1 2	Seasonal variability in carbon: ²³⁴ thorium ratios of suspended and sinking particles in coastal Antarctic waters: Field data and modeling synthesis
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14 ABSTRACT

15 ²³⁸U-²³⁴Th disequilibrium is a powerful tool for investigating particle cycling and carbon export associated

- 16 with the ocean's biological carbon pump. However, the interpretation of this method is complicated by
- 17 multiple processes that can modify carbon:thorium ratios over small spatial scales. We investigated
- 18 seasonal variability in the thorium and carbon cycles at a coastal site in the Western Antarctic Peninsula. 19 Throughout the ice-free summer season, we quantified carbon and ²³⁴Th vertical flux, total water column
- 234 Th, particulate 234 Th, and the C: 234 Th ratios of sinking material and bulk suspended material.
- 21 Simultaneous identification and separation of fecal pellets from sinking material showed that fecal pellets
- 21 Simulation of recal penets from sinking matched slower C:²³⁴Th ratios than
 22 (primarily from krill) contributed 56% of carbon flux and that as a result of lower C:²³⁴Th ratios than
- 23 suspended particles, these fecal pellets were primary drivers of variability in the C:²³⁴Th ratios of sinking
- 24 material. Bulk suspended particles had highly variable C:²³⁴Th ratios and were consistently elevated in
- 25 the euphotic zone relative to deeper waters. The fraction of 234 Th adsorbed onto particles was positively
- 26 correlated with chlorophyll and particulate organic carbon (POC) concentrations. The C:²³⁴Th ratios of
- 27 suspended particles were positively correlated with POC, although during the spring diatom bloom
- 28 C:²³⁴Th ratios were lower than would have been predicted based on POC concentrations alone. We
- 29 hypothesize that diatom production of transparent exopolymers may have led to enhanced rates of
- 30 thorium adsorption during the bloom, thus decreasing the C:²³⁴Th ratios. We used a Bayesian model
- 31 selection approach to develop and parameterize mechanistic models to simulate thorium sorption
- 32 dynamics. The best model incorporated one slowly-sinking POC pool and rapidly-sinking fecal pellets,
- 33 with second-order sorption kinetics. The model accurately simulated temporal patterns in the C^{234} Th
- 34 ratios of sinking and suspended particles and the fraction of ²³⁴Th adsorbed to particles. However, it
- 35 slightly over-estimated C:²³⁴Th ratios during the spring (diatom-dominated) bloom and underestimated
- 36 C:²³⁴Th ratios during the fall (mixed-assemblage) bloom. Optimized model parameters for thorium
- 37 sorption and desorption were 0.0047 ± 0.0002 m³ mmol C⁻¹ d⁻¹ and 0.017 ± 0.008 d⁻¹, respectively. Our
- results highlight the important role that specific taxa can play in modifying the C:²³⁴Th ratio of sinking
- 39 and suspended particles and provide guidance for future studies that use ²³⁴Th measurements to
- 40 investigate the functional relationships driving the efficiency of the biological pump.

42 HIGHLIGHTS

- 43 Investigated thorium and carbon cycling over full ice-free season
- 44 C:²³⁴Th ratios of sinking particles were controlled by low C:²³⁴Th of fecal pellets
- 45 C:²³⁴Th ratios of suspended particles were correlated with chlorophyll and POC
- 46 Diatom abundance may have led to high particulate thorium during spring bloom
- 47 Second-order thorium sorption kinetics model accurately simulates C:²³⁴Th ratios

48

49 KEYWORDS

- 50 thorium-234; uranium-thorium disequilibrium; particle scavenging; sorption kinetics; carbon export;
- 51 biogeochemical model; diatoms; euphausiids; Western Antarctic Peninsula

52

53 ABBREVIATIONS

- 54 BCP = biological carbon pump
- 55 Chl = chlorophyll
- 56 dpm = decays per minute
- 57 POC = particulate organic carbon
- 58 WAP = Western Antarctic Peninsula
- 59 DIC = Deviance information criterion

60 **1. INTRODUCTION**

61 Photosynthesis in the surface ocean decreases the partial pressure of CO₂ in the oceanic mixed layer, 62 leading to CO₂ uptake from the atmosphere (Falkowski et al., 1998; Raven and Falkowski, 1999). 63 However, as a result of the short life spans of pelagic primary producers, most CO₂ taken up is respired 64 back into the surface ocean. Long-term carbon sequestration is dependent on processes that transport 65 organic matter from the surface to the deep ocean and are collectively referred to as the biological carbon 66 pump (BCP) (Boyd et al., 2019; Ducklow et al., 2001; Volk and Hoffert, 1985). The BCP is often driven 67 by the gravitational settling of organic particles and aggregates (Boyd et al., 2019; Buesseler and Boyd, 68 2009), although recent evidence highlights the spatiotemporally variable importance of organic matter 69 subduction and active transport by vertical migrants (Archibald et al., 2019; Bianchi et al., 2013; Omand 70 et al., 2015; Stukel et al., 2018). Current estimates of the global magnitude of the BCP range from 5–13 71 Pg C yr⁻¹ (Dunne *et al.*, 2005; Henson *et al.*, 2011; Laws *et al.*, 2011; Siegel *et al.*, 2014). Our ability to 72 quantify interannual variability in the BCP, or predict its response to a changing climate, is hampered by 73 methodological difficulties that currently inhibit large-scale monitoring of the BCP (McDonnell et al., 74 2015).

75 Two commonly used approaches for quantifying sinking particle flux are sediment traps and 76 radionuclide disequilibria pairs. Sediment traps are conceptually simple tools that involve the deployment 77 and recovery of instruments capable of collecting sinking particles (Buesseler et al., 2007; Honjo et al., 78 2008; Martin et al., 1987). Sediment traps are commonly deployed in either long-term moored, surface-79 tethered, or neutrally-buoyant configurations. Long-term moored traps have been extensively used for 80 monitoring of particle flux near the seafloor (Honjo et al., 2008), however when deployed at shallow 81 depths to quantify particle flux entering the mesopelagic zone they are prone to substantial biases 82 (Buesseler et al., 2010). Surface-tethered and neutrally-buoyant traps may provide better results in 83 shallow water (Baker et al., 2020), but require substantial ship-time investment for short-term 84 deployments.

Radionuclide disequilibrium pairs (e.g., ²³⁸U-²³⁴Th) provide an alternate approach for quantifying flux 85 86 that is well-suited for the survey sampling plans of many oceanographic programs (Le Moigne et al., 2013; Van der Loeff et al., 2006; Verdeny et al., 2009; Waples et al., 2006). The parent nuclide (²³⁸U) is 87 a conservative element that decays into a shorter-lived, particle-reactive nuclide (²³⁴Th). When the 88 89 daughter particle is scavenged onto particles and removed from the surface ocean by particle sinking, it 90 creates a disequilibrium between parent and daughter that reflects the magnitude of particle flux that has 91 occurred over the decay lifetime of the daughter particle (Buesseler et al., 1992; Coale and Bruland, 1985; 92 Santschi et al., 2006). The use of simple steady-state models or more complex non-steady state models 93 that may incorporate physical mixing and advection then allow vertical profiles of disequilibrium to be 94 used to quantify radionuclide flux (Dunne and Murray, 1999; Resplandy et al., 2012; Savoye et al., 2006). 95 Estimations of carbon or nitrogen flux then require measurements of the C:radionuclide or N:radionuclide 96 ratio of sinking particles (Buesseler et al., 2006; Puigcorbé et al., 2020).

97 C:²³⁴Th ratios can be highly variable even over relatively small spatial scales (Buesseler *et al.*, 2006; 98 Hung and Gong, 2010; Stukel *et al.*, 2019). This variability is driven by complex chemical, ecological, 99 and physical interactions. Thorium adsorbs onto particle surfaces, suggesting that C:²³⁴Th ratios should 100 increase with increasing particle size due to the decreased surface area:volume ratio of large particles.

101 However, likely as a result of the heterogeneity of particle types in the ocean and multitude of processes

102 that reshape the particle size spectrum, simple relationships between particle size and C.²³⁴Th ratios have

103 proved elusive (Buesseler et al., 2006; Burd et al., 2007; Hung and Gong, 2010; Passow et al., 2006).

²³⁴Th scavenging is also affected by the presence of acid polysaccharides that have multiple strong

105 sorption sites for 234 Th (Guo et al., 2002; Passow et al., 2006; Quigley et al., 2002; Zhang et al., 2008) and 106 by the relative partitioning between sinking particles and suspended particles and colloids (Murphy *et al.*,

by the relative partitioning between sinking particles and suspended particles and colloids (Murphy *et al.*, 107 1999). C: 234 Th ratios in large size fractions or sediment trap samples can also be affected by the presence

- 108 of mesozooplankton, which tend to have very high C:²³⁴Th ratios (Coale, 1990; Dunne et al., 2000;
- 109 Passow et al., 2006; Stukel et al., 2016; Stukel et al., 2019) or mesozooplankton fecal pellets, which

110 might have low C:²³⁴Th ratios if zooplankton assimilate carbon but not 234 Th (Rodriguez y Baena *et al.*,

111 2007; Stukel *et al.*, 2019).

Because of the multiple factors that complicate *a priori* prediction of the C:²³⁴Th ratio of sinking particles, it is ideal to empirically determine these ratios for sinking particles at every location and time

for which particle flux estimates are desired. However, typical oceanographic survey designs often do not

permit such sampling plans, leading researchers to interpolate coarse C:²³⁴Th ratio measurements (or no

116 contemporaneous measurements at all) to finer resolution water column ²³⁴Th sample locations (Ducklow

et al., 2018; Estapa et al., 2015; Puigcorbé et al., 2017; van der Loeff et al., 2011). Clearly additional

118 information relating C:²³⁴Th ratios to contemporaneous chemical, physical, and biological parameters is

119 necessary to enable more accurate estimation of carbon (or other element) flux at times when this

120 parameter cannot be measured.

One potentially fruitful approach for estimating spatiotemporal variability in C:²³⁴Th ratios at multiple 121 scales is the development of mechanistic, coupled ²³⁴Th sorption models (Resplandy et al., 2012). Such 122 models have been used for diverse purposes including quantifying the impacts of physical circulation on 123 124 ²³⁴Th export estimates in the Equatorial Pacific (Dunne and Murray, 1999), investigating the impacts of 125 aggregation on ²³⁴Th flux (Burd et al., 2007), illustrating mesoscale variability in ²³⁴Th activity 126 (Resplandy et al., 2012), simulating deepwater sorption processes (Lerner et al., 2016), and quantifying 127 the impact of particle sinking speeds on vertical distributions of C:²³⁴Th ratios (Stukel and Kelly, 2019). 128 Despite their increasingly frequent use, there is substantial uncertainty about what model compartments 129 (i.e., state variables) are necessary to accurately simulate the system. Furthermore even the basic 130 functional forms for modeling thorium sorption remain in question. For instance, Lerner et al. (2016) 131 assumed sorption was driven by first-order kinetics (i.e., sorption rates are proportional to dissolved 132 ²³⁴Th) but concluded that thorium sorption coefficients were depth-dependent, while Replandy *et al.* 133 (2012) and Stukel and Kelly (2019) applied second order kinetics (i.e., sorption rates are proportional to 134 the product of dissolved ²³⁴Th×POC) with non-varying sorption coefficients. The specific parameters 135 associated with thorium sorption and desorption, and whether or not these parameters differ for different 136 classes of particles, remain highly uncertain.

137 This study focuses on seasonal variability in thorium and carbon cycling at a coastal site in the 138 Western Antarctic Peninsula (WAP). The coastal WAP is a heavily sea-ice influenced region in which 139 summer diatom blooms typically support large euphausiid populations (Ducklow *et al.*, 2013; Saba *et al.*, 140 2014). Sinking particle flux in the WAP exhibits high seasonal variability and is dominated by 141 euphausiid fecal pellets, although vertical mixing may also play an important role in the BCP (Ducklow *et al.*, 2008; Gleiber *et al.*, 2012; Stukel and Ducklow, 2017). We present results from weekly sampling of

143 water column 234 Th, water-column particulate C: 234 Th ratios, the C: 234 Th ratios of sinking particles, and

sinking fecal pellet flux made in parallel with chemical and biological measurements made by the Palmer

Long-Term Ecological Research (LTER) Program including chlorophyll *a* (Chl), particulate organic

146 carbon (POC), nutrients, and primary production. We also use a Bayesian model selection approach to

simulate thorium sorption and desorption processes and changing C^{234} Th ratios; to objectively evaluate

- 148 models of differing complexity using either first-order or second-order sorption kinetic equations; and to
- estimate thorium sorption parameters.
- 150

2. METHODS

2.1. Oceanographic sampling – Sampling took place during the Palmer LTER 2012-2013 field season
 from October 31st (as soon as the winter sea ice cleared) until March 25th (near the end of the
 phytoplankton growing season). Samples were primarily collected from Palmer LTER Station E, which

is located 3.2 km from shore in \sim 170 m water depth in the Bismarck Strait (Fig. 1). Basic physical,

156 chemical, and biological measurements (temperature, salinity, photosynthetically active radiation,

nutrients, chlorophyll, and primary productivity) were made twice weekly. Water column total ²³⁴Th and

158 particulate ²³⁴Th were measured weekly. Moored sediment traps were typically deployed and recovered

159 for continuous one-week deployments. However, during early and late seasons, conditions (primarily sea

160 ice) required shorter, non-overlapping deployments.

161 2.2 Sediment trap - We used a moored version of VERTEX-style sediment traps (Knauer et al., 1979; 162 Stukel et al., 2015). This moored configuration was necessary, because drifting traps would rapidly have 163 floated out of the 3.2-km radius region surrounding Palmer Station within which small boat operations are 164 permitted. The trap array included four particle-interceptor trap (PIT) tubes (60-cm height, 7-cm internal 165 diameter) with a baffle comprised of 13 smaller tubes with tapered ends, on a PVC cross-piece. PIT tubes 166 were filled with saltwater brine made from 0.1- μ m filtered seawater amended with 40 g L⁻¹ NaCl and 167 borate-buffered formaldehyde (final concentration 0.4%). The trap was moored 50-m from the surface in 168 \sim 170-m deep water near station E (during the middle of the season) or in \sim 80-m deep water at station B 169 (at the beginning and end of the season when conditions and circumstances did not allow deployment at 170 E, see Fig. 1). Trap deployments during the middle of the season were of roughly one-week duration, 171 with the trap redeployed immediately following recovery. At the beginning and end of the season sea ice 172 increased the risk of losing the trap, so deployments were shortened to a period of 2-4 days.

173 After recovery, overlying less dense water was removed by gentle suction and PIT tube brine was 174 mixed by gentle inversion. 50-150 mL aliquots were taken from each of three tubes and filtered onto 175 GF/F filters for pigment analyses. The remainder of each of the three tubes was similarly weighed and filtered through a 200-µm filter. The filtrate was filtered through a pre-combusted QMA filter for C:²³⁴Th 176 177 analyses of the <200-µm fraction. The material on the 200-µm filter was inspected under a Leica MZ 178 stereomicroscope to allow removal of mesozooplankton swimmers. The remainder of the >200-µm 179 sample was then filtered through a pre-combusted QMA filter for C:²³⁴Th analyses of the large size-180 fraction of sinking material.

The fourth PIT tube was used for fecal pellet enumeration. Samples were size-fractionated through a
 200-μm filter as described above. The >200-μm size-fraction was rinsed into a gridded plastic petri dish

183 and an average of 330 pellets per sample were enumerated under a Leica MZ 7.5 dissecting microscope at

- 184 6.3X magnification. Images were taken of random grid cells with a Nikon Digital Sight DS-Fi1c digital
- 185 camera. When a visual assessment suggested that >90% of the particle volume in the sample was
- 186 composed of fecal pellets, large non-fecal pellet particles were removed (though large non-fecal pellet
- 187 particles were never common) and the remainder of the sample was filtered through a pre-combusted
- QMA filter for analysis of the C:volume and C:²³⁴Th ratio of fecal pellets. The <200-µm size fraction 188 189 was poured into a graduated cylinder and fecal pellets were allowed to settle in the bottom of the cylinder.
- 190 Liquid was then decanted through a 10-µm filter until ~10mL remained. Remaining liquid containing
- 191 sinking material was then poured into a gridded petri dish and 10-um filter was rinsed into petri dish. 192
- Random grid cells were examined under the Leica dissecting microscope and imaged at 25X
- 193 magnification. A minimum of 100 fecal pellets were imaged for each sample. Images were examined 194 and fecal pellets were outlined using ImagePro software. Fecal pellet dimensions (length and width) were
- 195 used to compute volume using the equation of a cylinder (since the vast majority of pellets were
- 196 cylindrical euphausiid pellets). The empirically determined carbon density of the fecal pellets (2.15 µmol
- 197 C mm⁻³) was used to estimate pellet carbon flux from microscopy images of fecal pellets.

198 2.3. Water column thorium sampling – Three types of measurements were made to quantify thorium distributions in the water column: total 234 Th, bulk (>1-µm) particulate 234 Th, and >50-µm 234 Th. Total 199 200 ²³⁴Th was measured using standard small volume techniques (Benitez-Nelson *et al.*, 2001; Pike *et al.*, 201 2005). 3-4 L samples (exact volume determined gravimetrically on land) for total ²³⁴Th were sampled by 202 Go-Flo bottles from eight depths (0, 5, 10, 20, 35, 50, 65, 100 m). Samples were acidified to a pH of <2with HNO₃. A tracer addition of ²³⁰Th was added and samples were mixed vigorously. Samples were 203 204 allowed to equilibrate for 4-9 hours and then adjusted to a pH of 8-9 with NH₄OH. KMnO₄ and MnCl₂ 205 were added and samples were mixed and allowed to sit for ~12 h as Th co-precipitated with manganese 206 oxide. Samples were then vacuum-filtered at high pressure onto QMA filters, dried, and mounted in 207 RISO sample holders.

3-4 L particulate ²³⁴Th samples were similarly collected (although only at depths from 0-65 m) and 208 weighed on land. Samples were then immediately vacuum-filtered at a pressure of 5-7" Hg onto a pre-209 210 combusted QMA filter. Filtrate was collected and 4 L was filtered through an additional pre-combusted 211 QMA filter to serve as a blank to account for adsorption of dissolved ²³⁴Th or organic carbon onto filter. 212 Filters were immediately dried in a drying oven and mounted in RISO sample holders. A gap in

particulate ²³⁴Th sampling occurred from Jan. 17th to Feb. 8th. 213

214 >50-µm²³⁴Th particulate samples were collected by two different methods, depending on depth. At 215 the surface, samples were collected by directly filling a 50-L carboy with surface water and gravity 216 filtering through a 50-µm nitex mesh filter. Samples from 10 and 30 m depth were collected by a 217 submersible pump (Proactive Industries SS Monsoon Pump) and filtered through a 50-µm nitex mesh 218 filter on the zodiac. Volumes filtered depended on particle concentration and ranged up to 100 L. 219 Particles were rinsed from 50-um filters onto pre-combusted OMA filters, dried, and mounted in RISO 220 sample holders. We note that this approach to collecting large particles and aggregates might be more 221 likely to generate turbulence that disrupts fragile aggregates than frequently used stand-alone in situ 222 pumps. It was the only approach that was feasible when sampling from a zodiac, however.

223 Samples for water column ²³⁴Th, particulate ²³⁴Th, >50- μ m particulate ²³⁴Th, and sediment trap ²³⁴Th 224 were beta counted on a RISO low-level background beta counter at Palmer Station and re-counted >6 225 half-lives later. Samples for water-column ²³⁴Th were then dissolved in HNO₃/H₂O₂ solution and ²²⁹Th 226 tracer was added. Samples were evaporated and reconstituted in dilute nitric acid / hydrofluoric acid. 227 They were then analyzed by inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry at the Woods Hole 228 Oceanographic Institute Analytical Lab to determine the ratio of ^{229:230}Th to determine the initial yield of

- the ²³⁴Th filtration. Samples for particulate ²³⁴Th (water column, size-fractionated, and sediment trap)
- 230 were fumed with HCl to remove inorganic carbon and combusted in a CHN analyzer to quantify
- 231 particulate organic carbon (POC) and the C:²³⁴Th ratio.
- ²³⁴Th export was estimated from water-column ²³⁴Th measurements using a one-dimensional non steady state equation that estimated vertical introduction of ²³⁴Th as a diffusive process:

234
$$E = \left({}^{238}U - {}^{234}Th\right)\lambda_{234} - \frac{\partial^{234}Th}{\partial t} + k_z \frac{\partial^{234}Th}{\partial z}$$
(1)

where ²³⁸U and ²³⁴Th are the activities of ²³⁸U and ²³⁴Th vertically-integrated above a reference depth (50 m here, for comparison to sediment traps), λ_{234} is the decay constant for ²³⁴Th, and k_z is a temporallyvarying vertical eddy diffusivity coefficient estimated at our sampling location (Stukel *et al.*, 2015). ²³⁸U activity was estimated from a linear relationship with salinity (Owens *et al.*, 2011). ²³⁴Th was estimated

as a two-week moving average.

240 2.4. Biological measurements – Chl a samples were taken at 5 depths (0, 5, 10, 20, and 65 m), filtered 241 onto GF/F filters and measured using a fluorometer with the acidification method (Strickland and 242 Parsons, 1972). Samples for net primary productivity (NPP) were taken from the same depths, transferred 243 into polycarbonate bottles, and spiked with $H^{14}CO_3^{-1}$. Bottles were covered in mesh screening to achieve 244 irradiance levels equal to 100%, 50%, 25%, 10%, and 0% surface irradiance and incubated in an outdoor 245 incubator with temperature corresponding to surface seawater. These irradiance levels correspond to 246 typical light levels at those depths during the season. However, at the height of the spring bloom, light 247 levels were substantially lower *in situ* than in the sample bottles. Hence we corrected our NPP estimates 248 by fitting a primary productivity model based on Moline et al. (1998): $PP = P_{max} \times Chl \times tanh(PAR/I_k)$. We 249 determined P_{max} and I_k from our H¹⁴CO₃⁻ uptake incubations, combined with contemporaneous Chl a 250 measurements and PAR determined by multiplying 24 hour averages of Palmer Station surface PAR by 251 our incubation light percentages. For additional details, see Stukel et al. (2015).

2.5. Statistical analyses – To smooth and interpolate our unevenly sampled data fields from station E,
 we used the geostatistical technique of kriging (Krige, 1951). This approach was particularly important
 for matching total water column ²³⁴Th and particulate ²³⁴Th measurements, because these measurements
 were typically made 2 days apart. Linear regressions were computed using Type II geometric mean
 regressions (Matlab function lsqfitgm), because independent variables were never controlled.
 Correlations were tested using Pearson's linear correlation (Matlab function corr).

2.6 Thorium sorption models – To mechanistically investigate the processes driving variability in the
 C:²³⁴Th ratio we developed simple dynamic models describing transformations of particulate organic
 carbon and thorium sorption and desorption. We had three primary objectives in developing these models:
 Ascertain whether first-order kinetics or second-order kinetics more accurately described thorium

sorption processes. 2) Determine what processes (e.g., fecal pellet production; differences in sorption

263 between phytoplankton and detritus) must be included to accurately model variability in the C:²³⁴Th ratio.

264 3) Objectively parameterize key sorption rate coefficients, along with their associated uncertainty.

265 Accurate mechanistic modeling of the complex biogeochemistry of the WAP, or indeed any marine

ecosystem, is exceedingly challenging (Hood et al., 2006; Schultz et al., 2020), and our goal was not to

267 develop a model capable of completely simulating carbon and nitrogen dynamics in the region. We 268 therefore developed diagnostic models of particulate organic carbon. Specifically, we determined time-

269 varying fields associated with biogeochemical transfer functions (e.g., primary productivity,

270 remineralization, particle sinking flux) directly from our field measurements (see online supplementary

appendix). These diagnostic models were able to completely model the processes driving temporal

272 variability in POC (and phytoplankton biomass for more complex models), while exactly matching the

field measurements of POC (Supp. Figs. 1 - 4). We then coupled the diagnostic POC models to

274 mechanistic models of thorium transformations using either first-order or second-order sorption kinetics.

275 We used four different model structures for organic carbon (Fig. 2): particulate organic carbon only 276 (POC); POC and krill fecal pellets (POC-FP); phytoplankton, detritus, and krill fecal pellets (Phy-Det-277 FP); and diatoms, flagellates, detritus, and krill fecal pellets (Dtm-Flag-Det-FP). All models included 278 sinking (for detritus or POC) and vertical mixing (all compartments). Model 1 (POC model) also 279 included NPP and remineralization. Model 2 (POC-FP model) added grazing by krill and the production 280 of fecal pellets which we assume sank from the euphotic zone instantaneously. Model 3 (Phy-Det-FP 281 model) split the POC pool into phytoplankton and other detritus (which includes heterotrophic bacteria 282 and protists, although we assume that non-living detritus is the bulk of this pool). The Phy-Det-FP model 283 includes NPP and mortality of phytoplankton. A portion of this mortality produces detritus, while the 284 remainder is lost to the dissolved pool. Detritus then experiences remineralization. Model 4 (Dtm-Flag-285 Det-FP model) includes the same processes, except that it splits the phytoplankton compartment into 286 diatoms and flagellates. These four carbon models were each coupled to two variants of a thorium-287 sorption model (first-order or second-order). First order models parameterized thorium sorption as: 288 sorption = $k_1 \times {}^{234}$ Th_{diss}. Second-order models parameterized thorium sorption as: sorption = 289 $k_2 \times POC \times {}^{234}Th_{diss}$. We assumed that different model carbon components could have different thorium-290 binding properties (e.g., for the Phy-Det-FP model we assumed that Phy and Det have different thorium 291 sorption coefficients: k_{1,Phy} and k_{1,Det}). All models also included desorption, decay, and production of 292 dissolved ²³⁴Th from ²³⁸U. For additional description of the models, including all diagnostic equations, 293 please see the online supplementary appendix.

294 We ran the model in a one-dimensional configuration for the upper 65 m of the water column with 5-295 m thick layers and a 3-minute time step. To match our field data, we initialized the model with field data 296 from November 10 and ran it to December 10 and then reinitialized it from Dec. 20 and ran it to March 297 17. We chose not to model the period from Dec. 10 - 20, because wind data showed that these dates 298 encompassed the only period of consistent offshore winds, causing an across-shore current that 299 invalidates the assumption of our one-dimensional model (Stukel et al., 2015). We note that a onedimensional model neglects along-shore and across-shore advective processes that have the potential to 300 301 impact water column standing stocks of ²³⁴Th and POC. However, we feel that this is justified, because: 302 1) a one-dimensional nitrogen-mass-balance-constrained model suggested that our sampling site could be 303 adequately modeled as a one-dimensional system except from Dec. 10 - 20 (Stukel *et al.*, 2015); 2) wind 304 measurements and water column measurements from a nearby site did not suggest horizontal advection as

a dominant term in ²³⁴Th or POC budgets; and 3) Markov Chain Monte Carlo parameter exploration (see
 below) is not computationally feasible with a three-dimensional model.

307 2.7 Bayesian model parameterization and selection – The aforementioned eight models varied 308 substantially in their complexity. Model 1 had two unknown parameters to be fitted; Model 2 had three; 309 Model 3 had four; and Model 4 had five. To fit these parameters to the field data, we used a Bayesian 310 statistical framework solved using a Markov Chain Monte Carlo approach (Metropolis et al., 1953). 311 Specifically, starting with an initial guess for all parameter values, we ran the model from November 10 -312 December 10 and from December 20 – March 17. We then computed the model misfit to all C:²³⁴Th 313 data: suspended particle C:²³⁴Th field data was compared to the sum of organic carbon in all particulate model compartments divided by the sum of particulate ²³⁴Th in those same compartments. We also 314 315 compared the C:²³⁴Th ratio of model sinking particles at 50-m depth to sediment trap C:²³⁴Th and for all models that included fecal pellets we also compared modeled fecal pellet C:²³⁴Th ratios to >200-um 316 317 sediment trap C:²³⁴Th and modeled small detritus sinking C:²³⁴Th to <200-µm sediment trap C:²³⁴Th. Log likelihood (ln(L)) was computed from misfit as: $\ln(L) = e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sum(\text{misfit}/\sigma)^2}$, where σ is measurement 318

319 uncertainty.

We then proposed a new value for each parameter by drawing a random number from a normal distribution centered at the previous value for each parameter set. We re-ran the model with this new proposed parameter set and re-computed ln(L). This proposed parameter set was accepted with probability:

324
$$prob = \frac{\ln (L)_1}{\ln (L)_0} \times \frac{prior_1}{prior_0}$$
(2)

325 Where *prior* represents the prior density of the parameter set, and subscripts 0 represent the original 326 parameter set, while subscripts 1 represent the proposed parameter set. For all sorption and desorption 327 parameters, we assumed log-normal prior distributions. For first-order forward sorption coefficients we chose a prior distribution with a mean of 0.7 y⁻¹ from Lerner et al. (2016). For second-order forward 328 329 sorption coefficients we used a prior distribution with a mean of 0.013 m³ mmol C d⁻¹ from Stukel et al. 330 (2019). For the desorption coefficient we chose a prior with a mean of 2 y^{-1} (Lerner *et al.*, 2016). Since 331 the thorium egestion coefficient (Eg_{Th}), which parameterizes the proportion of thorium consumed by 332 euphausiids that is egested in their fecal pellets, must vary between zero and one, we modeled its prior 333 with a beta distribution. We centered the beta distribution at 0.5, because of evidence that a higher 334 proportion of thorium is egested than carbon, while carbon-based egestion efficiencies are typically $\sim 30\%$ 335 (Conover, 1966; Stukel et al., 2019). For all prior distributions we chose shape parameters that reflected 336 a coefficient of variation equal to 0.5 to represent substantial uncertainty in these parameters. We ran the 337 Markov Chain Monte Carlo simulation for a minimum of 200,000 iterations (longer if results had not 338 stabilized) and removed the initial 10% of the iterations as a burn-in period. To objectively compare the 339 differences between different model structures we used the deviance information criterion (DIC, 340 Spiegelhalter et al., 2002). DIC accounts for varying model complexity (i.e., number of parameters) with 341 better performing models having a lower DIC.

342 3. RESULTS

343 3.1. Conditions during the 2012-2013 field season – At the beginning of our sampling season, 344 phytoplankton biomass was low ($<2 \mu g \text{ Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1}$) and mixed-layer nitrate concentrations were high (28) 345 μ umol L⁻¹, Fig. 3), typical early-season conditions at Palmer Station and other locations along the 346 Peninsula (Kim et al., 2018). Phytoplankton abundance and net primary productivity remained low (and 347 nutrients remained high) until mid-November, when a strong phytoplankton bloom formed (peak Chl a 348 concentrations $\sim 20 \ \mu g \ Chl a \ L^{-1}$). High nitrate uptake rates were paired with rapid nutrient drawdown in 349 surface layers to $\sim 5 \mu mol NO_3^{-1} L^{-1}$. Although strong in magnitude, the bloom was brief and terminated by 350 early December. Although the end of the bloom coincided with peak export, export measured in the 351 sediment traps was not sufficient to explain the rapid loss of POC from the euphotic zone. Instead, 352 evidence (including sustained offshore favorable winds and a rapid return to high nutrient concentrations) 353 suggested that the end of the bloom coincided with an offshore lateral advection event common in this 354 region (Oliver et al., 2019). Chl, POC, and NPP remained low for approximately two months following 355 the decay of the bloom and nutrient concentrations actually increased in the euphotic zone over this 356 period (Fig. 3). In mid to late February, a late summer bloom began to form, although Chl concentrations 357 never exceeded 4 µg Chl a L⁻¹.

358 Throughout the season, sediment-trap derived carbon flux ranged from 5.8 ± 1.0 mmol C m⁻³ d⁻¹ 359 (mean \pm standard deviation of triplicate samples) to 15.3 ± 1.5 mmol C m⁻³ d⁻¹ (Fig. 4). Euphausiid fecal 360 pellets were responsible for 56% of total carbon flux, although their contribution was highly variable and 361 ranged from 2.5% to 128%. Similarly, >200-µm particles (which were primarily composed of fecal 362 pellets, although pellets were also found in the <200-µm fraction) were responsible for 49.6% of total 363 carbon flux and ranged from 4.1% to 65%. The above results should be interpreted with some caution, however, because simultaneous ²³⁴Th measurements suggested that the traps were under-collecting 364 365 sinking particles by 29% (see below).

366 3.2 Thorium dynamics and C: Th ratios – ²³⁴Th activity was near equilibrium with ²³⁸U (2.4 dpm L⁻¹)
 at the beginning of the field season and decreased substantially in the upper 20 m during the spring
 phytoplankton bloom (Fig. 5a, Supp. Table 1). Immediately following the bloom decay, ²³⁴Th
 concentrations increased briefly in January before remaining low in the upper 20 m until March.

370Particulate 234 Th activity seasonal patterns were largely driven by the spring bloom, during which371time particulate 234 Th activity reached >0.8 dpm L⁻¹ and the percentage of total 234 Th contained in372particles reached ~40%. During the rest of the season, particulate 234 Th activities were ~0.2 dpm L⁻¹ and373only ~10% of total 234 Th (Fig. 6, Supp. Table 2).

374 The C:²³⁴Th ratio of suspended particles was consistently higher in the upper euphotic zone (where it typically ranged from $40 - 80 \mu mol C dpm^{-1}$, but occasionally reached values greater than 100 $\mu mol C$ 375 376 dpm^{-1}) than deeper in the water column (where values typically ranged from 5 – 40 µmol C dpm⁻¹, Fig. 377 7a). C:²³⁴Th ratios exhibited different seasonal patterns in the upper and lower water column. Early in 378 the season, C:²³⁴Th ratios were relatively constant with depth, but they increased slightly in the surface waters during the bloom and decreased substantially in deep waters beneath the bloom. C:²³⁴Th ratios in 379 380 surface waters were slightly higher during the late summer bloom and particularly at the end of the field 381 season than they were during the spring bloom or low biomass period in January and early February.

382 Size-fractionated (>50- μ m) C:²³⁴Th ratios showed relatively low variability between the mixed layer 383 and a depth of 30 m (Fig. 7b,c). However, they were almost always greater than the C:²³⁴Th ratios of bulk 384 suspended particles. The C:²³⁴Th ratio of large (>50 um) particles ranged from $\sim 40 - 160 \,\mu\text{mol C dpm}^{-1}$

- prior to and during the spring bloom. During the post-bloom low biomass period, however, the C:²³⁴Th
- ratios often exceeded 200 μ mol C dpm⁻¹, although there was often substantial uncertainty associated with
- 387 these measurements, because ²³⁴Th activities were at times quite low despite a substantial amount of
- 388 carbon on the filters. Although we did not undertake careful microscopic examination of the contents of
- 389 the >50-μm samples, brief inspections (intended to ensure that no large metazoan zooplankton were 390 present) did not notice the conspicuous euphausiid fecal pellets that often dominated sinking flux
- 391 collected from the sediment traps. It thus seems likely that the >50-µm samples collected from the water
- 392 column were qualitatively different from the dominant sinking particles.
- 393 In contrast to large or bulk suspended particles, the C:²³⁴Th ratio of sinking particles collected by the sediment trap at 50 m depth had low C:²³⁴Th ratios and comparatively low variability throughout the 394 season (Fig. 7d, Supp. Table 3). The C:²³⁴Th ratio of sinking particles declined from 22.3 µmol C dpm⁻¹ 395 396 in the beginning of the field season to 7.6 μ mol C dpm⁻¹ near the end of the spring bloom. For the 397 remainder of the summer it remained within a relatively narrow range from 9.7 to 18.4 µmol C dpm⁻¹. 398 Large (>200-µm) sinking particles (predominantly fecal pellets) consistently had a lower C:²³⁴Th ratio than smaller sinking particles in stark contrast to the pattern of generally higher C:²³⁴Th ratios found in 399 400 >50-µm particles collected in the water column relative to bulk suspended particles. C:²³⁴Th ratios were 401 also measured on three samples from which all non-fecal pellets had been removed. These fecal pellet 402 samples had C:²³⁴Th ratios ranging from 10.9 to 11.8 µmol C dpm⁻¹.
- 403 Direct comparison of ²³⁴Th fluxes into sediment traps to estimates of ²³⁴Th flux based on a non-steady 404 state equation (Eq. 1) showed reasonably good agreement (Fig. 5b). In particular, both approaches 405 determined a peak in export in early December, a subsequent decline in export after the decline of the 406 spring bloom (late December to early January) and a subsequent increase in export in late January. The largest discrepancy between the two estimates occurred in mid-November (during the first sediment trap 407 408 deployment), when the non-steady state equation actually predicted slightly negative ²³⁴Th sinking flux, 409 because ²³⁴Th activity was increasing in the water column. Overall, point-to-point comparisons suggested 410 that the sediment traps were on-average underestimating sinking flux by 29% relative to the non-steady 411 state equation. This under-collection was likely related to the use of a moored configuration for the traps, 412 because identical traps deployed in a surface-tethered configuration have been found to have no 413 substantial over- or under-collection bias (Morrow et al., 2018). Notably, the use of a simple steady-state 414 equation to estimate export (e.g., $E = (^{238}U^{-234}Th) \times \lambda_{234}$) substantially underestimates both total ²³⁴Th flux 415 and its variability throughout the season (Fig. 5b, green line). Unsurprisingly, a steady-state model also 416 lags true export flux because it estimates export averaged over the prior month.
- 417 3.3. Processes driving seasonal variability in C:²³⁴Th ratios - There was a strong negative correlation between the percentage of sinking organic carbon contributed by fecal pellets and the C:²³⁴Th ratio of 418 sinking particles (Fig. 8). This is not surprising, since: 1) fecal pellets had lower C:²³⁴Th ratios than bulk 419 420 suspended POM in the overlying water column, 2) large sinking particles (which were primarily fecal pellets) consistently had lower C:²³⁴Th ratios than smaller sinking particles (<200-µm) which contained a 421 422 mixture of different particle types including diatoms, fecal pellets, and phytodetritus, and 3) fecal pellets 423 were a dominant but highly variable contributor to export flux. The dominant role of fecal pellets also 424 helps explain the lack of a clear seasonal trend in sediment trap C:²³⁴Th; Euphausia superba (the most 425 abundant euphausiid in the WAP) is a highly mobile organism, with horizontal migrations and

426 aggregating behavior that leads to high spatial and temporal patchiness. Nevertheless, it is surprising that

427 the apparent increase in C:²³⁴Th ratios of suspended material in the surface layer was not reflected in the

428 C: 234 Th ratio of sinking material and that the C: 234 Th ratio of sinking particles was so much lower than the

429 $C:^{234}$ Th ratio of large particles collected from the water column.

The C:²³⁴Th ratio of suspended material was primarily controlled by POC and Chl *a* concentration 430 (Fig. 9). The fraction of ²³⁴Th attached to particles was strongly correlated with POC (Pearson's linear 431 432 correlation, $\rho = 0.75$, p<<10⁻⁵). However, this relationship was only noticeable at comparatively high POC concentrations. When POC concentrations were low (<10 µmol C L⁻¹), the fraction of ²³⁴Th bound 433 434 to particles varied from low (\sim 3%) to moderate (\sim 15%) without a strong correlation to POC. At higher POC concentrations, as much as 45% of the ²³⁴Th was adsorbed onto particles. Chl a concentration was 435 436 actually more strongly correlated with the fraction of 234 Th attached to particles (Fig. 9a) with Pearson's ρ 437 = 0.83 (p $<<10^{-5}$). The C:²³⁴Th ratio of suspended material was also influenced by both POC and Chl a. 438 Particularly at low POC concentrations ($\leq 8 \mu mol C L^{-1}$) there was a strong positive correlation between 439 C:²³⁴Th and POC (Fig. 9b). Across the full range of sampling points, however, the relationship was 440 weaker (Pearson's $\rho = 0.48$, p<<10⁻⁵), because at higher POC concentrations the C:²³⁴Th ratio was very 441 sensitive to Chl a concentration. At similar POC concentrations, high Chl a corresponded to lower 442 C^{234} Th ratios. This likely resulted from a greater proportion ²³⁴Th being adsorbed to particles when Chl *a*

443 was higher.

444 3.4 Model-data comparisons and sorption kinetics – The Bayesian Markov Chain Monte Carlo 445 parameter selection approach allowed us to fit thorium sorption models that reasonably simulated the 446 observations. DIC was lowest for the POC-FP model with second order thorium sorption kinetics 447 indicating that this model is best supported by the data (Supp. Table 4, Fig. 10). Notably, DIC was lower 448 for all second-order thorium sorption kinetics models relative to the comparable first-order kinetics 449 model, and these differences were often quite large; the only pair of models for which the DIC difference 450 was less than 250 was for the POC model (for which DIC for the second-order kinetics model was 47 451 lower than for the first-order model). The POC-FP second-order kinetics model (and the second-order 452 kinetics class of models generally) were able to capture key aspects of the thorium system including the high fraction of ²³⁴Th adsorbed to particles, the substantially lower C:²³⁴Th ratio of sinking particles 453 collected in the sediment trap, and variability in the C:²³⁴Th ratio throughout the season (Fig. 11b,d,f,h). 454 455 This model did, however, slightly overestimate the C:²³⁴Th ratio of suspended particles near the surface 456 during the spring phytoplankton bloom. In contrast, the POC-FP first-order kinetics model (and the first-457 order kinetics class of models generally) did not accurately capture variability in the fraction of total ²³⁴Th bound to particles, but rather estimated that a relatively invariant $\sim 20\%$ of ²³⁴Th was bound to particles at 458 all depths and times (Fig. 11c). Consequently it substantially overestimated the C:²³⁴Th ratios of 459 460 suspended and sinking particles during the bloom.

The models that included multiple particulate organic carbon compartments (Phy-Det-FP and Dtm-Flag-Det-FP) consistently underestimated the C:²³⁴Th ratios of total suspended particles, although they fairly accurately estimated the C:²³⁴Th ratios of sinking particles (Fig. 10). These results do not imply that the marine ecosystem behaves as a system with a single POC pool. POC is unquestionably a heterogeneous pool comprised of many living and non-living compartments spanning orders of magnitude differences in size and with many different surface properties likely leading to variable thorium sorption kinetics. Rather, our results suggest that, given our limited ability to constrain the true

heterogeneity of this system, a simple model comprised of a single (mostly) suspended POC pool and a
 second class of more rapidly-sinking particles is a better predictor of C:²³⁴Th ratios than the more

470 complex models that we tested.

471 3.5 Model parameters and processes affecting C.²³⁴Th ratios – Model results offer interesting insights to ²³⁴Th cycling in the WAP. We focus here on the second-order POC-FP model, which most accurately 472 simulated the data. The model-fit thorium sorption parameter ($k_{sorp,2}$) was 0.0047 ± 0.0002 m³ mmol C⁻¹ 473 474 d^{-1} (or $1.7 \pm 0.1 \text{ m}^3 \text{ mmol C}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$), which is about a factor of three smaller than our prior estimate for this 475 parameter (Table 1). The estimated desorption parameter (k_{desorp}) was $0.017 \pm 0.0076 \text{ d}^{-1}$ (or 6.1 ± 2.8 476 y^{-1}), although we caution that this parameter was poorly constrained. Because ²³⁴Th decay is more rapid than desorption, the model was fairly insensitive to the desorption coefficient. The parameter that 477 478 determines the fraction of thorium consumed by euphausiids that is egested as part of their fecal pellets 479 (Eg_{Th}) was 0.94 ± 0.02, indicating that most thorium consumed by euphausiids passes into their fecal 480 pellets. For comparison, we assumed that only 30% of carbon consumed by euphausiids is egested (Eg_c = 0.3). This yields fecal pellets with a C: 234 Th ratio that is only about one third of the C: 234 Th ratio of 481 482 euphausiid prey.

483 The model also offers insight into other dynamics of the thorium system. As mentioned, decay is a 484 more important loss term for particulate ²³⁴Th than desorption. However, particle remineralization is 485 actually the dominant loss term for particulate ²³⁴Th. Typical specific POC remineralization rates were in 486 the range of $0.03 - 0.6 d^{-1}$ in the euphotic zone, compared to a decay constant of 0.028 d⁻¹. Particle 487 sinking was also an important loss term for particulate ²³⁴Th, with typical specific rates of loss from the 488 euphotic zone of 0.01 to 0.02 d⁻¹. Primary production also played an important role in shifting C:²³⁴Th 489 ratios. Primary production drove typical specific POC production rates in the range of 0.1 to 1.0 d⁻¹ in the 490 euphotic zone. During periods of high primary production, the creation of new POC drove the C:²³⁴Th 491 ratio higher than would be expected based on the steady state that would be anticipated if C:²³⁴Th were

492 only affected by the processes of sorption, desorption, and decay.

493 Although the Dtm-Flag-Det-FP model was a meaningfully worse fit to the data than the POC-FP 494 model, discussion of its parameterization and dynamics is still informative. The model predicted a 495 substantially higher sorption coefficient for diatoms $(0.015 \pm 0.0005 \text{ d}^{-1})$ than for flagellates $(0.0037 \pm 0.0008 \text{ d}^{-1})$ or detritus $(0.0038 \pm 0.0003 \text{ d}^{-1})$. Despite the higher sorption coefficient for diatoms

did not have a significantly lower C: 234 Th ratio than detritus. Both typically had C: 234 Th ratios in the

498 range of $30 - 80 \mu$ mol C dpm⁻¹. Conversely, detritus and flagellates had distinctly different C:²³⁴Th ratios

499 despite similar sorption coefficients. Flagellate C:²³⁴Th ratios were often a factor of 5 greater than those

500 for detritus. These similarities and differences between C:²³⁴Th ratios of phytoplankton and detritus were

501 largely driven by the different formation processes and turnover times for these particles. Phytoplankton 502 carbon is created through photosynthesis, which increases the C:²³⁴Th ratios of growing phytoplankton.

502 Carbon is created through photosynthesis, which increases the C. Thi ratios of growing phytoplankton. 503 Detritus, however, is formed from phytoplankton mortality and thus inherits the C:²³⁴Th ratio of existing

504 phytoplankton, while continuing to adsorb more 234 Th. Detritus also tends to have a longer residence time

505 than phytoplankton, which allows it to reach a C:²³⁴Th ratio near the equilibrium that would be predicted

506 from sorption, desorption, and decay processes.

507 **4. DISCUSSION**

The ²³⁸U-²³⁴Th disequilibrium approach has been widely used as a tool for investigating 508 509 spatiotemporal variability in particle cycling at a range of scales including basin-scale (Owens et al., 510 2015; Puigcorbé et al., 2017), regional (Buesseler et al., 1995; Ducklow et al., 2018; van der Loeff et al., 511 2011), and mesoscale (Estapa et al., 2015; Resplandy et al., 2012; Stukel et al., 2017). Uncertainty in 512 particle flux estimates associated with non-steady state dynamics and advective and/or diffusive transport 513 of ²³⁴Th have been extensively studied (Buesseler et al., 1992; Ceballos-Romero et al., 2018; Dunne and 514 Murray, 1999; Resplandy et al., 2012; Savoye et al., 2006), and general rules-of-thumb have been 515 developed for identifying when such processes can be neglected and how uncertainties introduced by the 516 use of simple steady-state, no-upwelling equations can be quantified. However, estimates of carbon flux 517 from ²³⁸U-²³⁴Th disequilibrium are also complicated by variability in C:²³⁴Th ratios, which vary with depth, particle size and type, and sampling methodology, often over small spatial scales (Buesseler et al., 518 519 2006; Hung et al., 2012; Passow et al., 2006; Stukel et al., 2019). Unfortunately, the ship-time-intensity associated with measuring the C:234 Th ratio of sinking particles often leads to much lower resolution 520 521 sampling of the C:²³⁴Th ratio, relative to ²³⁸U-²³⁴Th disequilibrium. Many studies thus resort to applying a 522 C:²³⁴Th ratio derived from measurements made at a single location and time to estimate carbon flux over 523 a wide region (e.g., Ducklow et al., 2018; Estapa et al., 2015; Puigcorbé et al., 2017; Stukel et al., 2015). 524 Without knowledge of the processes driving variability in C:²³⁴Th ratios, this introduces potentially large

525 and poorly quantified uncertainty into estimates of carbon flux.

526 Clearly, empirical and/or mechanistic models that can predict changes in C:²³⁴Th ratios as a function
 527 of relevant biological and chemical parameters would greatly improve our measurements of the BCP.
 528 However, such approaches are complicated by the multitude of factors – many of which are not typically
 529 The second sec

- 529 measured by the biogeochemists who study 234 Th that influence C: 234 Th ratios. Indeed, existing models
- 530 used to study particle-thorium dynamics do not even agree about whether first-order kinetics (i.e., thorium
- 531 scavenging rates are independent of particle concentration, Dunne et al., 1997; Lerner et al., 2016) or
- 532 second-order kinetics (i.e., thorium scavenging rates are linearly dependent on particle concentration,
- Resplandy *et al.*, 2012; Stukel and Kelly, 2019) are most appropriate to model thorium adsorption onto
- 534 particles. Few attempts have been made to incorporate other information, such as particle size spectra,
- 535 phytoplankton community composition or physiological status, or zooplankton dynamics (despite the 536 presumed importance of these and other parameters), because of a paucity of studies that have quantified
- 550 presumed importance of mese and other parameters), because of a paucity of studies that have quantity

537 their impact. Our results provide new information about some of these processes.

538 The relative contribution of fecal pellets to total sinking flux was an important determinant of the 539 C:²³⁴Th ratio of sinking particles. These fecal pellets had decreased (and relatively invariant) C:²³⁴Th 540 ratios in comparison to the euphotic zone particles from which they were presumably formed. This 541 makes sense in light of previous results that have shown that mesozooplankton typically have very high 542 C:²³⁴Th ratios (Coale, 1990; Passow et al., 2006; Stukel et al., 2016; Stukel et al., 2019), and that the ²³⁴Th 543 found in these organisms could bioaccumulate directly from dissolved ²³⁴Th (Rodriguez y Baena et al., 544 2008; Rodriguez y Baena et al., 2006). It thus seems likely that mesozooplankton preferentially assimilate carbon relative to ²³⁴Th, leaving their egesta enriched in ²³⁴Th. Based on the results of the 545 Bayesian model parameterization analysis (with second-order-sorption-kinetics POC-FP model), we 546 547 should expect the C:²³⁴Th ratios of fecal pellets to be only one third of the C:²³⁴Th ratio of the particles 548 from which they were formed. The quantitative importance of euphausiid fecal pellets to total carbon 549 flux in the Western Antarctic Peninsula found in this study and by Gleiber et al. (2012), thus leads to a dominant impact of these pellets on the C:²³⁴Th ratio of bulk sinking particles. 550

Nevertheless, the relative invariance of fecal pellet C:²³⁴Th ratios (Fig. 7d) remains surprising in light 551 of the substantial variability in C:²³⁴Th ratios of both bulk and size-fractionated suspended particles (Figs. 552 7a-c). This may reflect variability in C:²³⁴Th ratios between different suspended particle classes in the 553 554 euphotic zone. Euphausia superba (the dominant WAP euphausiid) feeds primarily on diatoms, which 555 dominated the phytoplankton community (and POC) during the spring bloom in late Nov. to early Dec., 556 but were comparatively scarce later in the season when the community was dominated by *Phaeocystis* 557 and cryptophytes (Goldman et al., 2014; Kranz et al., 2015). The Dtm-Flag-Det-FP model suggested that diatoms had lower C:²³⁴Th than other phytoplankton (flagellates) and similar C:²³⁴Th ratios to suspended 558 detritus. The increased C:²³⁴Th of bulk suspended particles later in the season, was in turn driven by an 559 560 increase in the abundance of flagellates, which dominated the phytoplankton biomass in the summer and 561 fall. It is possible that diatoms had lower C:²³⁴Th than either other phytoplankton or suspended detritus. This potentially explains the increased C:²³⁴Th ratios later in the season when diatoms were less abundant, 562 as well as the comparatively decreased C:²³⁴Th ratios when Chl a concentrations are high seen in Fig. 9b. 563 Mechanistically, the low C:²³⁴Th ratios of diatoms might be maintained through production of transparent 564 565 exopolymers that contain many active binding sites for ²³⁴Th (Passow et al., 2006; Ouigley et al., 2002; 566 Santschi et al., 2003), leading to the strong correlation between Chl a and the fraction of ²³⁴Th adsorbed to 567 particles seen in Fig. 9a.

568 Our results also offer strong support for the use of second-order rate kinetics models of thorium sorption. With first-order rate kinetics, we would expect the proportion of total ²³⁴Th that is bound to 569 carbon to be relatively uncorrelated with POC concentration. This would lead to a proportional increase in 570 571 C:²³⁴Th with increasing POC (or perhaps even a supralinear increase if total ²³⁴Th is lower during periods of high POC and export). However, Fig. 9b shows that a doubling of POC does not lead to a concomitant 572 doubling of the C:²³⁴Th ratio. Furthermore, second-order rate kinetics models much more accurately 573 estimated the fraction of ²³⁴Th bound to particles than first-order rate kinetics models (compare Fig. 6a to 574 575 Figs. 10c and 10d), and the second-order rate kinetics POC-FP model had a DIC of only 653 (compared 576 to 1012 for the first-order POC-FP model). Since differences of DIC on the order of 5 - 10 are typically 577 considered meaningful, this offers exceedingly strong evidence that the second-order rate kinetics model 578 more accurately simulates the system. The POC-FP (2nd order) model suggests a thorium sorption 579 coefficient of 0.0047 ± 0.0002 m³ mmol C⁻¹ d⁻¹. Previous estimates from a range of ecosystems spanning 580 coastal and oceanic regions have ranged from 0.002 to 0.075 m³ mmol C⁻¹ d⁻¹, although most fall within a 581 narrower range from 0.003 to 0.01 m³ mmol C⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Clegg et al., 1991; Clegg and Sarmiento, 1989; 582 Clegg and Whitfield, 1993; Murnane et al., 1994; Stukel et al., 2019). These similar values across 583 disparate regions suggest that second-order rate kinetics models are broadly applicable.

The striking difference between C^{234} Th ratios of >50-µm particles in the water column between the 584 585 surface and 30 m depth and sinking particles collected by sediment traps at 50 m depth, is also an important result of this study. Although there was substantial uncertainty associated with C:²³⁴Th ratios 586 of >50-µm particles measured in mid to late Jan. (as a result of very low ²³⁴Th content in these particles), 587 C:²³⁴Th ratios of these particles were likely approximately an order of magnitude higher than the C:²³⁴Th 588 589 ratio of sediment trap-collected particles. These varying results may derive from sediment traps and 590 pumps sampling very different types of particles. Fecal pellets of Euphausia superba likely have sinking 591 speeds that are hundreds of meters per day, suggesting that they spend minutes to hours in the euphotic 592 zone before sinking out. In contrast, *Phaeocystis* colonies likely maintain their position in the euphotic 593 zone, while many >50-µm aggregates may sink much more slowly than fecal pellets. These slowly-

594 sinking (potentially high C:²³⁴Th) particle classes will thus be oversampled by pumps relative to their

595 contribution to sinking flux. This highlights problems associated with inferring C:²³⁴Th ratios of sinking

particles from measurements of size-fractionated particles. Indeed, McDonnell and Buesseler (2010)

597 found that particle sinking speed in the WAP was essentially independent of particle size, while multiple

598 studies have shown that <50-µm particles can contribute substantially to particle flux (Durkin et al.,

- 599 2015; Hung et al., 2012). C: 234 Th ratios derived from size-fractionated in situ pump sampling should thus
- 600 be interpreted with some caution.

601 5. CONCLUSIONS

602 C:²³⁴Th ratios of bulk suspended and size-fractionated particles varied throughout the spring-summer 603 growing season at a coastal site near Palmer Station, Antarctica. The fraction of ²³⁴Th adsorbed onto 604 particles was strongly correlated with both Chl *a* and POC concentrations. The correlation with Chl may

605 imply an important role for diatoms (the dominant phytoplankton taxon during the spring bloom) in

- 606 producing organic matter with active binding sites for thorium. C:²³⁴Th ratios of suspended particles
- 607 generally increased in surface waters throughout the ice-free phytoplankton growing season and were
- 608 correlated with POC concentration, particularly when POC concentrations were low. However, C:²³⁴Th
- ratios were lower than expected (based on high POC concentrations) during the height of the spring
 diatom bloom, as a result of strong scavenging of thorium onto particles at this time. The high variability
- 611 in C^{234} Th ratios of suspended material was not reflected in the C^{234} Th ratios of sinking particles, which
- 612 were relatively low and comparatively invariant throughout the spring, early summer, and late summer
- 613 periods. C:²³⁴Th ratios of sinking particles were primarily driven by euphausiid fecal pellets, which were
- the dominant contributor of mass flux into sediment traps and had consistently low C:²³⁴Th ratios. These

615 low C:²³⁴Th ratios likely result from preferential assimilation of carbon by mesozooplankton and hence

616 elevated thorium activity in their egesta. A simple model including POC and fecal pellets that used

- 617 second-order thorium sorption kinetics was able to simulate variability in C:²³⁴Th ratios of suspended and
- 618 sinking particles throughout the season.

619 Our results highlight the importance of sinking particle composition in driving variability in the 620 C:²³⁴Th ratio of sinking particles. The demonstrated impacts of diatoms and euphausiids (and potentially 621 other taxa) on C:²³⁴Th ratios needs to be considered in studies that attempt to discern the functional 622 responses of the biological carbon pump to plankton ecosystem dynamics. Studies that employ ²³⁸U-²³⁴Th 623 disequilibrium to quantify carbon export over a large spatial domain commonly rely on less frequent

624 measurement of the C: 234 Th ratio and hence extrapolate sparse C: 234 Th measurements across a

- heterogeneous ocean. Our results suggest that covariance between important particle-flux associated taxa
- and the C: 234 Th ratio will bias such studies. Higher spatial resolution sampling of the C: 234 Th ratio or
- 627 more focused analyses of the mechanisms controlling the C:²³⁴Th ratio are thus crucial.

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- 634 of this manuscript. Model code can be downloaded at: https://github.com/mstukel/Palmer_CTh_Model

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985

- 987 **Table 1.** Parameters for the POC-FP models: first order thorium sorption coefficient (k_{sorp,1}), second-
- 988 order thorium sorption coefficient ($k_{sorp,2}$), thorium desorption coefficient (k_{desorp}), fraction of ingested 989 thorium egested by zooplankton (Eg_{Th}), and deviance information criterion (DIC).

	POC-FP	POC-FP
	First Order	Second Order
k _{sorp,1} (d ⁻¹)	0.14 ± 0.01	-
k _{sorp,2} (m ³ mmol C ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	-	0.0047 ± 0.0002
k _{desorp} (d ⁻¹)	0.54 ± 0.05	0.0167 ± 0.0076
Eg _{Th}	0.68 ± 0.02	0.94 ± 0.02
DIC	1019	655

991 Figures



992

Fig. 1 – Map of the study region. a) Western Antarctic Peninsula, showing larger Palmer LTER sampling
grid. b) Anvers Island region. c) Palmer LTER study region.



996

997 Fig. 2 – Model structure for the POC Model (Model 1), POC-FP Model (Model 2), Phy-Det-FP Model

998 (Model 3), and Dtm-Flag-Det-FP Model (Model 4). Standing stocks (rectangles) and fluxes (arrows and callouts) are color coded based on whether they apply only to POC (blue), only to ²³⁴Th (red), or to both

(red and blue). Note that Model 4 does not have labels associated with fluxes, but fluxes are very similar

1001 to those in Model 3 but with the phytoplankton (Phy) compartment split into diatoms (Dtm) and

1002 flagellates (Flag). For additional explanation see text and online appendix.



Fig. 3 – Chemical and biological properties at Station E during the Palmer 2012-2013 field season. a)
nitrate, b) particulate organic carbon, c) Chl *a*, d) net primary production (corrected for mismatches
between sampling depth and incubation light level, see methods). White dots are sampling points.

1008



1010 Fig. 4 – Sediment trap flux at 50 m depth. White, light blue, and light red boxes are total flux (non-size

- $1011 \qquad \mbox{fractionated}\mbox{, flux of $<\!200$-$\mu m particles, and $>\!200$-$\mu m particles, respectively. Width of bars corresponds}$
- 1012 to deployment duration. Black lines are standard deviation of triplicate measurements. Red line and
- 1013 circles are fecal pellet mass flux in the sediment traps (no replicates).

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1016 Fig. 5 – Total water column thorium activity (a) and export (b) during the 2012-2013 field season. In (b)

1017 blue bar plot shows direct measurements of 234 Th flux measured in sediment traps deployed at 50-m,

1018 green line plot shows ²³⁴Th export estimated with a simple steady-state equation, and red line plot shows

1019 2-week average ²³⁴Th flux estimated at 50-m depth from water column ²³⁴Th measurements using a non-

1020 steady state equation that accounts for vertical introduction of ²³⁴Th by diffusion.



1023Fig. 6 – Particulate 234 Th activity in the water column. b) ratio of particulate 234 Th to total water column1024 234 Th. Black dots show sampling points.

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1027 Fig. 7 – C:²³⁴Th ratios of: a) bulk particles in the water column, b) >50- μ m size-fractionated

particles collected through either surface sampling or using a Monsoon pump, c) same as (b) but
with y-axis modified to highlight lower values, and d) sinking particles collected by sediment

- 1030 trap.
- 1031



1032

Fig. 8 – Relationship between the percentage contribution of fecal pellets to sediment trap carbon flux and 1033

- the C:²³⁴Th ratio of particles collected in the sediment trap. Blue line is a Type II geometric mean 1034 regression: y = mx + b, where $m = -0.12 \pm 0.03$ and $b = 20.7 \pm 1.6$, $r^2 = 0.56$.
- 1035



1037 Fig. 9 – Particulate thorium relationships. a) Relationships between the fraction of ²³⁴Th bound to >1- μ m 1038 particles and chlorophyll concentration. Color axis is POC (μ mol C L⁻¹). Red line is a Type II geometric 1039 mean linear regression, y = mx + b, where m = 0.025 ± 0.001 and b = 0.047 ± 0.005, r² = 0.83. b) 1040 Relationship between the organic C:²³⁴Th ratio of particles in the water column and POC concentration. 1041 Color axis is Chl (mg Chl *a* m⁻³). Red line is a Type II geometric mean regression: y = mx + b, where m

 $1042 \qquad = 4.1 \pm 0.4, \, b = 10.2 \pm 5.3, \, r^2 = 0.23.$

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1045 Fig. 10 – Model-observation comparisons for the POC models (a, b), POC-FP models (c,d), Phy-

1046 Det-FP models (e,f), and Dtm-Flag-Det-FP models (g,h). Panels a, c, e, and g show comparisons

1047 for suspended particles cfrom the water column. Panels b, d, f, and h show comparisons for

sinking particles. In all panels blue symbols are for first-order kinetics model and red symbolsare for second-order kinetics symbols.

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1054 Fig. 11 – Model-observation comparisons for the POC-FP 1st order model (a, c, e, g) and the

1055 POC-FP 2nd order model (b, d, f, h). Smooth fields are model output. Black outlined circles are

1056 observations on the same color axis. Total (dissolved + particulate) ²³⁴Th (a, b). Fraction of total

1057 234 Th adsorbed to particles (c, d). C: 234 Th ratios of POC (e, f). C: 234 Th of sinking particles (g, h;

1058 blue lines = model; red lines = observations).