in
452 Fig. 7B.

453 In June and Sept. 2013, the dissolved ^{232}Th flux increased with integration depth and
454 began to level-off around 500 m. This pattern reflects that, at these times, the inventory of
455 dissolved ^{232}Th increased with integration depth slightly more quickly than the increase in Th
456 residence time with depth. Interestingly, in July 2012, the dissolved ^{232}Th flux decreased with
457 integration depth, reflecting that the Th residence time increased more quickly than the dissolved
458 ^{232}Th inventory, essentially because the mixed layer ^{230}Th concentrations were exceptionally low
459 at this time. Estimated ^{232}Th fluxes are clearly quite sensitive to short-term variability in
460 scavenging rates. We suggest further time-series analysis along with modelling efforts that
461 contain circulation and realistic particle fluxes to determine more quantitatively the sensitivities

462 involved in calculating dissolved ^{232}Th fluxes during moderate changes in scavenging rates and
463 dust input.

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

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

482 Available aerosol data suggest that Asian dust transport over the North Pacific had no
483 significant long-term trend from 1981 to 2000 (Prospero et al., 2003) and perhaps a 6% decline
484 over the past 10 years (Hyslop et al., 2013). Because of a nearly immediate impact on surface

485 water Fe concentrations and the associated ecological consequences, it is important to monitor
486 future changes in Fe sources. Sources such as Asian desert dust in our changing climate may
487 vary independently of other Fe sources such as combustion aerosols.

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

499 *4.6 Fe and Th decoupling in the deep ocean*

500 Our focus on the upper water column stems from our motivation to understand trace
501 metal cycling due to aerosol deposition and export production. We can extend our analysis of Fe
502 and Th into the deep ocean (4.5 km water depth at Station ALOHA) to learn about the
503 geochemistry of these elements over decadal-to-centennial timescales. In Figure 8, we compiled
504 available deep profiles from Station ALOHA for dissolved Fe (Boyle et al., 2005; Fitzsimmons
505 et al., in review; Morton, 2010) and dissolved ²³²Th and ²³⁰Th (this study; Roy-Barman et al.
506 (1996)).

507 Variability in dissolved Fe at 1-1.5 km is clearly apparent, likely due to hydrothermal
508 inputs. Below 1.5 km depth, Fe, ^{232}Th , and ^{230}Th display relatively constant profile shapes, at
509 least during the sparse sampling dates. From 2 km depth to the bottom, dissolved Fe is nearly
510 constant or slightly decreases with depth to about 0.4 nmol/kg, while dissolved ^{232}Th actually
511 increases with depth from 50 to 180 fmol/kg below 3000 m. This divergence in profile shape
512 already suggests a decoupling of the behavior of these elements in the deep ocean.

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

520 Also related to bottom sediment resuspension, the July 2012 profile of ^{230}Th displays a
521 negative concentration anomaly, or deficit of ^{230}Th , with respect to the linear profile near the
522 seafloor (Fig. 8C). This bottom ^{230}Th deficit is indicative of enhanced bottom scavenging as
523 observed in many parts of the deep North Pacific (Hayes et al., 2013b; Okubo et al., 2012). It is
524 non-intuitive that a bottom layer where the scavenging removal of Th is enhanced compared to
525 the overlaying water column would also be a strong source of ^{232}Th . The resuspension of bottom
526 sediments may produce such a strong release of ^{232}Th that this source more than compensates for
527 enhanced scavenging. Another contributing factor may be that the resuspended thorium could
528 have a much higher $^{232}\text{Th}/^{230}\text{Th}$ ratio than the water column due to age-decay of ^{230}Th in the
529 sediments.

530 Dissolved Fe, on the other hand, appears unaffected by bottom processes, displaying only
531 a slight decrease in concentration with depth (Fig. 8A). The slight decrease with depth may be
532 related to scavenging of Fe as deep water masses age (Bruland et al., 1994). If we extend our
533 integrated residence time approach to the deep Fe profile at Station ALOHA (Fig. 9), we derive a
534 whole ocean residence for dissolved Fe of only 30 years. This is significantly shorter than the
535 100-300 year estimates of the ocean residence time for dissolved Fe based on deepwater
536 scavenging (Bergquist and Boyle, 2006; Bruland et al., 1994). This discrepancy must arise
537 because the deep ocean source of ^{232}Th does not add dissolved Fe to the water column at a
538 crustal ratio, unlike what occurs during near-surface dust dissolution. Thus, the ^{232}Th flux
539 method for Fe residence times probably should not be extended to the deep ocean.

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

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

552 A problem with this argument is that electrochemically-determined Fe ligand
553 concentrations at Station ALOHA are up to 2 nmol/kg, well in excess of dissolved Fe
554 concentrations (Rue and Bruland, 1995), as found in most of the world ocean (Gledhill and
555 Buck, 2012). However, it may not be kinetically appropriate to compare Fe ligand concentrations
556 directly with seawater solubility. In either estimation, deepwater dissolved Fe is at least close to
557 (within the same order of magnitude) our best estimates of Fe solubility.

558 While much less is known about Th solubility in seawater, our large underestimate of Fe
559 residence time in the deep ocean implies that the deep North Pacific, with Th at ~180 fmol/kg, is
560 below Th solubility equilibrium. Near seawater pH and ionic strength, the solubility of Th(IV)
561 hydroxide may be as high as 0.5-1 nmol/kg, compared to 1 fmol/kg for crystalline ThO₂, due to
562 the amorphous nature of Th(OH)₄ solids (Neck et al., 2003). Also, electrochemical methods
563 suggest organic Th ligands exist at nanomolar concentrations (Hirose, 2004). Despite our finding
564 of low colloidal Th content, organically-bound Th could of course be present at Station ALOHA
565 if the complexes are smaller than ~10 nm. We advocate direct measurements of Th solubility in
566 seawater, perhaps using radio-tracer additions with similar protocols as developed for Fe (Kuma
567 et al., 1996; Schlosser and Croot, 2008), to confirm that Th exists in the deep ocean at much less
568 than its equilibrium solubility. This would explain the fact that dissolved Th concentrations
569 continue to grow from lithogenic sources in the deep North Pacific, where Fe concentrations
570 become fixed by a solubility limit.

571 **5. Conclusions**

572 Using time-series data from the North Pacific, this study finds variability in surface Fe
573 and ²³²Th concentrations consistent with a source from Asian dust. The dust source likely has a
574 relative Fe/Th fractional solubility close to 1. The application of ²³⁰Th scavenging rates to ²³²Th

575 inventories allows the accurate evaluation of the flux of dissolved metals from dust in the remote
576 surface ocean. The source flux of dissolved Fe, derived from ^{230}Th -based timescales, suggests
577 that dissolved Fe in the upper 250 m is turning over in 1 year or less. A compelling implication
578 of this result is that Fe delivery to phytoplankton can be expected to vary with seasonal-to-
579 interannual changes in dust delivery from Asia. Continued monitoring of Fe-dependent
580 biological processes, such as nitrogen fixation, are crucial to anticipate the consequences of
581 changing land-use and/or industrial processes that may significantly affect eolian sources of Fe
582 to the North Pacific.

583 In addition, by comparing Fe and Th size-partitioning, we find evidence that colloidal Fe
584 may be of predominantly organic composition in the subtropical North Pacific. We also
585 hypothesize that iron reaches a solubility limit in the deep sea (>2 km) while Th does not. While
586 less controversial for Th, this result questions the relevance of “excess” Fe ligands in the deep
587 sea. Overall, however, the kinetic box model approach to tracing dust-derived elements (Fig. 1)
588 appears well-suited in the upper water column (~250 m).

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598

599 **Figure Captions**

600 **Figure 1.** Tracing the Fe cycle with the behavior of the long-lived thorium isotopes. Thorium-
 601 ^{230}Th has a well-known source from the radioactive decay of its parent ^{234}U . This allows a
 602 quantitative estimate of Th removal due to scavenging on to particles. This removal rate can be
 603 used to estimate the steady-state source of ^{232}Th from the partial dissolution of aerosol dust,
 604 assuming dust dissolution and scavenging dominate the Th cycle which may be most relevant in
 605 the remote surface ocean. While Fe has many more terms in its biogeochemical cycling, its
 606 ultimate source from dust dissolution can be predicted using known ^{232}Th fluxes and the relative
 607 solubility of Fe and Th. Assuming Fe is derived only from dust, one can then estimate a
 608 maximum Fe residence time or minimum turnover rate.

609
 610 **Figure 2.** Depth profiles from the Hawaii Ocean Time-series Station ALOHA from sampling
 611 campaigns in 2012-2013. In July 2012 and June 2013, profiles for dissolved ^{232}Th (A) and ^{230}Th
 612 (B) were collected in two casts (shallow to 250 m and deep to 1500 m) on different days.
 613 Relative uncertainty in isotope concentrations was 1-5% and thus errors bars would be close to
 614 the symbol size. The hydrographic profiles (C-F) are shown from the shallow cast only.

615
 616 **Figure 3.** Thorium residence times, or turnover rates, calculated for the upper 150 m at Station
 617 ALOHA on a monthly axis combining data from 1999 to 2014. These times are calculated by
 618 comparing integrated Th inventories to integrated production by uranium decay. The ^{234}Th -based
 619 results are reported by Buesseler et al. (2009) and Benitez-Nelson et al. (2001). Note the ^{230}Th -
 620 based results from March 2014 are not based on profiles but on single samples from 25 m,
 621 assuming uniform concentrations in the upper 150 as seen in the 2012-2013 profiles (Fig. 2).

622
 623 **Figure 4.** Station ALOHA time-series data from the surface ocean (0-10 meters depth) on
 624 dissolved (filtered at 0.45 or 0.4 μm), total (unfiltered) and particulate (digested 0.4 μm filter)
 625 ^{232}Th in full time-series (1994-2014) (A), monthly climatology (1991-2014) (B) and during a
 626 daily resolution period in July-Sept. 2012 (C). Note change in scale of y-axes at 160 fmol/kg.
 627 Results from 1994 were reported by Roy-Barman et al. (1996). Open circles represent samples
 628 collected using a mooring rather than ship-based sampling (Sec. 4.1). Relative uncertainty in
 629 dissolved, total and particulate ^{232}Th concentrations was 1-10%.

630
 631 **Figure 5.** Station ALOHA time-series data from the surface ocean (0-10 meters depth) (A),
 632 monthly climatology (B) and a daily resolution period in July-Sept. 2012 (C) of the dissolved
 633 (filtered at 0.45 or 0.4 μm), total (unfiltered) and particulate (digested 0.4 μm filter) $\text{Fe}/^{232}\text{Th}$
 634 ratio. Note change in scale of y-axes at 25,000 mol/mol. The dotted lines represent the $\text{Fe}/^{232}\text{Th}$
 635 ratio of Asian dust of $10,800 \pm 1,200$ mol/mol (1σ). Note in (C), four samples with particulate
 636 $\text{Fe}/^{232}\text{Th}$ ratios greater than 40,000 are not shown. Open circles represent samples collected using
 637 a mooring rather than ship-based sampling (Sec. 4.1).

638
 639 **Figure 6.** Depth profiles of the percentage of dissolved metals (<0.45 μm for Th or <0.4 μm for
 640 Fe) that are in the colloidal size fraction (roughly 10-400 nm) from Station ALOHA in late
 641 September 2013. Colloidal content is estimated by subtracting the metal concentration in 0.4 μm
 642 filtered seawater (dissolved) from that passing through a 10 kDa membrane filter by cross-flow
 643 filtration (soluble). Colloidal fractions of ^{232}Th and ^{230}Th agree within uncertainties, while Fe
 644 colloidal content is 2-3 times larger.

645
 646 **Figure 7.** Application of dissolved ^{232}Th fluxes to predict the residence time of dissolved Fe in
 647 seawater at Station ALOHA during 2012-2013. Dissolved Th residence times (A) are calculated
 648 as a function of integration depth using radioactive disequilibrium between ^{234}U and ^{230}Th .
 649 Integrated values shallower than the deep chlorophyll maximum (~120 m) are not included on
 650 the assumption that steady-state Th scavenging may not apply within the euphotic zone. The
 651 integrated ^{232}Th inventories divided by these residence times produces an estimate of the
 652 dissolved ^{232}Th flux (B) due to dust dissolution. Assuming equal fractional solubilities
 653 dissolution and a near crustal composition for Asian dust, the flux of dissolved Fe from dust can
 654 be predicted using the second x-axis in (B). The integration of dissolved Fe inventories based on
 655 concentration profiles shown in (C) (Fitzsimmons et al., in review), produces our estimate of
 656 dissolved Fe residence time in (D, note change in scale of x-axis at 1.2 yrs).

657
 658 **Figure 8.** Full ocean depth profiles from Station ALOHA for dissolved Fe (A), ^{232}Th (B) and
 659 ^{230}Th (C) using data from this study (July 2012) and compiled from the literature. Iron data from
 660 April 2001 and July 2002 were reported by Boyle et al. (2005) and from June 2002 by Morton
 661 (2010). Dissolved Th data from 1994 were reported by Roy-Barman et al. (1996). Note in (C) the
 662 dotted grey line is the linear regression of ^{230}Th data between 1 and 3.5 km, which when
 663 extended to the seafloor demonstrates that the bottom two samples are less than expected from
 664 reversible scavenging and imply enhanced scavenging (assuming no other processes affect
 665 supply and removal of ^{230}Th here).

666
 667 **Figure 9.** Application of dissolved ^{232}Th fluxes to predict Fe residence times for the full depth
 668 ocean at Station ALOHA. Here data from July 2012 are used to calculate ^{232}Th fluxes (A). The
 669 depth profiles of Fe concentrations presented in Fig. 8 were averaged to calculate the dissolved
 670 Fe residence times as a function of integration depth (B). The 30 year ocean residence for
 671 dissolved Fe is significantly lower than the century-scale residence times derived by other
 672 approaches, suggesting that ^{232}Th flux may not be an accurate proxy for Fe sources in the deep
 673 ocean.

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Figure 1

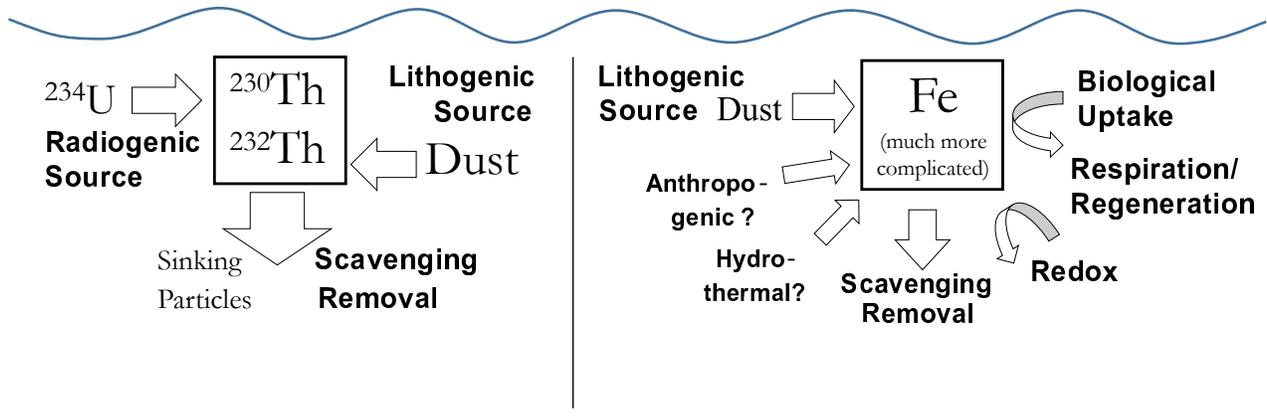


Figure 2

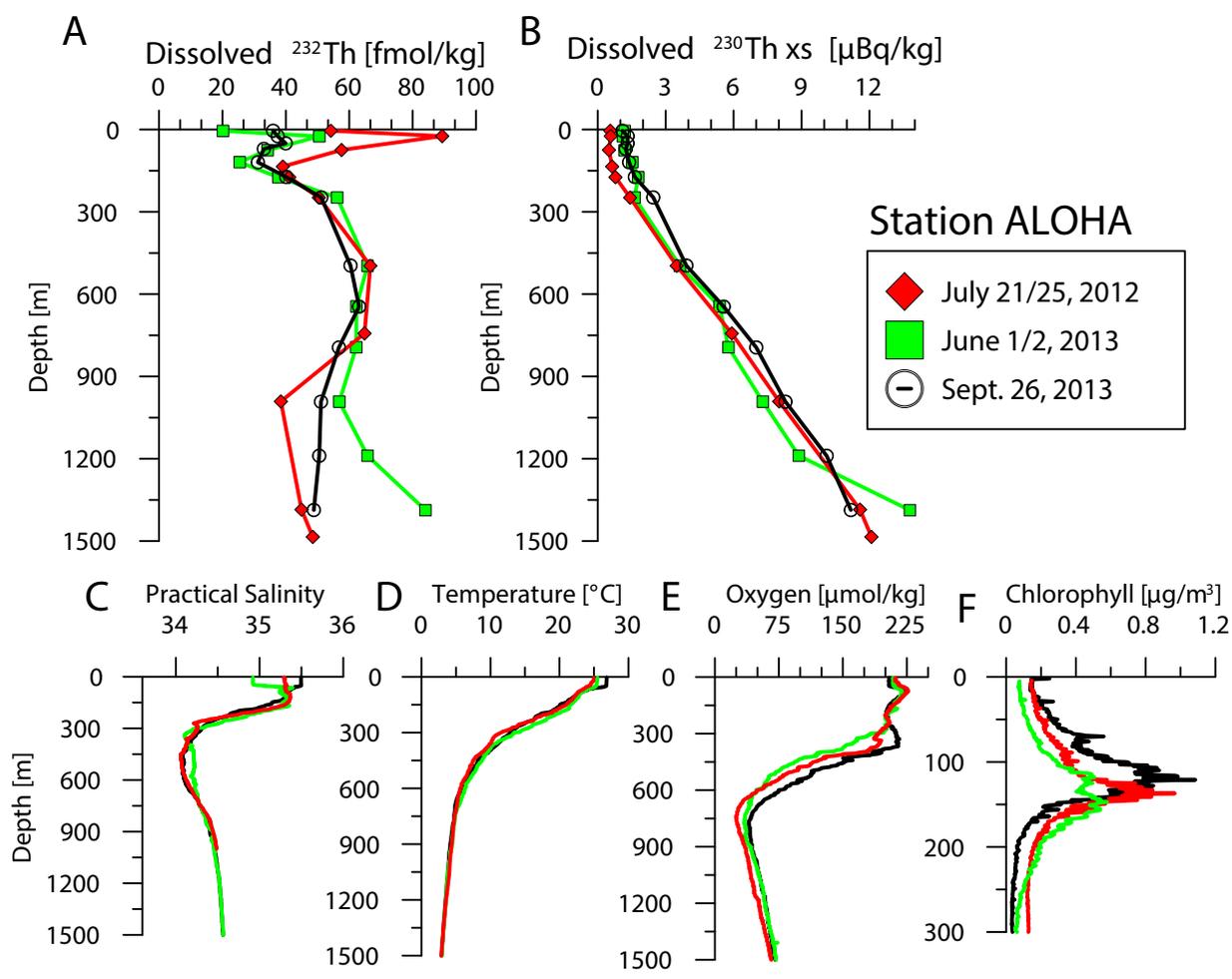


Figure 3

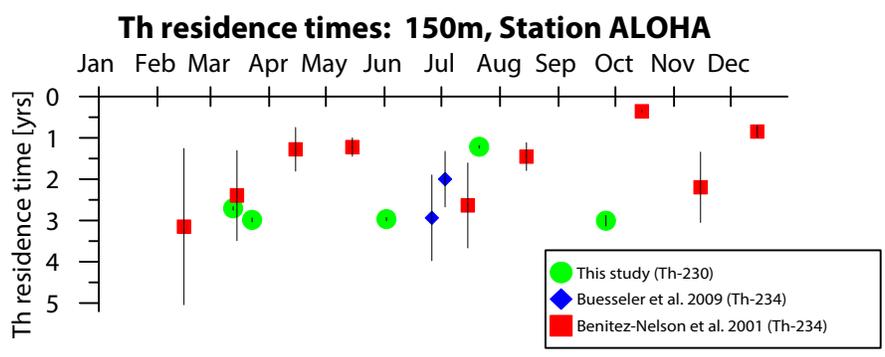


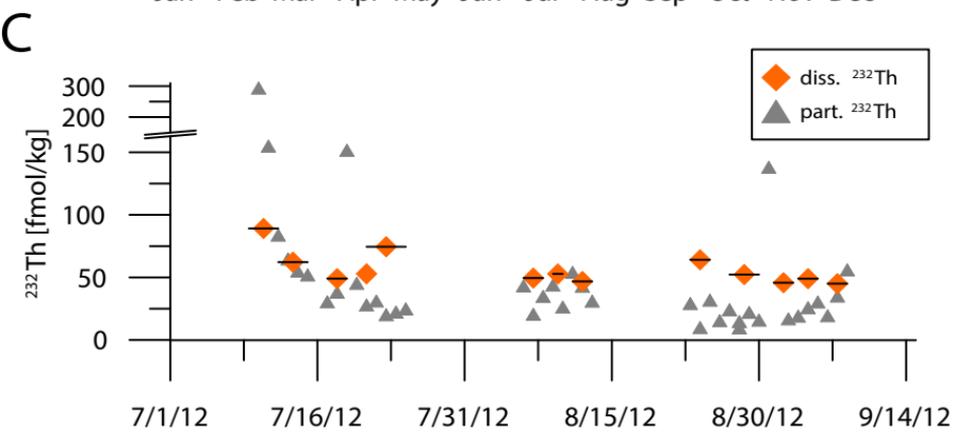
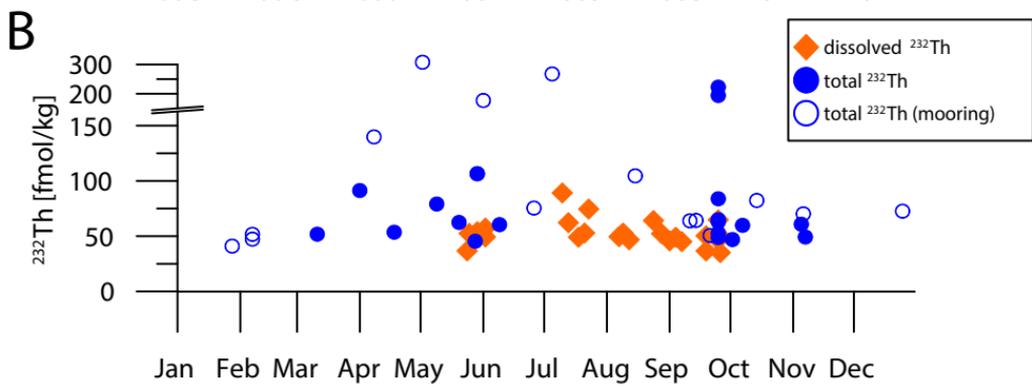
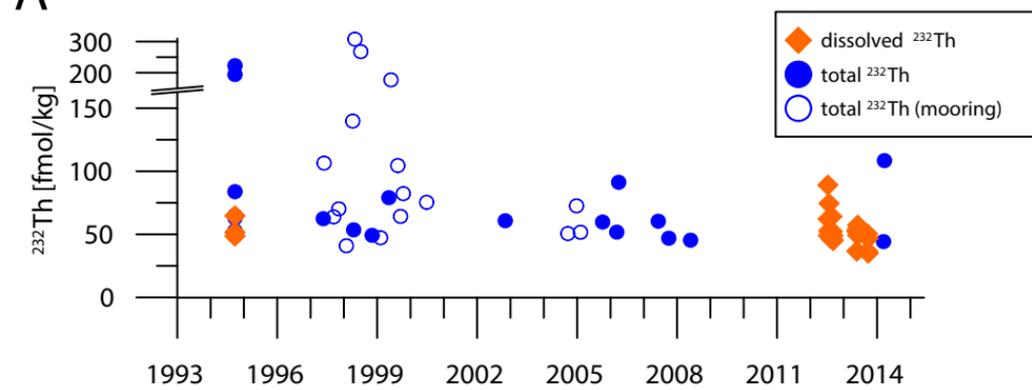
Figure 4

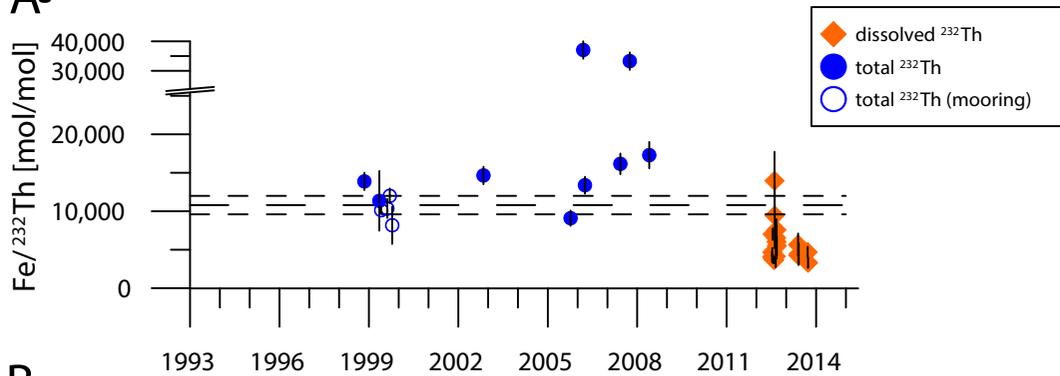
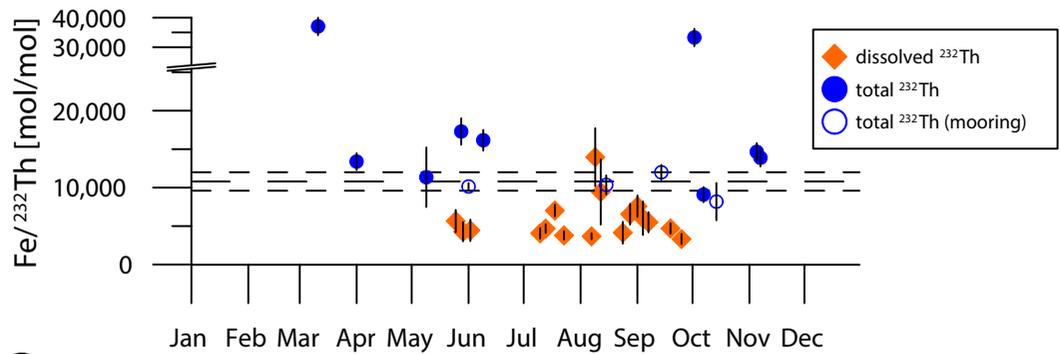
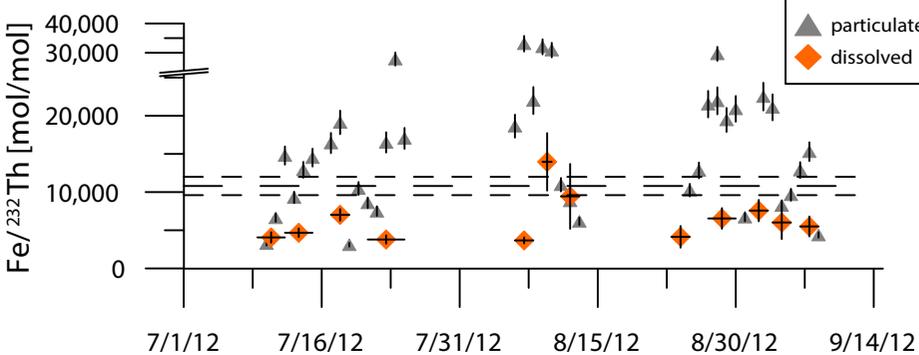
Figure 5**B****C**

Figure 6 % Colloidal metals (of dissolved)

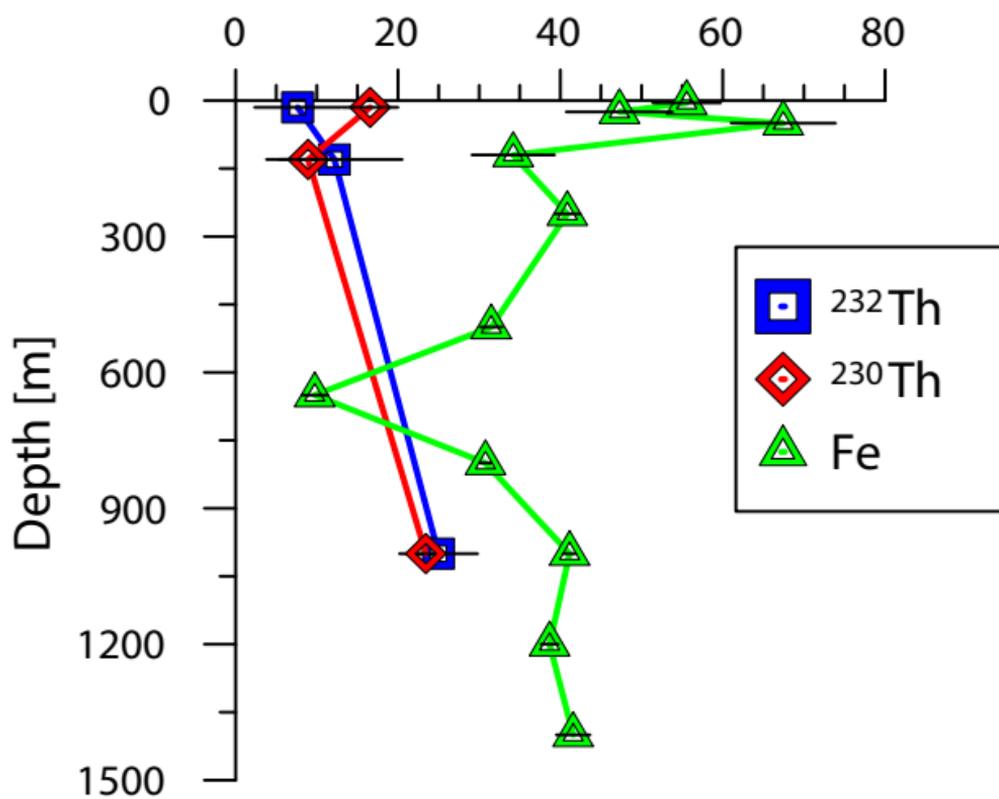


Figure 7

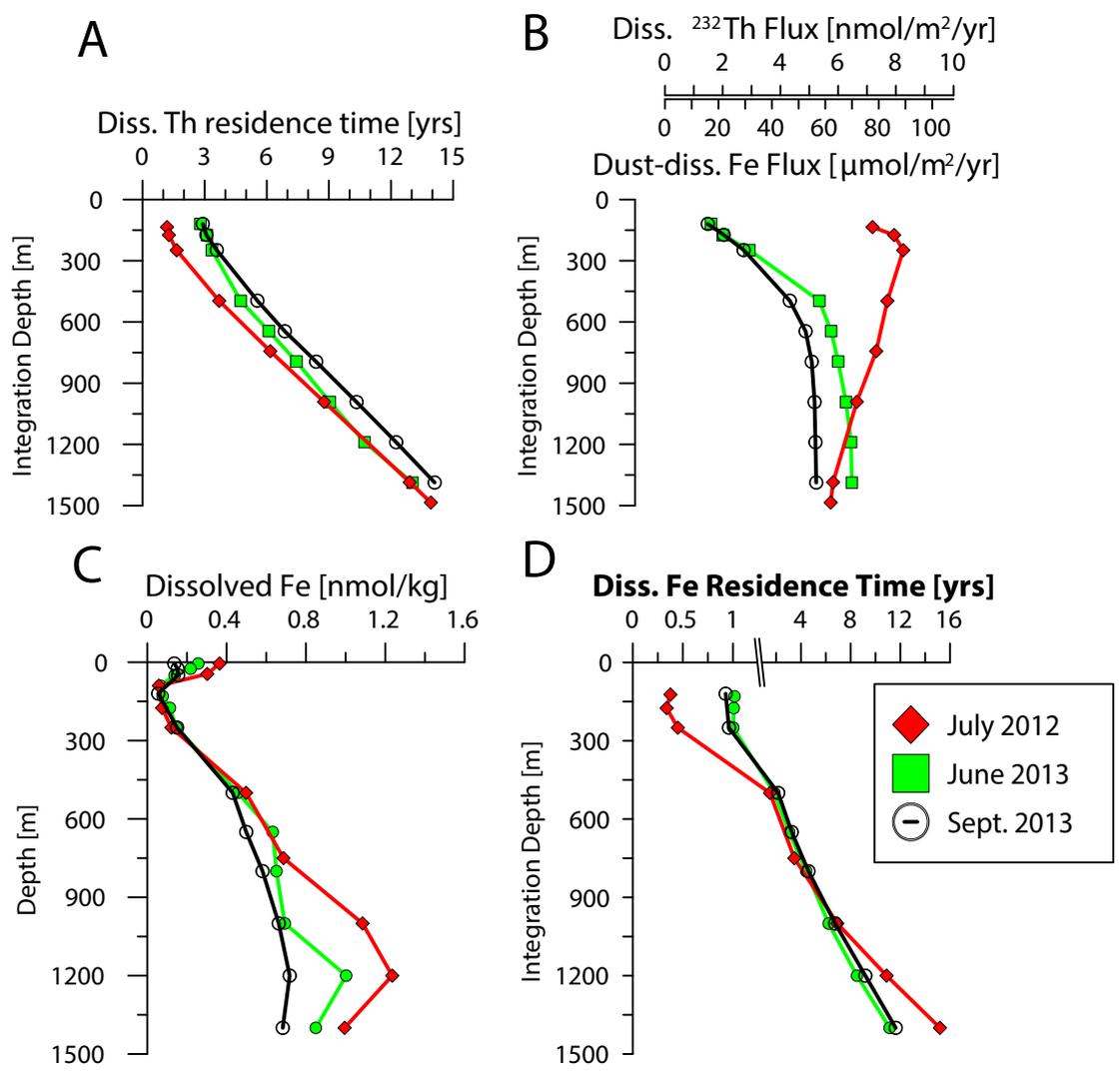


Figure 8

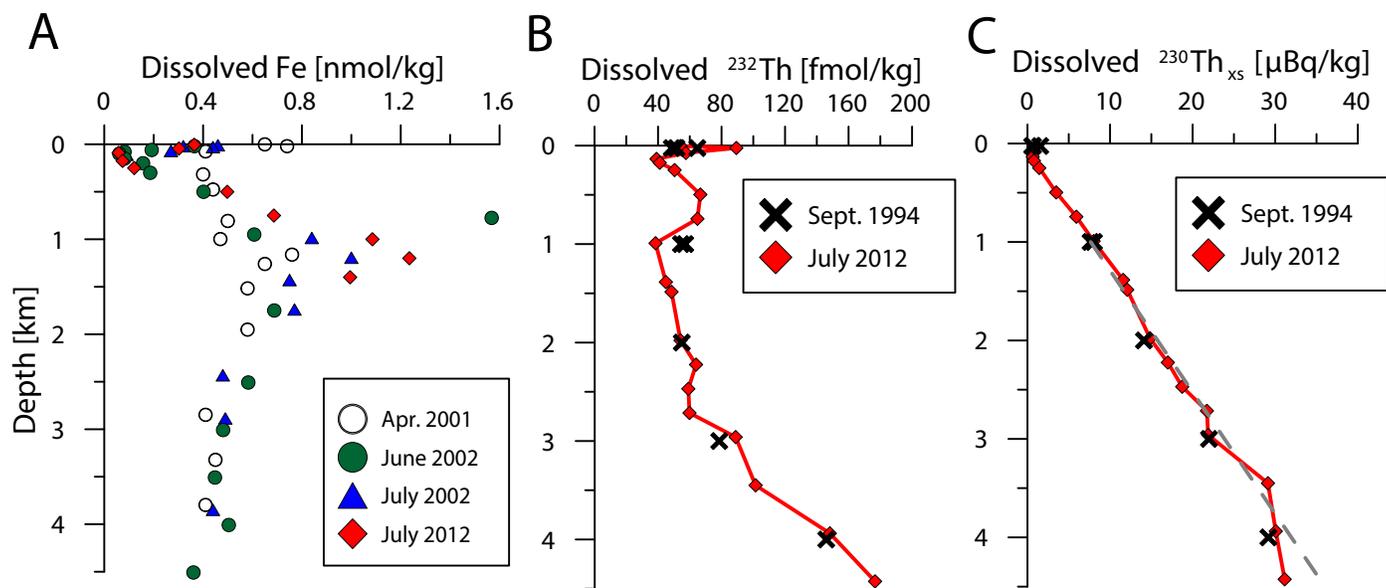
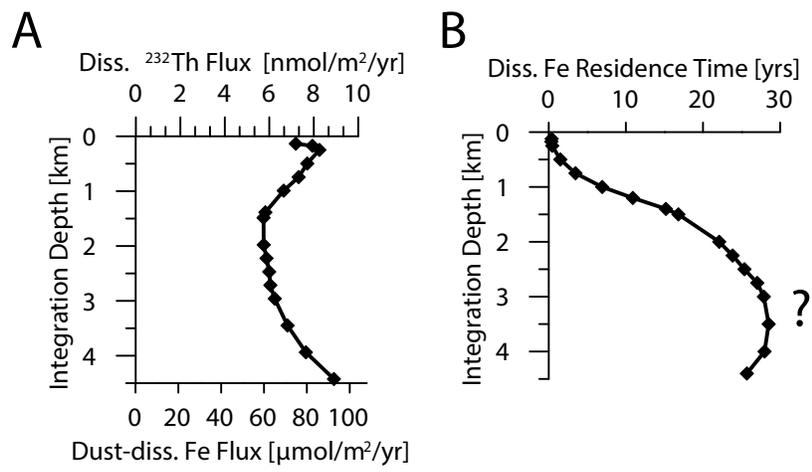


Figure 9



Supplemental Data

[Click here to download Electronic Annex: Hayes ALOHA Th Fe Supplemental Data for GCA.xlsx](#)