

1 *Biotic and abiotic retention, recycling, and remineralisation of metals in the ocean*

2 Revised Progress Article for Nature Geoscience

3

4 2 December 2016

5

6 Philip W. Boyd^{1,2}, Michael J. Ellwood³, Alessandro Tagliabue⁴ and Benjamin S. Twining⁵

7

8

9 Affiliations

10 ¹Institute for Marine and Antarctic Studies, University of Tasmania, Hobart, Tasmania,
11 Australia

12 ²Antarctic Climate and Ecosystems CRC, University of Tasmania, Australia

13 ³Research School of Earth Sciences, The Australian National University, Canberra, ACT 0200
14 Australia

15 ⁴School of Environmental Sciences, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, UK

16 ⁵Bigelow Laboratory for Ocean Sciences, East Boothbay, Maine, USA

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29 **Abstract**

30 Trace metals shape both the biogeochemical functioning and the biological structure of
31 oceanic provinces. Trace metal biogeochemistry has primarily focused on modes of external
32 supply of metals from aeolian, hydrothermal, sedimentary and other sources. However,
33 metals also undergo internal transformations such as abiotic and biotic retention, recycling,
34 and remineralization. The role of these internal transformations in metal biogeochemical
35 cycling is now coming into focus. First, the retention of metals by biota in the surface ocean
36 for days, weeks, or months depends on taxon-specific metal requirements of phytoplankton,
37 and on the ultimate fate of phytoplankton, that is viral lysis, senescence, grazing, and/or
38 export to depth. Rapid recycling of metals in the surface ocean can extend seasonal
39 productivity by maintaining higher levels of metal bioavailability, compared to the influence
40 of external metal input alone. As metal-containing organic particles are exported from the
41 surface ocean, different metals exhibit distinct patterns of remineralization with depth.
42 These patterns are mediated by a wide range of physico-chemical and microbial processes
43 such as the ability of particles to sorb metals, and are influenced by the mineral and organic
44 characteristics of sinking particles. We conclude that internal metal transformations play
45 an essential role in controlling metal bioavailability, phytoplankton distributions, and the
46 subsurface resupply of metals.

47

48

49

50 Trace metals such as iron set primary productivity across much of the ocean^{1,2}. Other metals,
51 including zinc and cobalt, play more targeted physiological roles linked to specific
52 biogeochemical cycles^{3,4}. Much emphasis in metal biogeochemistry has been placed on the
53 identification of external supply mechanisms^{5,6}. However, in the case of iron much of this
54 supply, such as episodic dust plumes, may be chemically inaccessible⁷ and/or biologically
55 unavailable⁸. Long-standing investigations of nitrogen and phosphorus biogeochemistry⁹
56 established that internal recycling through efficient biological retention sustains productivity.
57 Likewise, solubilisation of elements from sinking particles, termed remineralisation,
58 replenishes nutrient inventories at depth¹⁰, which are seasonally re-supplied to surface
59 waters by mixing. Here, we exploit newly available insights to explore the abiotic and biotic
60 mechanisms that underpin internal metal cycling, focussing on iron as the best-
61 characterised metal¹¹, but drawing on illustrative examples for other metals. We contrast
62 recycling patterns between trace- and macro-nutrients, and link the former to external
63 supply mechanisms of metals to complete their biogeochemical cycles.

64 Trace metals have fundamentally different chemistry (speciation, reactivity, complexation¹¹)
65 than macro-nutrients¹², and thus have distinctive modes of external supply and internal
66 recycling, with implications for the contribution of recycling versus external supply in
67 supporting productivity (i.e., the f ratio¹², see later). Additionally, macro-nutrients support
68 macromolecular synthesis¹² whereas metals drive enzymatic catalysis¹³. These distinct
69 metabolic roles probably account for different taxon-specific requirements for metals¹⁴, a
70 trend not evident for macro-nutrients¹⁵. While some taxa target particular forms of
71 macronutrients (e.g., *Prochlorococcus*/ammonium; *Synechococcus*/nitrate¹⁶), such

72 preferences are poorly-defined for metals, due to uncertainties such as how metal-binding
73 ligands influence bioavailability¹¹.

74 We detail important advances across four specific themes: (i) pelagic iron
75 retention/recycling; (ii) ratio of new/recycled iron and modes of supply; (iii) observed versus
76 modelled mesopelagic metal remineralisation; and (iv) controls on subsurface metal
77 remineralisation. Our understanding has advanced substantially from prior reviews¹⁷ (S-
78 Figure 1), catalysed by GEOTRACES¹⁸, and we highlight insights from GEOTRACES process
79 studies^{19,20}, surveys^{8,21,22}, GEOTRACES-inspired modelling^{23,24}, along with other recent^{7,25,26},
80 and prior (corroborative) research^{27,28}. FeCycle II, a 12-day quasi-Lagrangian GEOTRACES
81 process-study¹⁹ characterised by an unprecedented combination of direct measurements of
82 pelagic recycling^{19,29} and subsurface metal remineralisation^{29,30}, serves to link our specific
83 themes.

84 **Drivers of pelagic metal retention and recycling**

85 Retention of externally-supplied metals, by abiotic and biotic mechanisms, within surface
86 waters is a prerequisite for internal cycling (for iron see Figure 1). External supply largely
87 occurs over winter³¹, with subsequent episodic supply^{5,7}. For example, iron is initially
88 retained in surface waters by excess ligands, a trend evident across GEOTRACES sections^{22,32},
89 regardless of the mode of external supply. Spring-time biological acquisition of iron^{19,20}
90 results in both the retention²⁹, and loss to depth^{29,30} of this 'winter reserve' stock.
91 Mechanisms including viral activity (lysis¹⁹, ligands³³) and grazing¹⁹ internally mobilise this
92 biologically-retained iron. Abiotic mechanisms play a key role in retaining episodically-
93 supplied iron, from dust deposition⁵ (or passing eddies⁷), through rapid 'cascades' between
94 particulate and soluble forms⁷, photochemically-mediated dissolution of colloids³⁴ and the

95 putative mechanism of transformation to inorganic iron colloids²¹ (Figure 1). Different
96 supply modes influence taxon-specific biological acquisition strategies: episodic supply can
97 stimulate microbial siderophore production^{25,26}, whereas aerosols are transformed by
98 phagotrophy³⁵ and/or active transport (diazotrophs³⁶), and vertical diffusive supply
99 (potentially colloidal iron⁷) is targeted by phytoplankton at depth³⁷.

100 A major advance in understanding pelagic internal cycling (S-Figure 1) is determining how
101 the biological ferrous wheel³⁸ is structured by the intersection of taxon-specific iron
102 requirements³⁹ (i.e., quotas, total intracellular metal, mol/cell) and storage abilities⁴⁰ with
103 distinct taxon-specific pathways and ‘fates’ of the biologically-retained metal (i.e.
104 grazing/lysis/cell death/sinking)²⁹ (Figure 1). Hence, the wide-ranging acquisition strategies,
105 employed by phytoplankton⁴¹, drive differences in the retention and recycling efficiency of
106 each element. Other metals such as nickel have differing characteristics from iron that
107 influence distinct physiological needs and acquisition (S-Table 1). This range of acquisition
108 mechanisms enables taxa with different metal requirements, which arise from specific
109 metabolic needs^{13,39}, use efficiencies⁴², and/or cell sizes/abundances²⁹, to co-exist. A
110 critical unknown is how abiotic and biotic retention mechanisms interact (Figure 1).
111 Although there have been major advances in elucidating abiotic^{7,21,34} and biotic^{25,26,29,33}
112 retentive mechanisms, our understanding of the latter is more advanced. Ligands^{25,26,33} may
113 be a key linkage between mechanisms (Figure 1), however additional pathways will
114 probably connect abiotic and biotic processes, an emerging theme across geomicrobiology⁴³.

115

116 What proportion of ‘new’ trace metal inventories can be retained by biota? During FeCycle
117 II¹⁹ mixed-layer dissolved iron decreased from ~0.5 to 0.1 nmol L⁻¹, but the biotic iron

118 inventory, based on quotas quantified with Synchrotron-X-Ray-Fluorescence (SXRF) cell-
119 mapping^{8,30}, remained $\sim 0.1 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$ throughout, and its rapid recycling extended seasonal
120 productivity¹⁹. This study¹⁹ suggests limits on the proportion of metal inventories biota can
121 access and recycle, likely constrained by temperature-dependent bounds on growth/grazing
122 rate, and/or lags in predator/prey couplings (e.g., gut passage). Moreover, not all of
123 dissolved metal inventories may be available to all taxa²⁹.

124

125 **New versus recycled metals and ocean productivity**

126 The *fe* ratio describes the contribution of externally-supplied iron to biological uptake
127 relative to that supported by both externally-supplied and internally-cycled iron⁴⁴ and hence
128 is analogous to the *f* ratio for nitrogen¹². Calculation of the *fe* ratio requires detailed
129 estimates of both biological iron demand and recycling (S-Figure 1). Emerging datasets from
130 GEOTRACES process studies^{19,20} enable the relationship between the *fe* ratio and different
131 modes of supply to be probed (Figure 2). Initial *fe* ratio estimates were from subantarctic
132 low-iron waters where, despite invariant dissolved iron vertical profiles, $\sim 90\%$ of
133 productivity was fuelled by internal cycling⁴⁴.

134 A major advance is the recognition that *fe* ratios change with locale, season and regional
135 inventories (S-Figure 1). Recycled iron is less important in high-iron waters sustained by
136 upwelling^{20,45} compared with that supplied by transient 'winter-reserves' (Figure 2A,B). *fe*
137 ratios of ~ 1 were evident off Kerguelen at the onset of the diatom bloom²⁰, and were ~ 0.5
138 after one month of bloom development⁴⁵. In contrast, subtropical Pacific waters²⁹ revealed

139 rapid removal of externally-supplied iron (i.e., decreased *fe* ratios) during the transition to
140 summer oligotrophy (Figure 2B).

141 Summer iron stocks are enhanced in subtropical Atlantic and Pacific waters via episodic dust
142 inputs (Figure 2C). Sustained high iron^{7,28} suggests either a biological surfeit (i.e., indicative
143 of high *fe* ratio's, no available data) or that this iron is chemically inactive^{7,8} or biologically
144 inaccessible⁸ due to light and/or phosphate limitation². Despite regional differences in
145 dissolved iron stocks and *fe* ratios (Figure 2), surprising uniformity in biotic iron inventories
146 emerges across contrasting sites²⁹. This raises questions such as: can recycled iron
147 (supplying 50-90% of demand) subsidise cells with high requirements (picoprokaryotes³⁹)?
148 If some taxa target episodically-supplied iron (Figure 1), do others focus on recycled forms?
149 If so, does iron speciation dictate such taxon specialisation?

150 **Subsurface remineralisation length-scales**

151 Sinking particles fuel the biological pump, and transformations attenuate particle flux with
152 depth, replenishing dissolved nutrients¹⁰ and setting nutricline depths³¹. Remineralisation
153 length-scales (i.e., the attenuation (at some rate k (s^{-1})) of the downward particulate flux of
154 an element settling gravitationally (speed ω ($m\ s^{-1}$)) is defined by ω/K (m)), vary among
155 major elements, causing vertical-decoupling at depth¹⁰. Length-scales also vary between
156 metals (Table 1A). Remineralisation length-scales are generally longer for metals, relative to
157 macro-nutrients²⁷, as metals comprise both lithogenic (relatively refractory) and biogenic
158 (labile) components of sinking heterogeneous particles (Figure 3). Indeed, for copper, the
159 sinking flux is essentially a 'lithogenic throughput' with little flux attenuation (S-Table 1).
160 Hence, directly comparing remineralisation length-scales between elements in
161 heterogeneous particles is problematic.

162 A study targeting export from a diatom-dominated bloom³⁰ circumvented the lithogenic
163 influence on remineralisation by focusing analytically on diatoms. Two-dimensional
164 elemental maps of the dominant diatom species revealed depth-dependent elemental shifts
165 in the cellular and structural components (S-Figure 2A, Figure 3A). Significant differences
166 between remineralisation of major elements (e.g., sulfur/silicon) and between trace
167 elements (e.g., iron and zinc) emerged (Table 1A). Such studies^{27,30} use the power of spatial
168 associations between elements in individual particles to explore if remineralisation patterns
169 are coupled (S-Figure 2A/B). Spatial co-location between major elements was evident in
170 surface waters only, indicative of selective remineralisation and decoupling in the
171 breakdown of major and trace elements with depth³⁰. These advances provide the detailed
172 mechanisms needed to better understand basin-scale cycling of major and trace elements
173 using global ocean models (S-Figure 1).

174 Observed remineralisation length-scales are compared with state-of-the-art model
175 simulations²³ in Table 1. PISCES²³ reflects observed trends in remineralisation
176 (carbon/phosphorus length-scales <iron<silicon), but simulates a shorter length-scale
177 globally for iron than is observed (Table 1B). As iron remineralisation in all current
178 models^{23,24} is tied to phosphorus, the ~two-fold longer remineralisation length-scale for iron
179 versus phosphorus arises, *in silico*, from additional scavenging and colloidal pumping of
180 remineralised iron onto particles. Observations suggest that models underestimate by four-
181 to ten-fold iron remineralisation length-scales (Table 1A), affecting projections of nutrient
182 resupply stoichiometry and ferricline depth³¹ (S-Table 1). Future models must consider
183 additional factors including distinct particulate pools (e.g. biogenic/lithogenic) in setting
184 remineralisation lengthscales.

185 **Subsurface controls on metal remineralisation**

186 A better understanding of why element nutriclines vary³¹ requires mechanisms to decouple
187 remineralisation (S-Table 1). For macro-nutrients, mechanisms include preferential
188 microbially-mediated nitrogen remineralisation (c.f. carbon) to meet nutritional
189 requirements⁴⁶. Elemental associations with different cellular components (e.g.,
190 membranes) probably influence their targeted regeneration by substrate-specific bacterial
191 enzymes (Figure 3A). For sinking diatoms³⁰, more cellular P/Ni/Zn/S was remineralised
192 compared to iron (suggesting re-adsorption due to iron's high particle reactivity⁴⁷) and
193 silicon (no bacterial demand means dissolution requires prior carbon solubilisation⁴⁸) by 200
194 m. This study³⁰ provides novel linkages between elements, their biochemical role, cellular
195 location, metal-specific microbial enzymes, and hence differential, targeted remineralisation
196 (S-Figures 1,2).

197

198 Heterogeneous particles often dominate the sinking assemblage but are difficult to study
199 individually (S-Figure 2B/C). Figure 3 offers a conceptual approach to jointly consider
200 disparate biotic/abiotic mechanisms (c.f. geomicrobiology⁴³) used independently to derive
201 chemical⁴⁹ or biological⁵⁰ rate constants for particle breakdown. The fates of particulate
202 biogenic iron, zinc and phosphorus diverge (Figure 3), because they each may encounter a
203 range of different biological (solubilisation) and physical ((dis)aggregation) transformation
204 mechanisms, such as for iron which likely sorbs onto (i.e., scavenged) and desorbs from
205 particles^{47,49}. Moreover, once desorbed, iron can be re-sorbed to particles⁴⁹ and/or
206 consumed (particle-attached bacteria). It is also highly likely that abiotically-scavenged iron
207 can be remobilised by particle-associated grazers (see S-Animation, Figure 3), illustrating
208 how abiotic/biotic transformations interact⁴³. This combination of abiotic and biotic

209 processes, along with the refractory nature of lithogenic iron⁸ (S-Figure 2B), help explain
210 why iron often has longer remineralisation length-scales than other elements. Since many
211 processes jointly set remineralisation length-scales of different elements, incorporating this
212 level of detail into biogeochemical models to more accurately simulate the stoichiometry of
213 nutrient supply is a major future challenge.

214

215 **Teasing apart abiotic and biotic transformations**

216 Advances in understanding internal cycling and remineralisation indicate that bioactive
217 metals are characterised by more complex transformations than for major elements. Hence,
218 elucidating the individual and interactive effects of biological and chemical transformations
219 on cycling and remineralisation represents a major challenge. In surface waters, a key goal
220 is to differentiate the roles of phytoplankton and microbes (differing metal quotas, fates),
221 and the function of ligands in setting the taxon-specific bioavailability and/or kinetic
222 constraints on the specific acquisition pathways for recycled versus 'new' metals. These
223 processes set the degree of metal retention and recycling (versus export). Research into
224 iron is most advanced, but we contend that this cannot be used as a biogeochemical
225 template for all trace metals. Other metals, often with different characteristics linked with
226 unique biochemical roles^{8,13} and taxon-specific needs³⁹, require dedicated study and
227 modelling.

228

229 At depth, mixed lithogenic/biogenic particle populations, and their varying degrees of metal
230 remobilisation, pose a major challenge to determine whether sinking particles mainly
231 represent a throughput of metals to depth or a vector for the replenishment of dissolved
232 metal inventories (in conjunction with the essential resupply of ligands which retain the

233 metals in solution¹⁷). The specific fate of elements within particles also influences the
234 coupling between major and trace elements. Elemental and isotopic mapping of particles,
235 along with biogeochemical models, are powerful approaches to tease apart this puzzle.
236 However, models presently focus on large scales²⁴, limiting their utility in exploring
237 underlying biogeochemical processes in detail. We advocate a parallel approach, whereby
238 the next generation of biogeochemical models are used within simplified physical
239 oceanographic frameworks to develop new representations of metal cycling and assess the
240 biogeochemical significance of these complex transformations. Models would then reflect
241 both the progress in understanding external sources of metals^{5,6}, their biogeochemical
242 cycling and the associated return pathways, encapsulated by the term remineralisation, in
243 the oceans' interior.

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251 **References**

252 1. Boyd, P.W. et al. A synthesis of mesoscale iron-enrichment experiments 1993-2005: key
253 findings and implications for ocean biogeochemistry. *Science* **315**, 612-617 (2007).

254 2. Moore, C.M et al. Processes and patterns of oceanic nutrient limitation. *Nature Geosci.* **6**,
255 701-710 (2013)

256 3. Cullen, J. T. & Sherrell, R. M. Effects of dissolved carbon dioxide, zinc, and manganese on
257 the cadmium to phosphorus ratio in natural phytoplankton assemblages. *Limnol. Oceanogr.*
258 **50**, 1193–1204 (2005).

- 259 4. Koch, F. et al. The effect of vitamin B 12 on phytoplankton growth and community
260 structure in the Gulf of Alaska. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **56**, 1023-1034 (2011).
- 261 5. Jickells, T.D. & C.M. Moore. The importance of atmospheric deposition for oceanic
262 productivity. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst.* **46**, 481–501 (2015).
- 263 6. Resing, J. A. et al. Basin-scale transport of hydrothermal dissolved metals across the South
264 Pacific Ocean. *Nature*, **523**, 200–203. (2015).
- 265 7. Fitzsimmons, J.N. et al. Daily to decadal variability of size-fractionated iron and iron-
266 binding ligands at the Hawaii Ocean Time-series Station ALOHA. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta*
267 **171**, 303–324 (2015).
- 268 8. Twining, B.S., Rauschenberg, S., Morton, P. & Vogt, S. Metal contents of phytoplankton
269 and labile particulate material in the North Atlantic Ocean. *Prog. Oceanogr.* **137**, 261-293
270 (2015)
- 271 9. Karl, D. M. et al. in *Ocean Biogeochemistry: The Role of the Ocean Carbon Cycle in Global*
272 *Change* (ed Fasham, M. J. R.) Ch. 11, 239-267 (Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2003).
- 273 10. Weber, T., Cram, J.A., Leung S.W., DeVries T. & Deutsch C. Deep ocean nutrients imply
274 large latitudinal variation in particle transfer efficiency. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **113**, 8606–
275 8611 (2016).
- 276 11. Bruland, K. W. & Lohan, M. C. in *The Oceans and Marine Geochemistry: Treatise on*
277 *Geochemistry*, (ed Elderfield H.) Ch. 6.02, 23–47. (Elsevier, 2003).
- 278 12. Zehr, J. P. & Ward, B. B. Nitrogen Cycling in the Ocean: New Perspectives on Processes
279 and Paradigms. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **68**, 1015-1024. (2002)
- 280 13. Morel, F. M. M. & Price, N.M. The biogeochemical cycles of trace metals in the oceans.
281 *Science* **300**, 944–947 (2003).
- 282 14. Quigg, A., Irwin, A.J. & Finkel, Z.V. Evolutionary inheritance of elemental stoichiometry in
283 phytoplankton. *Proc. R. Soc. Lond. [Biol.]*, **278**, 526-534 (2011).
- 284 15. Singh, A., Baer, S. E., Riebesell, U., Martiny, A. C. & Lomas, M. W. C : N : P stoichiometry
285 at the Bermuda Atlantic Time-series Study station in the North Atlantic Ocean
286 *Biogeosciences*, **12**, 6389-6403 (2015).
- 287 16. Martiny, A.C., Kathuria, S. K. & Berube P. Widespread metabolic potential for nitrite and
288 nitrate assimilation among Prochlorococcus ecotypes. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **106**, 10787-
289 10792 (2009).
- 290 17. Boyd, P.W. & Ellwood, M.J. The biogeochemical cycle of iron in the ocean. *Nature Geosci.*
291 **3**, 675-682 (2010).

- 292 18. <http://www.geotraces.org/>
- 293 19. Boyd, P.W. et al. Microbial control of diatom bloom dynamics in the open ocean.
294 *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **39** L18601 (2012).
- 295 20. Bowie, A.R et al. Iron budgets for three distinct biogeochemical sites around the
296 Kerguelen Archipelago (Southern Ocean) during the natural fertilisation study, KEOPS-2.
297 *Biogeosciences* **12**, 4421–4445 (2015).
- 298 21. Fitzsimmons, J. N., Bundy, R. M., Al-Subiaï, S. N., Barbeau, K. A. & Boyle, E. A. The
299 composition of dissolved iron in the dusty surface ocean: An exploration using size-
300 fractionated iron-binding ligands. *Mar. Chem.* **173**, 125-135 (2015).
- 301 22. Buck, K. N., Sohst B. & Sedwick, P. N. The organic complexation of dissolved iron along
302 the U.S. GEOTRACES (GA03) North Atlantic Section. *Deep-Sea Res. PT II.* **116**, 152–165
303 (2015).
- 304 23. Aumont, O., Ethé, C., Tagliabue, A., Bopp, L. & Gehlen, M. PISCES-v2: an ocean
305 biogeochemical model for carbon and ecosystem studies *Geosci. Model Dev.* **8**, 2465-2513
306 (2015).
- 307 24 Tagliabue, A. et al. How well do global ocean biogeochemistry models simulate dissolved
308 iron distributions? *Global Biogeochem. Cycles.* **30**, 2015GB005289 (2016).
- 309 25. Adly, C. L. et al. Response of heterotrophic bacteria to mesoscale iron enrichment in the
310 northeast subarctic Pacific Ocean. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **60**, 136–148 (2015).
- 311 26. Bundy R. M., Jiang, M., Carter, M & Barbeau, K. A. Iron-Binding Ligands in the Southern
312 California Current System: Mechanistic Studies. *Front. Mar. Sci.* **3**, 27. (2016).
- 313 27. Lamborg, C. H., Buesseler, K. O. & Lam, P. J. Sinking fluxes of minor and trace elements
314 in the North Pacific Ocean measured during the VERTIGO program. *Deep-Sea Res. PT II*, **55**
315 1564–1577 (2008).
- 316 28. Sedwick, P. N. et al. Iron in the Sargasso Sea (Bermuda Atlantic Time-series Study region)
317 during summer: Eolian imprint, spatiotemporal variability, and ecological implications.
318 *Global Biogeochem. Cy.* **19**, GB4006 (2005),
- 319 29. Boyd, P.W. et al. Why are biotic iron pools uniform across high- and low-iron pelagic
320 ecosystems? *Global Biogeochem. Cy.*, **29**, 1028–1043 (2015)
- 321 30. Twining, B.S et al. Differential remineralization of major and trace elements in sinking
322 diatoms. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **59**, 689–704 (2014).

- 323 31. Tagliabue, A., Sallee, J.-B., Bowie, A. R., Levy, M., Swart, S., & Boyd, P. W. Surface-water
324 iron supplies in the Southern Ocean sustained by deep winter mixing. *Nature Geosci.* **7**, 314-
325 320 (2014).
- 326 32. Boyd, P.W. & Tagliabue, A. Using the L* concept to explore controls on the relationship
327 between paired ligand and dissolved iron concentrations in the ocean. *Mar. Chem.* **173**, 52-
328 66 (2015).
- 329 33. Bonnain, C., Breitbart, M., & Buck, K. N. The Ferrojan Horse Hypothesis: Iron-Virus
330 Interactions in the Ocean. *Front. Mar. Sci.* **3**, 82 (2016).
- 331 34. Wells, M. L., Mayer, L. M., Donard, O. F. X., de Souza Sierra, M. M. & Ackelson, S. G. The
332 photolysis of colloidal iron in the oceans, *Nature* **353**, 248-250 (1991).
- 333 35. Barbeau, K. A., & Moffett, J.W. Dissolution of iron oxides by phagotrophic protists: Using
334 a novel method to quantify reaction rates. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **32**, 2969-2975 (1998).
- 335 36. Rubin, M., Berman-Frank, I. & Shaked, Y. Dust-and mineral-iron utilization by the marine
336 dinitrogen-fixer *Trichodesmium*. *Nature Geosci.* **4**, 529–534 (2011).
- 337 37. Hopkinson, B.M. & Barbeau, K. Interactive influences of iron and light limitation on
338 phytoplankton at subsurface chlorophyll maxima in the eastern North Pacific. *Limnol.*
339 *Oceanogr.* **53**, 1303-1318 (2008).
- 340 38. Kirchman D.L. Microbial Ferrous Wheel. *Nature* **383**, 303–304 (1996).
- 341 39. Twining, B. S. & Baines S. B. The trace metal composition of marine phytoplankton. *Annu.*
342 *Rev. Mar. Sci.* **5**, 191–215 (2013).
- 343 40. Marchetti, A. et al. Ferritin is used for iron storage in bloom-forming marine pennate
344 diatoms. *Nature.* **457**, 467-470 (2009).
- 345 41. Lis, H., Shaked, Y., Kranzler, C. Keren N. & Morel, F. M. M. Iron bioavailability to
346 phytoplankton: an empirical approach. *The ISME Journal.* **9**, 1003-1013 (2015).
- 347 42. Sunda W. G. & Huntsman S. A. Iron uptake and growth limitation in oceanic and coastal
348 phytoplankton. *Mar. Chem.* **50**, 189–206 (1995).
- 349 43. Melton, C.D., Swanner, E.D., Behrens, S., Schmidt C. & Kappler A. The interplay of
350 microbially mediated and abiotic reactions in the biogeochemical Fe Cycle. *Nat. Rev. Micro.*
351 **12**, 797-808 (2014).
- 352 44. Boyd P.W. et al. FeCycle: Attempting an iron biogeochemical budget from a mesoscale
353 SF6 tracer experiment in unperturbed low iron waters. *Global Biogeochem. Cy.* **19**
354 2005GB002494 (2015).

- 355 45. Sarthou, G. et al., The fate of biotic iron during a phytoplankton bloom induced by
356 natural fertilization: Impact of copepod grazing. *Deep Sea Res., PT II.* **55**, 734–751 (2008).
- 357 46. Smith, D. C., Simon, M., Alldredge, A.L. & Azam F. Intense hydrolytic enzyme activity on
358 marine aggregates and implications for rapid particle dissolution. *Nature* **359**, 139–142,
359 (1992).
- 360 47. Frew, R. D. et al. Particulate iron dynamics during FeCycle in subantarctic waters
361 southeast of New Zealand. *Global Biogeochem. Cy.* **20**, 2005GB002558 (2006)
- 362 48. Bidle, K. D. & Azam, F. Accelerated dissolution of diatom silica by marine bacterial
363 assemblages. *Nature* **397**, 508–512, (1999).
- 364 49. Clegg, S.L. & Whitfield, M. A generalized model for the scavenging of trace metals in the
365 open ocean—II. Thorium scavenging. *Deep Sea Res.* **38**, 91–120 (1991).
- 366 50. Boyd, P.W. & Trull, T. W. Understanding the export of biogenic particles in oceanic
367 waters: Is there consensus? *Prog. Oceanogr.* **72**, 276–312 (2007).

368

369 **Corresponding Author**

370 Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to Philip Boyd via
371 Philip.boyd@utas.edu.au.

372

373 **Acknowledgements**

374 The authors thank G. Jackson (Texas A&M University) and T. Kiørboe (Technical University of
375 Denmark) for provision of unpublished data/video footage. The sinking particles presented
376 in Supplemental Figure 2C were collected by Z. Baumann (University of Connecticut) and
377 analysed with the assistance of D. Ohnemus (Bigelow Laboratory for Ocean Sciences). This
378 analysis used resources of the Advanced Photon Source, a U.S. Department of Energy (DOE)
379 Office of Science User Facility operated for the DOE Office of Science by Argonne National
380 Laboratory under Contract No. DE-AC02-06CH11357. Support was provided by Australian
381 Research Council Australian Laureate Fellowship project FL160100131 and Antarctic Climate
382 and Ecosystems Cooperative Research Centre funding to P.W.B., and Australian Research
383 Council Discovery Project DP130100679 to M.J.E. and P.W.B. B.S.T. was supported by US
384 National Science Foundation grant OCE-1232814. Model simulations by A.T. are supported
385 by N8 HPC Centre of Excellence, provided and funded by the N8 consortium and EPSRC
386 (Grant No.EP/K000225/1).

387

388 **Author contributions**

389 P.W.B., M.J.E., A.T. and B.S.T. contributed equally to conceiving and developing the material
390 presented, and to writing the paper.

391

392 **Corresponding Author**

393 Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to Philip Boyd via
394 Philip.boyd@utas.edu.au.

395 **Competing financial interests**

396 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

397

398

399

400

401 Display items

402 **Figure 1 Schematic of modes of ‘new’ iron supply (orange arrows) and iron retention**
403 **mechanisms within the surface mixed-layer.** Abiotic retention includes rapid transfer of
404 aerosol iron to soluble pools (i.e., Cascade⁷); and photochemically-mediated colloid
405 dissolution³⁴. Biotic retention is driven by acquisition (e.g., aerosol capture by diazotrophs³⁶)
406 and interactions between iron supply, differing iron quotas (pmol L⁻¹) within natural
407 communities (left-to-right, diatom³⁹, autotrophic flagellate³⁹, picoprokaryote³⁹,
408 picoeukaryote³⁹, heterotrophic bacterium³⁹), and their fate (export (downwards arrow) or
409 grazing/lysis (circle)). Microbial ligand (L) release retains metals in solution (i.e., enterobactin
410 siderophore) and is stimulated by ‘new’ metal supply^{25,26}. The virus represents putative iron
411 recycling through progeny phages³³.

412

413

414 **Figure 2 Influence of different supply modes on surface mixed-layer iron (black symbols)**
415 **and the ratio of new versus recycled iron (red symbols).** Iron is mainly delivered to a)
416 Kerguelen^{20,45} from sustained deep-water supply (blue arrow denotes estimated duration);
417 b) seasonally-oligotrophic subtropical waters¹⁹ from wintertime offshore lateral supply (blue
418 arrow); c) oligotrophic subtropical waters (Bermuda²⁸, black; Hawaii⁷, green (2012 dataset)
419 and blue (2013) symbols) from episodic dust supply (brown arrows). No *fe* ratio estimates
420 were available; d) low-iron subantarctic waters⁴⁴ during spring/summer aerosol deposition

421 (days 250-100). In panels a)/b) observations were extrapolated (blue lines) based on
422 projected seasonality in dissolved iron inventories²³.

423

424 **Table 1 Synthesis of remineralisation length-scales of trace metals and major elements in**
425 **the ocean.** Length-scales are expressed as (positive) b values (i.e., higher values denote
426 shorter length-scales) using power-law fitting of the vertical attenuation in particle flux⁵⁰.
427 Values are from observed sinking flux of: all particles (i.e., lithogenic/biogenic, 150-500m
428 depth)²⁷, and diatoms (50-200m)³⁰. b) remineralisation length-scales from biogeochemical
429 simulations (100-1000m) using PISCES²³. #denotes S as a C proxy. *POC and POP are inter-
430 changeable in model runs. Under “Regeneration processes” R denotes remineralisation, S
431 scavenging/sorption, Re redox state, C complexation, O oxygen concentration, M molecular
432 lability, OC organic coatings. ‘?’ denotes uncertainties.

433

434 **Figure 3 Mechanisms that set the different remineralisation length-scales evident for trace**
435 **metals and major elements.** a) hypothetical remineralisation mechanisms for a sinking
436 diatom (six-sided polygon) based on SXRF element mapping³⁰ (S is a C proxy^{30,39}).
437 Preferential subsurface regeneration of elements is linked to their association with
438 structural/biochemical cellular components (e.g., membranes) and microbial elemental
439 requirements (circle); b) idealised processes acting on sinking heterogeneous particles
440 (lithogenic/biogenic components with different labilities). Particle transformations drive
441 remineralisation (highlighted terms are metal-specific); and c) depth-dependent changes in
442 particle aggregate surface area (bio-optical profiling float data, courtesy George Jackson)
443 which influences local chemistry and microbial processes (S-Animation).

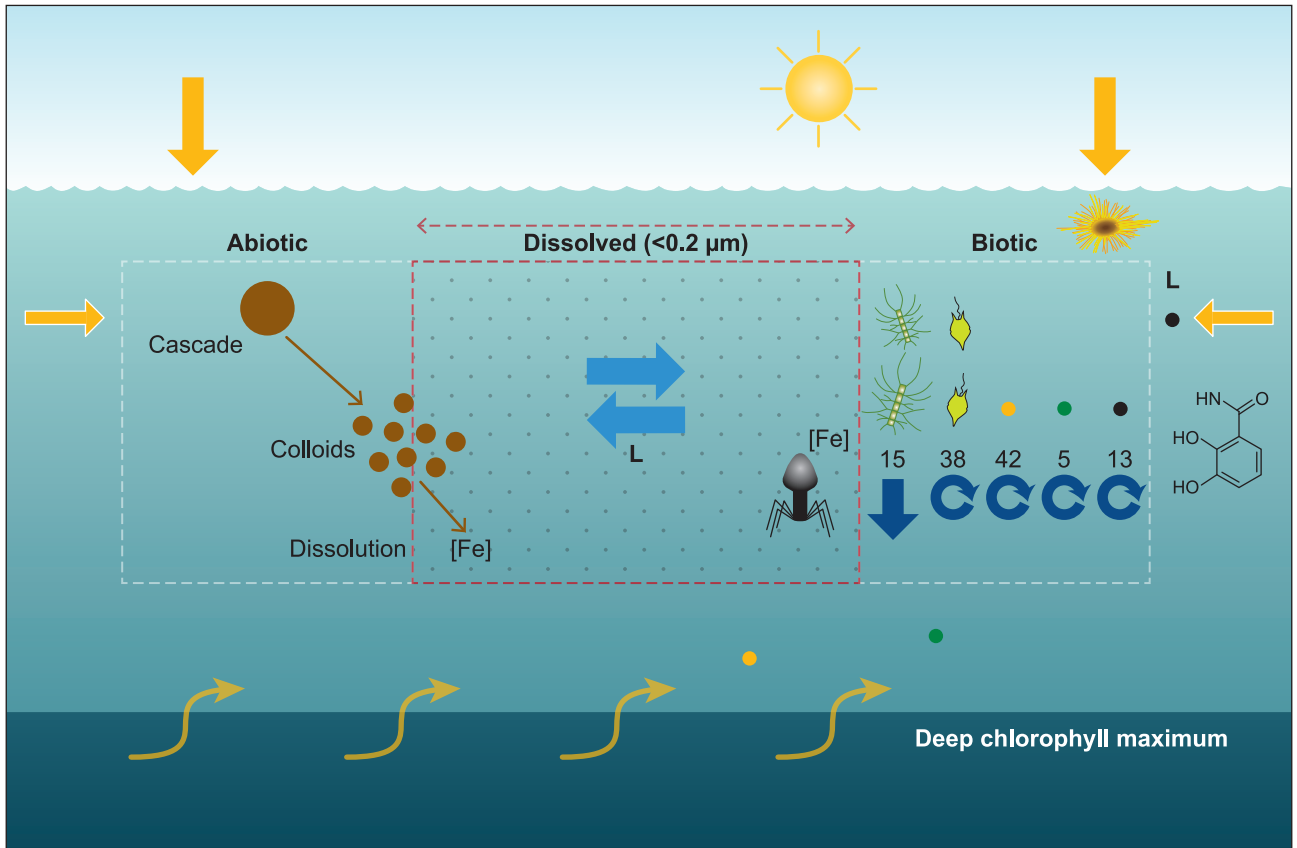
444

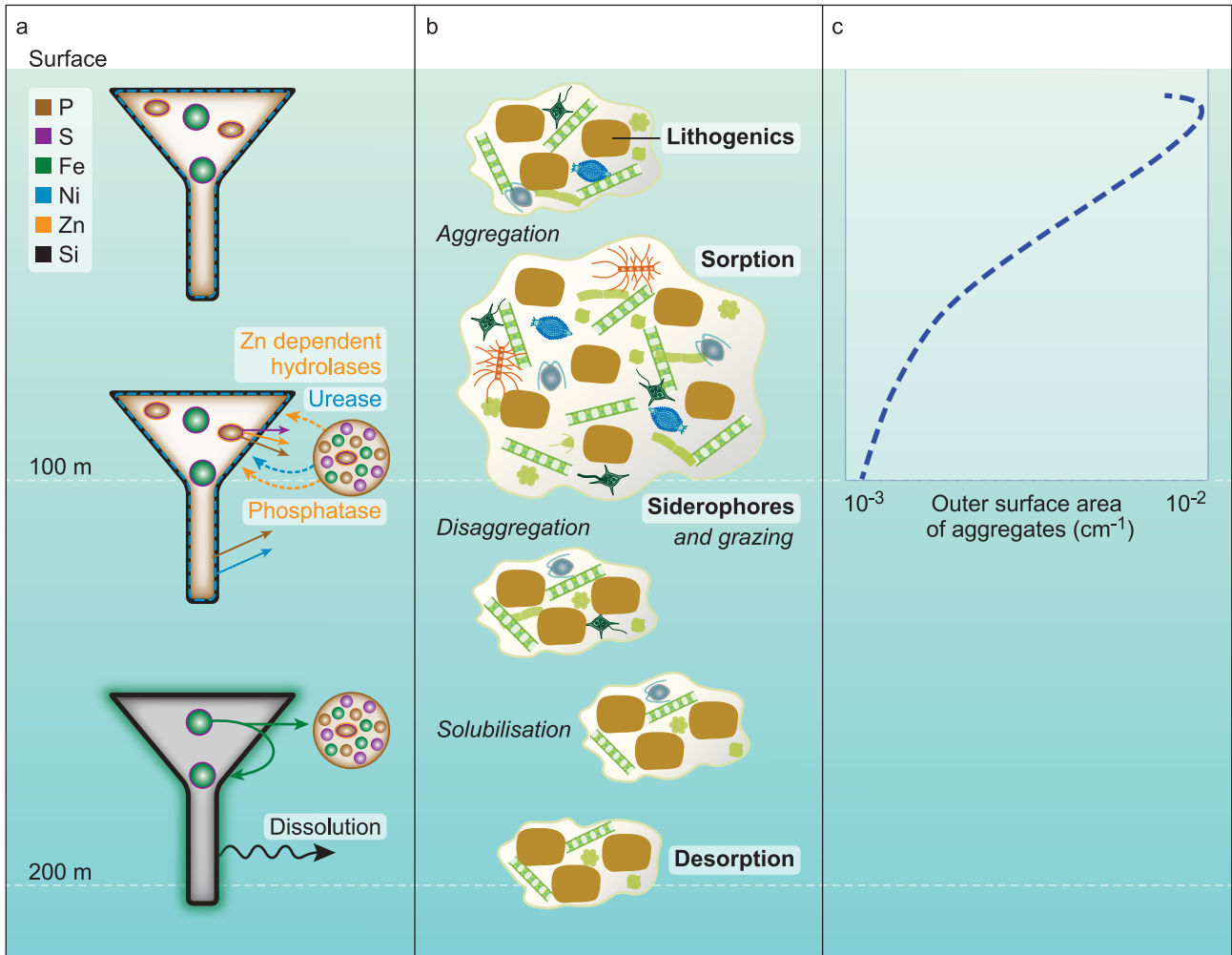
445

446 **Methods**

447 Collection of aggregate image (displayed in S Fig 2C)

448 The aggregate was collected from 15m depth in eastern Long Island Sound using an acid-
449 washed GO-FLO bottle. Particulate aggregates in whole water were settled by gravity into
450 small centrifuge tubes and frozen at -20°C. Samples were subsequently thawed and particles
451 gently collected onto acid-washed 10µm pore-size polycarbonate Isopore membrane filters
452 (Millipore). Un-rinsed filters were frozen at -20°C prior to freeze-drying for 24 h. Aggregates
453 were analyzed with synchrotron X-ray fluorescence (SXRF) microscopy at GEOCAR
454 beamline 13IDE at Advanced Photon Source. Samples were held in a He environment and
455 scanned with 10.5 keV incident X-rays focused to approximately 2µm spot with Kirkpatrick-
456 Baez mirrors. A dwell time of 200 msec at each pixel was used.





a)					
Element	b value	Relative difference (scaled to POC)	Regeneration processes and factors	Particle assemblage	Region
N	1.68 \pm 0.13	1.34	R, O, Re	All	North SubTropical Pacific Gyre (NSTPG) (27)
POC	1.25 \pm 0.09	1	R, O, M	All	NSTPG
C#	1.09 \pm 0.60	1	R, O, M	Diatoms	New Zealand (S Pacific) (30)
P	0.88 \pm 0.48	0.70	R	All	NSTPG
P	0.63 \pm 0.28	0.58	R	Diatoms	S Pacific
bSi	0.22 \pm 0.53	0.18	R, OC	All	NSTPG
Si	0.12 \pm 0.11	0.11	R, OC	Diatoms	S Pacific
Zn	0.77 \pm 0.34	0.70	R, C?	Diatoms	S Pacific
Ni	0.90 \pm 0.76	0.83	R	Diatoms	S Pacific
Al	0.52 \pm 0.29	0.42	R, S,	All	NSTPG
Fe	0.32 \pm 0.28	0.07	R, S, Re, C	All	NSTPG
Fe	0.13 \pm 0.17	0.12	R, S, Re, C	Diatoms	S Pacific
Cu	0.09 \pm 0.38	0.07	R, S?, Re?	All	NSTPG
b)					
POC	1.65 \pm 0.57	1	R, O	All	Global ocean > 1000 m depth
POP*	1.65 \pm 0.57	1	R, O	ditto	ditto
BSi	0.24 \pm 0.05	0.15	R,	ditto	ditto
PFe	0.88 \pm 0.32	0.53	R, O, S	ditto	ditto

Table 1