

What did we learn about ocean particle dynamics in the GEOSECS–JGOFS era?

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1	What did we learn about ocean particle dynamics in the GEOSECS-JGOFS era?
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17	Key words: Historical review. Oceanic Particle distribution sources and sinks;
18	GEOSECS; JGOFS; GEOTRACES.
19	
20	* This article is dedicated to the memory of Devendra Lal (1929-2012) who wrote a
21 22	seminal contribution to the study of "the oceanic microcosm of particles".
22 23	Abstract
24	Particles determine the residence time of many dissolved elements in seawater. Although
25	a substantial number of field studies were conducted in the framework of major
26	oceanographic programs as GEOSECS and JGOFS, knowledge about particle dynamics
27	is still scarce. Moreover, the particulate trace metal behavior remains largely unknown.
28	The GEOSECS sampling strategy during the 1970's focused on large sections across
29	oceanic basins, where particles were collected by membrane filtration after Niskin bottle
30	sampling, biasing the sampling towards the small particle pool. Late in this period, the
31	first in situ pumps allowing large volume sampling were also developed. During the
32	1990's, JGOFS focused on the quantification of the "exported carbon flux" and its
33	seasonal variability in representative biogeochemical provinces of the ocean, mostly
34	using sediment trap deployments. Although scarce and discrete in time and space, these
35	pioneering studies allowed an understanding of the basic fate of marine particles. This
36	understanding improved considerably, especially when the analysis of oceanic tracers
37	such as natural radionuclides allowed the first quantification of processes such as
38	dissolved-particle exchange and particle settling velocities. Because the GEOTRACES

program emphasizes the importance of collecting, characterizing and analyzing marine
particles, this paper reflects our present understanding of the sources, fate and sinks of
oceanic particles at the early stages of the program.

42

43 Introduction

44 The ocean contains 1.4×10^{18} cubic meters of water and holds approximately 10^{10} metric 45 46 tons of solid material in the form of suspended particles that are present at an average 47 concentration in the deep sea ranging from 5 to 20 µg per liter (Brewer *et al.*, 1976; 48 Bishop and Fleisher, 1987; Sherrell and Boyle, 1992). Although not abundant, particles 49 act as an essential regulator of ocean chemistry because they determine the residence 50 time of many dissolved elements in seawater (Lal, 1977; Turekian, 1977). Vertical and 51 horizontal distributions of many trace elements and their isotopes (TEIs) are clearly 52 influenced by particle formation, remineralization, and transport. Because of their 53 importance, numerous studies during the past 50 years have focused on characterizing 54 these marine particles. In the 1970's, the Geochemical Ocean Sections study (GEOSECS; 55 Craig and Turekian, 1976) allowed a first description of the particle distribution in the ocean, and mostly focused on suspended particles collected by filtration from Niskin-type 56 57 bottles. During those times, only a few pioneering studies attempting to characterize and 58 quantify particle fluxes were conducted (McCave, 1975; Honjo, 1976; Shanks and Trent, 59 1980). Nevertheless, these first results were invaluable in that i) they were the first 60 suggesting that vertical flux is dominated by rare large particles (McCave, 1975) and ii) 61 they guided the strategy of the Joint Global Ocean Flux Study (JGOFS) program (Fowler 62 and Knauer, 1986). However, laboratory and field technologies at that time were such 63 that measurements of TEIs in these particles with a good precision and resolution (spatial 64 as well as temporal) were difficult. In the 1990's, the JGOFS program substantially increased our understanding of the 65

standing stock, vertical flux and fate of marine particles, with the focus largely on carbon

and associated nutrient cycles (Fasham *et al.*, 2001). However, because of data scarcity

and the large variability of particle fluxes in time and space, the full characterization of

69 marine particle concentrations, flux, and composition was a difficult task, and remained

70 far from being achieved. The JGOFS era also suffered from a lack of methodologies for

71 determining TEIs, which are extremely helpful for quantifying specific particle processes 72 in the water column. Although the analytical protocols for assessing some TEIs were 73 available and applied during some JGOFS research projects, they did not yet represent 74 the major research target. As a consequence, the global distribution of dissolved and 75 particulate TEIs is poorly known today. Because some TEIs are powerful tracers of 76 particle origin and processes (e.g. settling velocity, rates of dissolution, precipitation, 77 adsorption, and desorption) and some are essential micronutrients whose speciation in the solid and dissolved phases is of prime importance for their bioavailability, there is an 78 79 urgent need to understand the global distribution of TEIs in the oceanic environment. 80 Filling this gap by investigating the sources, behavior and sinks of these TEIs is the main 81 goal of the GEOTRACES program (www.geotraces.org), which was developed following 82 the model of its "parent" program GEOSECS but with more emphasis on the collection, 83 observation, speciation and analysis of marine particles. As we enter the early stages of 84 the new GEOTRACES era, the present work reviews our understanding, informed by 85 GEOSECS and JGOFS, of the distribution of suspended and sinking marine particles of both biogenic and abiogenic origin, as well as the role of these particles as regulators of 86 87 the marine biogeochemical cycles of TEIs. In addition to Anderson and Hayes' 88 introduction (this issue), this paper provides the historical context for this special issue 89 that proposes to browse the state of the art of our present knowledge on optically 90 characterizing (Boss et al., this issue), collecting (McDonnell et al., this issue), analyzing 91 (Lam et al., this issue) and modelling (Dutay et al., this issue; Jackson and Burd, this 92 issue) marine particles. The issue is concluded by Henderson and Marchal's comments 93 and perspectives.

- 94
- 95 96

1- The origin of marine particles

97 Marine particles have two main origins, as illustrated in Figure 1.

98 Sources external to the marine system: By means of erosion, continents bring particles

99 (natural or anthropogenic, mineral or organic) into the ocean. These are transported via

100 the atmosphere (winds, rains), rivers (sedimentary discharge), or by lateral transport from

101 continental margin sediments. Before extensive damming, the annual solid flux

102 discharged by rivers to the oceans was of the order of 19×10^{15} g (Peucker-Ehrenbrink,

103 2009), which is 50 times the atmospheric flux (Jickells *et al.*, 2005). Other particles are

104 extraterrestrial, such as micrometeorites (10 to 100 µm in size) or cosmic dust that would

105 represent a flux of between 7 to 14×10^9 g/y to the oceans (Johnson, 2001). Nano-

106 metric-sized (and highly magnetic) particles were also detected in the Greenland and

107 Antarctic ice caps and are identified as originating from atmospheric ablation of

108 meteorites and micrometeorites at high (~100 km) altitude (Lanci et al., 2004; 2007).

109 Finally, hydrothermal vents also are a significant "external" source of particles for the

110 deep ocean. Particles from hydrothermal vents precipitate within the plume, forming fine

111 grained sulfide and oxide minerals that may be distributed over large regions of the deep

ocean (Mottl and McConachy, 1990; Feely *et al.*, 1996; Sherrell *et al.*, 2000; Tagliabue *et al.*, 2010).

114 *Sources internal to the marine system:* A huge quantity of marine particles is produced by 115 biological activity. Photoautotrophic plankton assimilates dissolved species (C, N, P, Si,

trace metals) and uses solar energy to synthesize organic matter, and specific groups,

117 including microheterotrophs, also secrete skeletal parts consisting of calcite, aragonite,

118 opal, or celestite. The annual flux of material so produced represents ~ 60×10^{15} g/y of

119 organic carbon (Fasham *et al.*, 2001). The magnitude of marine primary production is

120 similar to terrestrial primary production, but the standing stock of fixed organic carbon is

121 far less in the ocean than in terrestrial systems, resulting in much higher turnover rate of

122 carbon in the ocean. This high turnover rate has consequences for the cycling of TEIs

123 associated with this biogenic material. Other autotrophic organisms, such as nitrifiers, use

124 chemical energy, and are called chemolithotrophic (Griffith *et al.*, 2012; Honjo *et al.*,

125 2012). These thrive throughout the oceanic water column and produce new biomass in-

126 situ. Autotrophic carbon fixation is the point of departure of the trophic chain whose life

127 and death cycle generates particles throughout the water column. Among the

128 heterotrophs, microzooplankton species, such as foraminifera, radiolarians, but also

129 larger multi-cellullar organisms such as salps and pteropods, represent a significant

130 portion of living biomass (Buitenhuis et al., 2013). Although less abundant than

131 phytoplanktonic organisms, they are important because of their role in packaging and

132 remineralization and for their potential as recorders, once incorporated in ocean

133 sediments, of past environmental conditions. In addition, diel vertical migration by

134	mesozooplankton may represent a significant pathway of particle redistribution in the
135	mesopelagic zone, between water depths of about 100 m and 1000 m (Steinberg et al.,
136	2008). Another source of particles in the upper water column is through spontaneous
137	aggregation of Dissolved Organic Matter (DOM) into larger particles, from the molecular
138	size up to a typical size of 4 μ m, therefore becoming Particulate Organic Matter (POM).
139	These particles have been termed microgels (Verdugo, 2012). Barium sulfate, and
140	manganese and iron oxides and hydroxides are also known to precipitate within the water
141	column, incorporating other elements in the process, or scavenging trace elements by
142	adsorption or other particle surface phenomena (Krishnaswami et al., 1976a,b; Bishop
143	and Fleisher, 1987; Dehairs et al., 1990; Sherrell and Boyle, 1992; Paytan et al., 1993;
144	van Beek et al., 2007; van Beek et al., 2009).
145	Marine particles are often divided in 2 different types: small (micron-size) and slowly
146	sinking particles on one hand and large (> 50-100 micron-size) and rapidly sinking on the
147	other hand. The cut off is both poorly defined and somewhat arbitrary. However, it
148	corresponds to 2 modes of marine particle sampling: filtration on filters with (sub-)
149	micron size porosity for the small particles and collection in sediment trap and/or
150	filtration with large porosity for large particles. Hence, this operational definition is still
151	used in the GEOTRACES program.
152 153	2- Small suspended particles and TEI behavior
154	
155	2-1 Oceanic distribution of suspended particles
156	
157	Small particles (0.2-53 $\mu m)$ constitute the bulk of the particle standing stock in the ocean.
158	In the upper 1000 m, particles $< 53~\mu m$ represent on average ${\sim}80\%$ of total suspended
159	particle mass (Bishop et al., 1977; Bishop et al., 1978; Bishop et al., 1980; Bishop et al.,
160	1985; Bishop et al., 1986; Lam and Bishop, 2007; Bishop and Wood, 2008). Their
161	amount and their large surface areas propel them as active players in the solution-solid
162	exchanges that impact TEI distribution (Krishnaswami et al., 1976; Anderson et al.,
163	1983a,b; Bishop and Fleisher, 1987; Sherrell and Boyle, 1992; Jeandel et al., 1995; Roy-
164	Barman et al., 1996). The vertical distribution of particles is characterized by a surface

165 maximum sustained by primary production, which decreases very quickly in the upper

166 200 m and exponentially at greater depth (Figure 2). Some regions are also characterized

167 by strong intermediate (*e.g.*, Iberian margin) and/or bottom (*e.g.*, western boundary of the

168 Atlantic basin) nepheloid layers, resulting in profiles with surface and near-bottom

169 maxima and a clear-water minimum in the 2000 - 3000 m depth range as illustrated in

170 Figures 2 and 3 (Brewer *et al.*, 1976; Biscaye and Eittreim, 1977).

171 Particles in the upper 1000 m, especially in open ocean areas, are produced internally in

the marine system and are composed primarily of biogenic materials: particulate organic

173 matter, CaCO₃, and biogenic silica. Particles in regions with high external inputs, such as

the North Atlantic and the Mediterranean Sea with their high dust deposition and high

sedimentary inputs, have a composition characterized by a higher fraction of lithogenic

176 material – which could reach 70% of the total mass (Roy-Barman et al., 2009)-

177 particularly at depths where biogenic matter is being remineralized (POM) or is

178 dissolving (biogenic silica or CaCO₃). A relatively high fraction of mineral particles is

also found in benthic nepheloid layers, where surface sediment particles that are

180 relatively poor in biogenic components are resuspended into bottom waters (Figure 3;

181 Gardner *et al.*, 1983).

182 Before the advent of the GEOTRACES program, full water column profiles of trace

183 metal and isotopic composition of suspended particles were measured in only a few

184 locations. The trace element composition (including Al, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd and

185 Pb) of suspended particles was measured at BATS in the Sargasso Sea (Sherrell and

186 Boyle, 1992), in the North Pacific subtropical gyre (Bruland *et al.*, 1994), and off Point

187 Conception (CA) in the Northeast Pacific (Sherrell et al., 1998). The acetic acid leachable

188 and refractory fractions of particulate iron, manganese, and aluminum have been

189 measured in the North Pacific (Orians and Bruland, 1986; Landing and Bruland, 1987).

190 During the GEOSECS Atlantic cruises in the seventies, full water column data for a

191 whole suite of trace and minor elements were obtained by neutron activation of total

192 suspended matter (Ba, Ti, Sr, Mn, Mg, Cu, V, Al, Ca, La, Au, Hg, Cr, Sb, Sc, Fe, Zn, Co;

193 Peter Brewer, unpublished results). These data are currently being compared to those

194 obtained as part of the early GEOTRACES cruises. Such quality controlled data will be

195 further stored in the GEOTRACES Data Center, under the label "historical data".

196	
197	2-2 Role of suspended particles in oceanic processes
198	
199	Once we understand what drives the dissolved/colloidal/particulate partitioning of a
200	tracer, this information can then be used in turn to trace oceanic processes. Non-
201	exhaustively, we can cite:
202	- Dissolved and particulate ²³⁰ Th and ²³¹ Pa activity distributions provide an efficient tool
203	for estimating apparent particle settling velocities and therefore residence times in the
204	water column (Krishnaswami et al., 1976; Bacon and Anderson, 1982; Bacon et al.,
205	1985; Roy-Barman et al., 1996). The apparent settling velocity is the net effect of all
206	processes that are described in Figure 4. We acknowledge that reducing the particle
207	distribution in 2 categories only as represented in Figure 4 are simplified views of this
208	distribution, driven partly by sampling and analytical logistics. However, a two particle
209	class model captures two of the most important particle processes that are of interest here:
210	scavenging and sinking (see also McDonnell et al., this issue). The particle residence
211	times deduced from these radionuclide distributions can therefore be applied to other
212	poorly soluble TEIs.
213	- Δ^{14} C, δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N distributions allow the identification of terrestrial versus marine
214	origin of organic matter, episodes of re-suspension of shelf or slope organic matter,
215	penetration of atmospheric nitrogen and carbon and/or oxidative processes (Williams et
216	al., 1992; Mollenhauer et al., 2003; Mollenhauer et al., 2005)
217	- Biologically driven barite precipitation in the surface or sub-surface waters provide a
218	good tool for surface productivity reconstruction, in the modern as well as in the past
219	ocean (Dehairs et al., 1991; Dehairs et al., 1992; Jeandel et al., 2000; Cardinal et al.,
220	2001; Jacquet et al., 2008; Sternberg et al., 2008; Paytan et al., 1993; van Beek and
221	Reyss, 2001; van Beek et al., 2002).
222	- Rare earth elements (REEs) and Nd isotopes trace the origin of suspended material as
223	well as dissolved-particle exchanges in the water column (Jeandel et al., 1995;
224	Tachikawa et al., 1999a; Kuss et al., 2001).
225	- Manganese and iron are redox sensitive and less soluble when oxidized. In the surface
226	waters, photochemistry can efficiently change the speciation of these tracers and

227 therefore their distributions. In the water column, co-precipitation and/or adsorption of

228 TEIs on Mn and Fe oxyhydroxides result in removal of elements such as Co, Cu, Ni, Zn,

229 Th but also REEs (Anderson *et al.*, 1983a, b; Landing and Bruland, 1987; Sherrell and

Boyle, 1992; Moffett and Ho, 1996; Cardinal et al., 2001; Roy-Barman et al., 2009; Kuss

231 et al., 1999; Tachikawa et al., 1999b).

- Particle formation above submarine hydrothermal vents plays an important role in

233 modifying the gross flux from hydrothermal systems to the oceans. Approximately 50%

of the dissolved Fe released from a high-temperature vent is predicted to be precipitated

in the form of polymetallic sulfides in buoyant hydrothermal plumes within minutes of

- emission from the seafloor (Rudnicki and Elderfield, 1993). The remaining Fe
- precipitates more slowly, in the form of Fe-oxyhydroxides (Sherrell et al., 2000) which

238 can significantly impact the scavenging of trace elements and isotopes (oxyanions, Be, Y,

REE, Th, Pa) from the water column (Michard et al., 1983; Lilley et al., 1993). This

240 hydrothermal scavenging can be so pronounced as to match the boundary scavenging

241 effects seen at high productivity ocean margins (German et al., 1997). Most prior works

assumed that hydrothermal plume particle formation is an inorganic process, but recent

243 studies have shown that significant concentrations of organic carbon are incorporated into

hydrothermal particles (Bennett et al., 2011; Toner et al., 2009) and further that the

formation of these particulate phases may be microbially mediated (Sylvan *et al.*, 2012).

- 246
- 247

3- The role of sinking particles in TEI cycling

248

249 Large particles (> 53 μ m, under typical methodological size fractionation) make up most 250 of the vertical flux and therefore contribute to the sequestration of most elements in the 251 deep ocean. The size criterion for separating suspended and sinking particles is more an 252 operational definition than a biogeochemical one: small and dense particles (as fecal 253 pellets for example) can sink faster than large fluffy aggregates (McCave, 1975). Indeed, 254 in the ocean, particle distribution follows a continuous spectrum whose sinking rates do 255 not necessarily increase monotonically with size (McDonnell and Buesseler, 2010; 256 McDonnell et al, this issue).

- 257 There are two approaches to sampling sinking particles to study TEI cycling: 1) size-
- 258 fractionated filtration, which separates the particle pool into an operationally defined
- "suspended" size class (e.g. $< 53 \mu$ m) and a "sinking" size class (e.g. $> 53 \mu$ m), and 2)
- 260 direct collection of sinking particles of various sizes in sediment traps (Honjo, 1978;
- 261 McDonnell et al., this issue). In the first approach, geochemists analyze the TEI contents
- 262 of the different fractions, providing "state variables" of the systems to the modelers (Lam
- 263 et al., this issue; Dutay et al., 2009; Dutay et al., this issue). Despite this crude and
- 264 operational separation of the particle pool, thorium isotope distribution studies have
- 265 nonetheless shown that small and large particles exchange with each other throughout the
- water column, as well as with the dissolved phases. This has yielded the conceptual
- 267 model for particle dynamics first proposed by Bacon *et al.* (1985) and represented in
- Figure 4.

In addition to thorium isotopes, measurements of the size-fractionated concentrations of other TEIs such as manganese, neodymium and barium have also yielded insights into particle aggregation and disaggregation processes (Bishop and Fleisher, 1987; Jeandel et al., 1995; Bishop and Wood, 2008).

273 In the second approach, sinking particles collected from sediment traps are analyzed

- 274 directly. The majority of sediment trap studies have had as their goal a better
- 275 understanding of the biological pump. As such, sediment trap studies most frequently
- 276 report measurements of particulate organic carbon (POC) and particle mass, and often
- also major particle phases such as CaCO₃, biogenic silica, and lithogenic material, but
 TEI measurements are much more rare (Brewer *et al.*, 1980).
- 279 Compilations of the major phase composition (POM, CaCO₃, biogenic Si, lithogenics) of
- 280 sinking particles from bottom-tethered sediment traps during the JGOFS era have been
- 281 published (Antia et al., 2001; Armstrong et al., 2002; François et al., 2002; Klaas and
- 282 Archer, 2002; Lutz et al., 2007; Honjo et al., 2008; Honjo et al., 2010) and show a wide
- 283 geographic range in the magnitude and efficiency of POC flux to depth. Analysis of a
- 284 compilation of >53µm POC, CaCO₃ and biogenic Si concentrations also show wide
- 285 geographic and temporal range in the transfer of POC to depth (Lam *et al.*, 2011).
- 286 Several studies have noted correlations between the fluxes of POC and CaCO₃ in deep
- 287 sediment traps (> 1000 m) and have sparked numerous other studies as to the processes

288 behind this correlation. In contrast, the fraction of net primary production that is

exported from the euphotic zone is often correlated with the abundance of large

290 phytoplankton taxa, especially diatoms (Buesseler, 1991; Buesseler et al., 2007a; Guidi et

291 *al.*, 2009; Honda and Watanabe, 2010), illustrating that controls on shallow export flux

292 may be decoupled from controls on deep POC flux (François et al., 2002; Lomas et al.,

293 2010). Several time-series stations such as Bermuda Atlantic Time Series Study

294 (http://bats.bios.edu), Hawaii Ocean Time series in the Pacific

295 (http://hahana.soest.hawaii.edu/hot/hot-dogs/interface.html), DYFAMED time series in

the Mediterranean Sea (http://www.eurosites.info/dyfamed.php; Miquel *et al.*, 2011) and

297 ESTOC time series north of the Canary Islands (Neuer *et al.*, 1997; Patsch *et al.*, 2002),

as well as dedicated programs such as EUMELI (Bory et al., 2001), VERTIGO

299 (Buesseler et al., 2007a; Lamborg et al., 2008), and MedFlux (Lee et al., 2009) have also

300 shown wide ranging temporal variability in particle flux and composition. Even though

301 there are relatively few studies that have measured TEIs directly on sinking particles

302 (Huang and Conte, 2009), the wide geographic and temporal variability in particle

303 sinking flux implies that the sinks of particle-reactive TEIs will experience similar

304 variability (Antia *et al.*, 2001; Scholten *et al.*, 2001).

305 At some of the sites listed above and elsewhere, TEIs were measured in the trapped

306 material too. Most of these works used U-Th series to reconstruct or calibrate POC

307 fluxes (Cochran et al., 1993; Sarin et al., 2000; Roy-Barman et al., 2005; Stewart et al.,

308 2007; Trull et al., 2008; Cochran et al., 2009; Roy-Barman et al., 2009). Others used

309 stable ¹³C and ¹⁵N or barite to differentiate biogeochemical cycles (Jeandel *et al.*, 2000;

Lourey et al., 2004; Casciotti et al., 2008), and a few have used REE and radiogenic

311 isotope data to trace the origin of the particles (Jeandel et al., 1995; Tachikawa et al.,

312 1997; Chavagnac et al., 2008). The pioneer VERTEX program allowed investigations of

313 the major and trace element composition of sinking particles from the Pacific (Knauer *et*

- 314 *al.*, 1979; Fowler and Knauer, 1986) but the measurement of contamination-prone TEIs
- 315 in sediment trap samples has only become more common recently (Kuss and Kremling,
- 316 1999; Frew et al., 2006; Lamborg et al., 2008; Bowie et al., 2009; Ho et al., 2010; Ho et

317 *al.*, 2011). When studying fluxes of trace elements collected by sediment traps, one must

be aware of the tendency for TEIs to dissolve into supernatant solutions (Kumar *et al.*,1996).

320

321 322

4- Partition coefficients of trace elements: from the ocean to the models

323 The chemical behavior of particle-reactive metals such as Th, Pa, Nd and other REE is 324 often characterized by a partition coefficient K_d between seawater and marine particles 325 defined as:

 $K_{d} = \frac{mass of particulate tracer per mass of particles}{K_{d}}$

327

326

328 To first order, K_d for a given element is expected to depend of the chemical bulk

329 composition of the marine particles. Several approaches have been used to determine the 330 relationship between K_d and particle composition.

331 For elements having isotopes produced in situ such as Th and Pa, two methods have been 332 used: 1) correlation of isotopes produced in situ with the main components of sinking marine particles collected by sediment traps, and 2) sorption experiments using natural or 333 334 artificial seawater and particles. Sediment trap analyses have shown correlations between 335 radioisotopes and inorganic phases, but fortuitous correlations between components have 336 produced conflicting interpretations (Chase et al., 2002; Luo and Ku, 2004; Roy-Barman 337 et al., 2005; Roy-Barman et al., 2009). Some of these fortuitous correlations could be 338 avoided by directly studying small filtered particles, because they dominate the solid 339 surface area per volume and thus are more likely to adsorb tracers from seawater. This 340 would require that the total mass and the major components of filtered particles be 341 determined (Lam et al., this issue). While focus has mainly been on the impact of major components on K_d (see references above), minor phases such as Mn oxides could play a 342 343 significant role in the scavenging of Th (Roy-Barman et al., 2009) and Pa (Anderson et 344 al., 1983a,b) in deep waters. Sorption experiments have shown a relatively low affinity of Th for inorganic phases and a high affinity for organic compounds (Santschi et al., 2006). 345

346 These results are consistent with ²³⁴Th scavenging in shallow waters, but they fail to

explain the correlations between ²³⁰Th and inorganic phases (carbonate, lithogenic or Mn 347 348 oxides, see previous paragraph) observed in sediment trap data.

349 For elements derived from continental erosion, such as Neodymium (Nd) or Hafnium 350 (Hf), with no in situ sources of isotopes, the authigenic fraction of the elements in 351 particles can be determined by subtraction of the lithogenic fraction (Kuss et al., 2001, 352 Garcia-Solsona et al., 2014), chemical leaching or isotopic balance (Tachikawa et al., 353 1999b; Tachikawa et al., 2004). These methods do not necessarily give consistent results. 354 In the case of leaching, the selective dissolution of authigenic phases, without 355 contamination from other phases, remains to be demonstrated. More importantly, re-356 adsorption of leached TEIs to refractory phases, and the incomplete removal of colloidal 357 materials mobilized during leaching procedures, can confound the interpretation of the 358 original carrier of TEIs (Lam et al., this issue). Consequently, an approach based on 359 isotopic mass balance or on the statistical correlation among end member particulate 360 phases is preferred.

Recently, physical separations have brought new insights by partially isolating and 361 enriching some carriers (Kretschmer et al., 2010; 2011). The development of the analysis 362 363 of individual particles allows the unambiguous determination of some carriers (Roy-364 Barman, pers. comm.). Particle observation should be systematically coupled to particle 365 analysis (Lam et al., this issue). Besides methodological aspects, fundamental aspects of the tracer's behavior must be addressed: 366

367

- Possible disequilibrium between particles and seawater (Coppola et al., 2006; 368 Venchiarutti et al., 2011).

369

- The role of the colloidal phase for both organic and inorganic compounds.

370 - The impact of mineralization on the particle composition and K_d .

371 The present uncertainties on the K_d of Pa, Th and Nd have direct impacts on our 372 understanding of the distribution of these tracers in the ocean. For example, several 373 models "successfully" represent the Nd concentration and isotopic composition in the 374 ocean but in fact use different particle models (particle mineralization or boundary exchange) and K_d (equilibrium versus adsorption-desorption) that are adjusted to 375 376 eventually match the data (synthesis in Rempfer et al., 2011, 2012; Arsouze et al., 2009).

- 377 More dissolved and particle data from representative oceanic regimes are required to 378 constrain models, one of the main missions of GEOTRACES.
- 379
- 380

381 5- Benthic and Intermediate Nepheloid Layers and their impacts on TEI 382 distribution

383

Benthic Nepheloid Layers (BNLs) occur wherever bottom currents interact with the
(deep) sea floor (Biscaye and Eittreim, 1977, McCave *et al.*, 2001). In the discussion of
the effect of a BNL on the distribution of TEIs, we can distinguish the effects at two
spatial scales: (i) the effects on a local scale, like those related to currents characterized
by high level of eddy kinetic energy and to currents over seamounts (Turnewitsch *et al.*,
2008) and (ii) the effects on a larger scale related to large-scale abyssal circulation.

390

391 5-1 Local re-suspension

392

393 The generation of a BNL and the distribution and size spectra of particles have been 394 described by McCave (1984, 1986, 2001). Vertical mixing in bottom layers was studied during GEOSECS with ²²²Rn (Sarmiento et al., 1976). The vertical extent of BNLs is 395 396 enhanced by the detachment of bottom mixed layers (Armi and D'Asaro, 1980). If surface 397 sediments are in adsorption equilibrium with the bottom water, re-suspension need not 398 change this equilibrium. However, there are cases in which interaction between re-399 suspension and bioturbation can change the distribution of dissolved components in the 400 BNL relative to the water layer just above the BNL: 1) if the tracer decays within the 401 bioturbated zone, or 2) if K_d changes as a result of diagenetic changes (e.g. MnO₂ 402 enrichment) or particle dynamics like aggregation-disaggregation (Rutgers van der Loeff 403 and Boudreau, 1997). There is no indication that the particle concentration has an effect on the K_d in the BNL (Honeyman *et al.*, 1988). 404 For short-lived radionuclides like ²³⁴Th and ²¹⁰Pb, condition (1) above is clearly met. 405 Profiles of dissolved ²³⁴Th provide clear evidence for enhanced removal of dissolved 406 407 TEIs from bottom waters in the presence of nepheloid layers (Bacon and Rutgers van der

- Loeff, 1989). Enhanced removal of particle-reactive TEIs near the sea bed has been
 evident since GEOSECS-era studies of ²¹⁰Pb (Craig *et al.*, 1973), and the concept of
 bottom scavenging has been reintroduced recently through the study of ²³⁰Th (Okubo *et*
- 411 *al.*, 2012). However, developing a direct link between sediment re-suspension and
- 412 enhanced removal of TEIs near the sea bed will require joint research on particles as well
- 413 as on the distribution of dissolved TEIs.
- 414

415 **5-2 Long-range transport in the BNL**

- 416
- 417 Strong bottom currents occur along the western boundaries of the ocean basins (Warren,
- 418 1981), and deep wind and buoyancy-driven currents such as the Antarctic Circumpolar
- 419 Current can reach abyssal depths (e.g. in the Drake Passage; Renault et al., 2011).
- 420 Through re-suspension or, rather, selective deposition, these currents can maintain high
- 421 loads of suspended sediments. In the BNL, particles may be transported over large
- 422 distances as shown for clay minerals (Griffin *et al.*, 1968; Petschik *et al.*, 1996;
- 423 Diekmann *et al.*, 2004). This means that particles are not only redistributed locally
- 424 (winnowing and focusing) but also transported between areas with widely different local
- 425 sediment compositions.
- 426

427 **5-3 TEI fractionation**

428

429 The composition of material suspended in the BNL is different from that in the clear

430 water above it. Grain size fractionation has been described in detail by the studies of I.

431 McCave (Mc Cave, 2001). The possible effect of grain size fractionation on the isotopic

- 432 composition of deposited sediments was studied by Kretschmer *et al.* (2010; 2011) who433 found that :
- ²³⁰Th, ²³¹Pa and ¹⁰Be adsorb preferentially onto the smallest grain sizes
- 435 ²³¹Pa/²³⁰Th and ¹⁰Be/²³⁰Th ratios are enhanced in a slowly settling pure opal
 436 fraction
- 437 Settling rate fractionation during sediment focusing causes an increase in the bulk
 438 ²³⁰Th concentration and in the ²³¹Pa/²³⁰Th ratio.

439	
440	5-4 Intermediate Nepheloid Layers
441	
442	There are many examples of Intermediate Nepheloid Layers (INLs) caused by the
443	detachment of a BNL at the shelf break and other breaks in slope where internal tidal
444	energy is focused, followed by offshore advection (McCave et al., 2001). It would be
445	important to study the link between the dispersal of particulate (INLs) and dissolved
446	tracer signals from the shelf (e.g. Fe and Mn releases, ²¹⁰ Pb removal, Nd isotope
447	exchange (Sherrell et al., 1998; Lacan and Jeandel, 2005; Lam and Bishop, 2008). The
448	particulate signal disappears by sinking and aggregate formation (Clegg and Whitfield,
449	1990, 1991; Karakas et al., 2006; 2009). The time scale of distribution of dissolved shelf
450	inputs can be studied with short lived Ra isotopes and ²²⁸ Th.
451	
452	6- "Historical" understanding of particle dynamics and perspectives
453	
454	Despite its fundamental role in controlling the chemical composition of the ocean
455	(Goldberg, 1954; Turekian, 1977) and the different cruises conducted in the 70s and 80s,
456	the "oceanic microcosm of particles"-as christened by Lal (1977) – is far from being
457	understood yet. In addition, sampling strategies and scientific focus differed between the
458	GEOSECS and JGOFS programs. GEOSECS carried out large sections across the
459	oceanic basins, where particles were collected by membrane filtration after bottle
460	sampling, biasing the sampling towards the small particle pool. Analyses mostly
461	informed us about the distribution of particle concentrations (mass/L), their major
462	element compositions, as well as a few tracers and selected morphological and qualitative
463	composition descriptions, thanks to the first Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)
464	analyses. Subsequent box and one-dimensional (vertical) models described the different
465	fluxes exchanged in and out the oceanic system as well as along the water column. These
466	pioneering efforts led to the emergence of the fundamental notion of "reversible
467	scavenging" (Brewer et al., 1976; Krishnaswami et al., 1976; Lal, 1980; Nozaki et al.,
468	1981; Bacon and Anderson, 1982; Anderson et al., 1983a). They also highlighted the role

- 469 of "particle-rich" continental margins on the distribution of ocean tracers (Anderson and
 470 Henderson, 2003; Jeandel *et al.*, 2011).
- 471 JGOFS identified representative biogeochemical provinces of the ocean, where most of 472 the work was dedicated to the quantification of the "exported carbon flux" and its 473 seasonal variability (Fasham et al., 2001). Except for rare studies just prior to JGOFS 474 that conducted small particle sampling and deployed the first in situ pumps allowing 475 large volume filtration (Krishnaswami et al., 1976; Bacon and Anderson, 1982; Bishop et 476 al., 1985; Rutgers van der Loeff and Berger, 1993; Jeandel et al., 1995; Tachikawa et al., 477 1999b), most of the field work conducted during JGOFS deployed moored and (or) 478 drifting sediment traps. TEIs were barely measured, except perhaps ²³⁴Th and ²³⁰Th isotopes, which were recognized as useful for POC flux calibration and quantification. 479 480 Resulting models describe the exported carbon flux as it was related to the surface 481 nutrient distribution using 1D and 3D models coupling physics and biology (Bopp et al., 482 2002). Most of the particle models developed in the late 80s and in the 90s are 483 mechanistic and abiotic (Dutay et al., this issue; Burd and Jackson, 2009; Jackson and 484 Burd, this issue). Early models coupled particle dynamics to ocean circulation in an
 - 485 OGCM, although processes describing the particle behavior in such 3D dynamical
 - 486 models remained one-dimensional (Henderson and Maier-Reimer, 2002; Gehlen et al.,
 - 487 2003; Gehlen et al., 2006; Arsouze et al., 2009; Dutay et al., 2009; Rempfer et al., 2011).
 - 488

489 Conclusion

490

- 491 At the beginning of the GEOTRACES program, we have to admit that our collective
- 492 understanding of the processes governing the solution-particle exchange has made little
- 493 progress in the preceding two decades. Key questions remain:
- i) What are the affinities of the various TEIs for the different particulate phases
- 495 (Rutgers van der Loeff and Berger, 1993; Chase et al., 2002; Anderson and Henderson,
- 496 2003; Geibert and Usbeck, 2004; Luo and Ku, 2004; Roy-Barman et al., 2005; Santschi
- 497 *et al.*, 2006; Roy-Barman *et al.*, 2009)?

- 498 ii) What is the role of remineralization in the mesopelagic zone (Dehairs *et al.*, 1995;
- 499 Dehairs *et al.*, 1997; Frew *et al.*, 2006; Boyd and Trull, 2007; Buesseler *et al.*, 2007b;
 500 Dehairs *et al.*, 2008)?
- 501 iii) What is the impact of sediment diagenesis on the composition of resuspended
- 502 particles and on their ability to scavenge additional TEIs, despite having previously
- 503 equilibrated with dissolved species in the water column (Kretschmer *et al.*, 2010;
- 504 Kretschmer *et al.*, 2011)?
- iv) What are the roles of the BNLs and INLs on the boundary scavenging and boundary
 exchange processes (Bacon *et al.*, 1988; Roy-Barman *et al.*, 2005; Roy-Barman *et al.*,
 2009)?
- v) What is the importance of other surface processes like chemoautotrophy as a source of
 particles in the deep ocean (Honjo *et al.*, 2012)?
- 510 Answers to these questions can be provided by the GEOTRACES program with the
- 511 implementation of a comprehensive sampling and analytical strategies (pumps, optics,
- 512 observations and analysis of particles, see McDonnell et al., this issue; Boss et al., this
- 513 issue, Lam et al., this issue...), designed to elucidate the role of particles as agents of
- 514 supply and removal of TEIs in the ocean. There is an urgent need for re-focusing on
- 515 discrete particle composition, speciation and morphologies.
- 516

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1100	Figure Captions
1101	
1102	Figure 1
1103	Illustration of the different sources, internal cycling and sinks of oceanic particles. Reproduced
1104	from Roy-Barman and Jeandel (2011).
1105	
1106	Figure 2
1107	Profiles of particulate matter concentration (PMC) at the Northern Iberian Margin (43°N, June
1108	1997) calculated from beam attenuation (solid line) and light scattering (dotted line) against
1109	depth, together with the density structure (\Box_t) of the water column (dashed line). <i>Reprinted from</i>
1110	"Hall, I. R., Schmidt, S., McCave, I. N., Reyss, JL., 2000. Deep Sea Research Part I:
1111	Oceanographic Research Papers 47, 557-582. Copyright (2014), with permission from Elsevier"
1112	
1113	Figure 3
1114	Longitudinal section of the dry weight of particulate matter along the western Atlantic Ocean
1115	from the GEOSECS program. Reprinted from "Brewer, P. G., Spencer, D. W., Biscaye, P.
1116	E., Hanley, A., Sachs, P. L., Smith, C. L., Kadar, S., Fredericks, J., 1976. The
1117	distribution of particulate matter in the Atlantic Ocean. Earth and Planetary Science
1118	Letters 32, 393-402. Copyright (2014), with permission from Elsevier"
1119	
1120	Figure 4
1121	Particle dynamics as depicted by thorium (Th) isotopes in the mid-80s. Th isotopes are produced
1122	in solution by radioactive decay of the soluble U or Ra isotopes. Due to their very low solubility,
1123	Th isotopes are rapidly adsorbed on small particles and colloids that represent most of the
1124	available solid surface. Th isotopes then follow the dynamics of particles. Th isotopes differ by
1125	their radioactive decay constants (lambda) and input functions. Combining the different isotopes
1126	allows determining the other time constants: k_{ads} for adsorption, k_{des} for desorption, k_{aggr} for
1127	aggregation, k_{dis} for disaggregation, as well as the sinking speeds of the different types of
1128	particles. Remineralization of large particles was neglected due to the low solubility of thorium.
1129	Colloids were not included either because their impact on Th isotopes was highlighted later
1130	(Honeyman and Santschi, 1989). The main 1-D scheme is certainly dramatically oversimplified
1131	compared to the ecosystem-driven real processes. Small particles are aggregated into large
1132	particles either by zooplankton grazing (producing fecal pellets) or by abiotic aggregation of
1133	organic and inorganic material in fluff, due to sticking exudates produced at the end of the bloom.

- 1134 Large particles can scavenge and drag small ones in a sort of "oceanic piggy-back" process (Lal,
- 1135 1980). Large particles can also disaggregate into small particles when sinking. Indeed, the most
- 1136 fragile large particles, such as marine snow, can be broken by the turbulence of the current. Fecal
- 1137 pellets can also be destroyed by bacterial activity. The apparent settling velocity is the net effect
- 1138 of all these processes. The deduced particle residence time can therefore be applied to other
- 1139 poorly soluble TEIs. From Roy-Barman and Jeandel (2011) and redrawn from Bacon *et al.*
- 1140 (1985).
- 1141



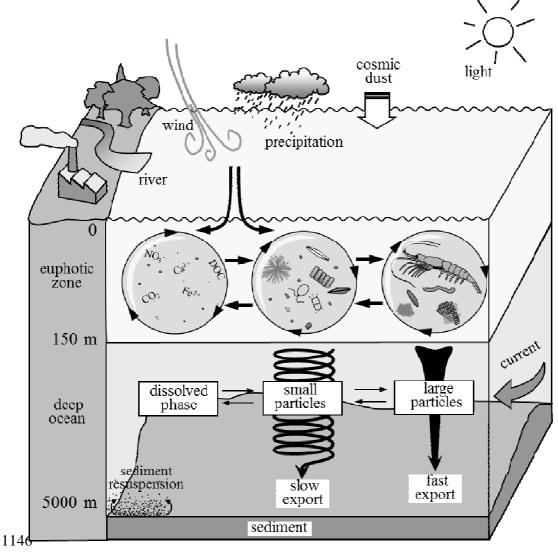
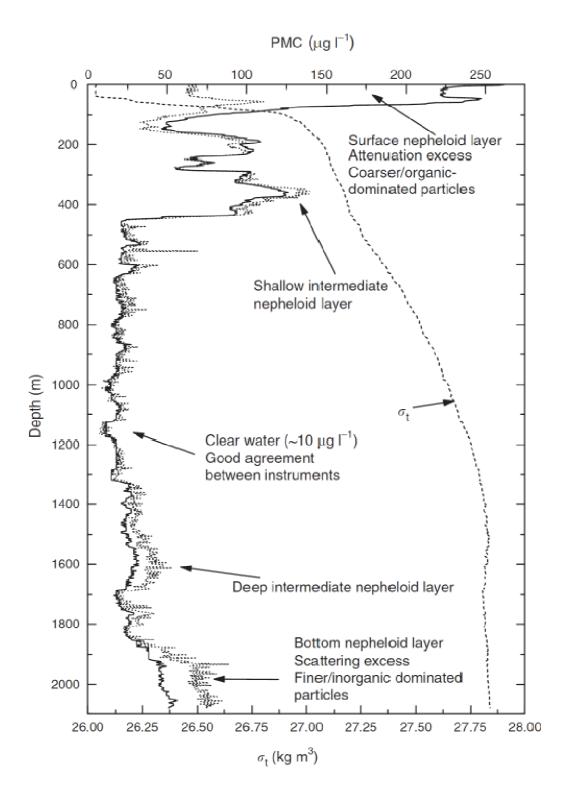




Figure 2



1153 **Figure 3**

1154

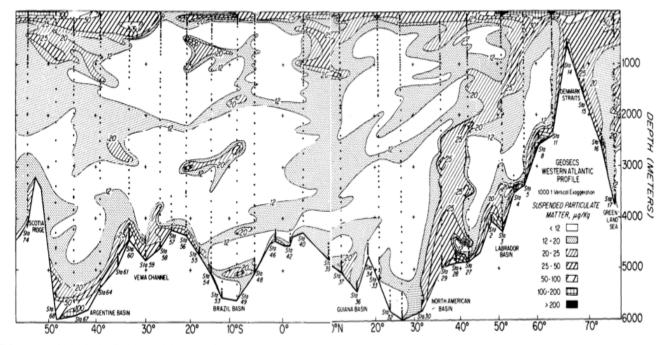


Fig. 2. Longitudinal section of the dry weight of particulate matter in the western Atlantic Ocean.

