To the editor,

We are grateful for the time and effort extended by both anonymous reviewers, whose close attention to detail in reviewing our manuscript makes their praise all the more meaningful.

Both reviewers identified a need for clarity in structuring the results and discussion section and better ordering of figures (and where/when they are referenced in the discussion). To remedy this, have split our results section into 3 subsections, and our Discussion section now contains 10 subsections. We have also added an introductory paragraph at the start of the discussion that outlines the upcoming discussion in a logical order. We hope that this new ordering of the manuscript will assist readers in approaching this large manuscript. A great deal of care has also been taken to make sure figures are not referenced out of order, which was an annoyance to both reviewers.

Furthermore, the discussion of coastal cobalt sources has been modified to reflect an ambiguity in the actual source mechanism outlined in Reviewer 2's comments. We have added discussion, particularly in lines 620-626 and 699-708, which acknowledges the lack of mass balance between Mn/Al accumulation rates off Peru and diffusive Mn fluxes out of the sediments. We have also clarified our language to present this source as "coastal" rather than "sedimentary", so that the ambiguity of the Mn and Co sources is preserved.

We have also reorganized the conclusion section, as recommended by reviewer 2, so that figure 14 can be used as a guide to the summary of the data presented in the Results and Discussion sections.

Below, we describe changes in the new manuscript from both Reviewers' line comments. The line in the full-markup draft is present in parentheses. Additional changes to the manuscript are largely to make sentences more easily understood, and, with the exception of the description of the coastal source section, none of the conclusions have been altered.

Sincerely,

Nick Hawco and Mak Saito

Reviewer #1

Line 57. I'm not sure you can definitively say that Co is the least abundant inorganic nutrient, Cd is similarly in the same range, I'd say, "one of the least"

(59) This has been replaced. However, while surface Cd concentrations are extremely low, the mean oceanic Co concentration is significantly less than Cd, see Moore et al. 2013.

Line 64. which suggests. . .

(66) This has been changed.

Line 88. 100 pM – the space between the value and unit is missing. This error occurs frequently, but not every time. I have not listed this observation where it occurs later in the text.

(91) This has been changed, and we have made our best attempt to correct similar mistakes throughout the manuscript.

Line 170. Include the resistivity of the Milli-Q water here. As Milli-Q is a brand name it might be better to say ultrahigh purity water, or something similar, instead of Milli-Q

(174) This has been changed, and other references to Milli-Q water have been substituted with 18 M Ω water. See lines 179, 212, 213.

Line 145. Delete " is measured"

(149) This has been deleted.

Line 203, 1.5 mL of 1.5 M sodium nitrate

(207) This has been changed to better separate the volume and the concentration of reagents. However the reagent is nitrite, not nitrate.

Line 215. Broader than what? Just "broad" will do, perhaps with the range of tested concentrations stated.

(219) Broader has been changed to broad.

Line 216. Replace "deviation" with "variance"

(220) This has been changed.

Line 234. in the lab

(239) "the" has been added to this line.

Line 253. You should probably include the initials: C. Parker and K. Bruland

(259) We have added initials.

Line 281. What was the ratio of HCl: NHO3: HF?

(285) The concentrations of the individual acids have been added. For reference the ratio is 1:1:1, which is clearer in the new version.

Fig. 4. I think it would help the discussion to add some station numbers to this figure

(Fig. 4) We have added station numbers that appear in figure 1 to the top of the sections in Figure 4. We have done the same for figure 6.

Line 351. Baars and Croot (2015)

(365) This mistake has been corrected.

Line 410. You shouldn't really be referring forward to Figure 13c here. This needs some rearranging so that you are not referring forward. You could simply use the values without referring to Figure 13c until later in the text. There are a number of instances that you are

referring to figures that haven't been described yet, which you should try to avoid as much as possible

(341) We have removed the reference to this figure here. For this version of the manuscript, we have worked hard to avoid the need to reference figures out of order and have reworked the layout of both the results and the discussion section to achieve this.

Line 445. "... new cobalt sourced from the shelf is rapidly incorporated into biological cycling and that the capacity for phytoplankton Co uptake..." - the biological cycle, or biological cycles

(485) this phrase has been changed to "the biological cycle"

Line 502. delete "in the"

(546) This error has been fixed.

Line 527. Is there any documentation of reducing sediments on the South American continental shelf that could support your assertion?

(573) We have removed reference to the reducing sediments in this sentence. Due to similar comments from Reviewer 2, we have added an additional paragraph discussing source mechanisms in detail (Lines 611–626) that makes better use of the existing literature in documenting reducing conditions on the Peru shelf, including the Scholz et al. 2011 GCA study.

Line 544. Consistent with release

(618) "with" has been added

Line 547. Is this sentence reversed? "...sedimentation outpaces dissolution of Co and Mn only in very shallow water columns and/or proximal to input, which explains the lack of dissolved benthic maxima for both elements beyond Station 2". If sedimentation outpaced dissolution of Co and Mn in shallow water/close to source, then wouldn't we expect to see no benthic maxima?

(611-626) To avoid unnecessary confusion to the reader, we have deleted this sentence. Reorganization of this section has largely been to acknowledge that, while a margin cobalt source is certain, its mechanism is unclear. In addition to rewriting this paragraph, we have also added a new paragraph (Lines 698-707) that highlights this uncertainty more explicitly.

Line 603. As I understood the Noble et al (2012) study, the dCo and LCo plumes were extensive, but the dFe plume was much smaller and the dMn plume wasn't evident, at least in the ODV plot, although they do argue for a sedimentary source for all three elements, explaining the differences in plume areal extent by preferential scavenging of Mn>Fe>Co. This sentence needs rewording to reflect this.

(694) We have rewritten this sentence so that it is solely focused on the Co plume. For the scope of this section, the main importance is that both the South Pacific and South Atlantic have OMZ plumes of dCo and both regions have depleted Co contents in shelf sediments, suggesting that the same mechanisms is acting in both basins.

Line 619. 20 µM dissolved O2

(722) This has been changed.

Line 627. This is also consistent with Sholkovitz and Copland (1981) who estimated that 97% of Co escapes from freshwater systems (Sholkovitz, E.R., and Copland, D., 1981. The coagulation, solubility and adsorption properties of Fe, Mn, Cu, Ni, Cd, Co and humic acids in river water. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta., 45, 181-189.)

(96) We have added this reference to the introductory paragraph describing coastal Co sources (Line 96). While this is a very relevant study, in light of the uncertainty in the actual source mechanism we found it more appropriate in the introduction than in the discussion.

Line 683. counterpart?

This has been changed.

Line 701. Or they can access the Co from the particulate pool? Is there any evidence for this in the literature?

(811-813) We have modified this sentence to explicitly refer to the particulate pool. Due to the low abundance of Co in dust and the extremely low dust supply to the south pacific, we interpret the particulate Co in the surface ocean (Fig 6c) to reflect Co bound in biomass. We therefore interpret the high pCo:dCo ratio in the South Pacific gyre to reflect recycling between Co-bearing biomolecules as the plankton biomass turns over, rather than the existence of an unexploited, additional resource (such as dust).

Line 706. Prochlorococcus produce ligands too. Might be worth mentioning this as you say that the Prochlorococcus abundance was high

(820) We added a mention to this observation.

Line 729. Delete "of"

(843-44) This has been changed to "in the Peru upwelling region"

Line 764: fluctuates

(893) This has been changed.

References. Check your references as some of them are not displayed properly, e.g. Baxter et al (1998), Line 807, and there are some instances of extra, inconsistent punctuation.

(938) We have corrected the Baxter et al. reference and have tried to correct similar errors in formatting.

Specific responses to Reviewer #2

Title: The paper contains many more interesting observations (and corresponding interpretations) than just the Co plume in the oxygen minimum zone. Consider a more general title that fully captures the comprehensive character of the presented data set.

After much thought, we have decided to keep the shorter, succinct title of the manuscript. Almost all of the observations are focused around the oxygen minimum zone and the processes supporting the cobalt plume therein. We have tried to emphasize the role of the OMZ plume in Cobalt biogeochemistry in the first paragraph of the discussion section, which have been added since review (Lines 396-419)

Line 47, abstract: Add 'in' before 'oligotrophic regions'.

(47) This has been added.

Line 72: It would be useful to define labile Co and the abbreviation LCo here.

(75) We have moved up the definition of LCo as suggested.

Line 75: Does it matter whether the Mn oxides are formed by bacteria or abiotically? I assume they would be enriched in Co either way (see also Line 497).

(78) We have changed 'bacterial' to 'authigenic.'

Results section: The Results section would be easier to follow if it was divided into subsections, e.g., vertical Co profiles, lateral Co distribution, etc.

We have split the results section into 3 major subsections discussing the distribution of dCo (300), pCo (347), and LCo (362).

Line 293: Add number of gyre station so that it can be easily identified in Figure 3.

(305) Stations plotted in figure 3 have been added in parentheses. Per a comment from Reviewer 1, we have also added station numbers to figures 4 and 6.

Line 299: 'overturning' (typo).

(310) Corrected.

Line 313: Add reference to figure.

In order to avoid for referencing figure 10 out of order (an issue raised by both reviewers), we have not made this change. However, we have marked Station 2 on both figures 4 and 6 (and figure 1) to make it easier for a reader to understand.

Line 321: Upwelling of P-rich and O-poor water 'results' in high dCo? Rephrase for clarity.

(333-335) We have rewritten this sentence for increased clarity.

Line 329: Figure 13?

(342) We have removed reference to this figure.

Line 340: Add figure reference.

Will add.

Line 359: "On the GP16 transect . . .".

(353) This has been added.

Line 417: I assume you mean "low O2/high dCo water masses mix with high O2/low dCo water masses". Rephrase for clarity.

(452-453)This sentence has been rewritten to make its meaning more clear.

Line 424: Is the LCo:O2 trend shown in the figures? If yes, add figure reference; If no, C3 add 'not shown'.

(460) 'not shown' was added.

Line 433: What is meant with "double 0 μM intercept"? 2 x 0 μM? Rephrase for clarity.

(469) This has been rephrased. The word "twice" has been substituted for "double" in the original manuscript, which was the main cause of confusion.

Line 434: What exactly resembles "profiles of N2 . . . "?

(471-476) The wording of this sentence has been redone. It has been emphasized that the dCo profile is what is similar to the excess N2 profile.

Line 444: The 50 m depth range is not shown with separate symbols in Figure 5c. Later in the text other depth ranges are discussed which are not shown either (Line 457). I suggest adding more color codes to Figure 5c to indicate all the depth ranges and corresponding covariation trends discussed in the text. Otherwise the discussion is difficult to follow.

(485) We have modified figure 5 so that the 0-50m depth range is presented as cyan, and the 50-200m depth range is presented as blue. Specific references to the colors in figure 5 and also figure 9 have been added parenthetically (also Lines 498, 499, 503, 535, 541, 547, 554, 556...).

Line 492: What is meant with 'redox barrier'? Do you invoke a biological process or just that Mn oxides do not form at very low oxygen concentrations?

(536) We have rewritten so be more specific, mainly highlighting the thermodynamic and kinetic basis for a sensitivity of Mn oxidation to changes in O2 concentration.

Line 499: Figure 7C does not show pCo.

(545) We have changed to figure reference to 6C.

Line 502: Remove 'in'.

(547) This has been changed.

Line 518: Figure 14 is a summary figure which has not been introduced at this point of the discussion. I recommend referring to actual data here and to restrict references to Figure 14 to the Conclusions section.

(563) We have removed the reference to figure 14, both here and everywhere else, with the exception of the conclusion section, which has been reorganized. For the purposes of this sentence, we have added a reference to figure 5c.

Section 4.3: See comment above on reductive Mn dissolution in the water column.

(620-627) We have incorporated the conclusions from the Scholz et al. 2011 study more explicitly in this section, and in the next (Lines 699-708). We have backed off of the wording on sedimentary sources, instead using "coastal" as a kind of catch-all until more details about the nature of this source come to light.

Line 545-549: The Peruvian shelf occasionally experiences oxidation events which also favor Mn deposition and burial (see discussion in Scholz et al., 2011).

(682-684) We have added a sentence making explicit mention to this effect.

Line 590: "oxidizing conditions . . . prevent reductive dissolution . . ." is a misleading statement. The sediments at the western Pacific margin are certainly Mn-reducing in the shallow subsurface but the oxic surface sediments prevent diffusive escape of the pore water Co and Mn into the water column.

(677-678) We have clarified our hypothesis here, emphasizing that oxidizing conditions limit the release of Co from the sediments, as point out in the above comment.

Line 594-Line 606: Because of low water exchange kinetics, Co is incorporated into pyrite and does not tend to from its own sulfide minerals (Morse & Luther, 1999, GCA 63, 3373-3378).

(685) We have have made note of this distinction and have modified our language accordingly. The Morse and Luther citation is added to Lines 688-689.

Line 613: Does 'crust' refer to 'andesite' in this equation. It does not matter what you take but it should be consistent throughout the manuscript.

(722) The range in calculated fluxes represents calculations from both upper continental crust, as defined by McLennan 2001, and Andesitic endmembers, as defined by Taylor and McLennan 1995). We have tried to make this more explicit in the paragraph by indicating this in parenthesis, as well as an additional reference to table 2.

Conclusions: I really like Figure 14 and therefore recommend to introduce it more explicitly at the beginning of the Conclusions (something like: "the major pattern and underlying processes identified in this contribution are summarized in Figure 14"). The major finding can then be summarized by guiding the reader through Figure 14.

(853) We have reorganized the conclusion section, as suggested, by way of examining figure 14. The ordering of the summary follows an approximate 'source-to-sink' direction which can be followed along in figure 14.

Caption Figure 1: What depth or potential density do the isolines correspond to? This represents oxygen at 300m, which was accidentally omitted from the caption.

(1205) We have added that the O2 data comes from 300m.

1 2 3	A <u>dissolved</u> cobalt plume in the oxygen minimum zone of the Eastern Tropical South Pacific
4	N. J. Hawco, ^{1,2} D.C. Ohnemus, ³ J. A. Resing, ⁴ B. S. Twining ³ and M. A. Saito ²
5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13	 MIT/WHOI Joint Program in Oceanography/Applied Ocean Science and Engineering, Woods Hole, MA, USA Department of Marine Chemistry and Geochemistry, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, MA, USA Bigelow Laboratory for Ocean Sciences, East Boothbay, ME, USA Joint Institute for the Study of the Atmosphere and the Ocean, University of Washington and NOAA-PMEL, Seattle, WA, USA
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is limited, especially in the Pacific Ocean. Here, we report sections of dissolved cobalt and labile 37 dissolved cobalt from the US GEOTRACES GP16 transect in the South Pacific. The cobalt 38 distribution is closely tied to the extent and intensity of the oxygen minimum zone in the eastern 39 South Pacific with highest concentrations measured at the oxycline near the Peru margin. Below 40 200 m, remineralization and circulation produce an inverse relationship between cobalt and 41 dissolved oxygen that extends throughout the basin. Within the oxygen minimum zone, elevated 42 concentrations of labile cobalt are generated by input from coastal sources and reduced 43 scavenging at low O₂. As these high cobalt waters are upwelled and advected offshore, 44 45 phytoplankton export returns cobalt to low-oxygen water masses underneath. West of the Peru upwelling region, dissolved cobalt is less than 10 pM in the euphotic zone and strongly bound by 46 47 organic ligands. Because the cobalt nutricline within the South Pacific gyre is deeper than in oligotrophic regions in the North and South Atlantic, cobalt involved in sustaining phytoplankton 48 49 productivity in the gyre is heavily recycled and ultimately arrives from lateral transport of 50 upwelled waters from the eastern margin. In contrast to large coastal inputs, atmospheric 51 deposition and hydrothermal vents along the Eastern Pacific Rise appear to be a minor sources of 52 cobalt. Overall, these results demonstrate that oxygen biogeochemistry exerts a strong influence 53 on cobalt cycling. 54 Keywords. Cobalt, oxygen minimum zone, scavenging, GEOTRACES, hydrothermal vents, 55 56 manganese oxides, phytoplankton, South Pacific, Peru Upwelling, micronutrient 57 58 1. Introduction Cobalt is one of the least abundant inorganic nutrients in seawater and its scarcity may affect 59 phytoplankton growth in certain regions (Moore et al., 2013). In the high macronutrient waters of 60 the Costa Rica upwelling dome, for instance, Co and iron (Fe) amendments to surface seawater 61 increased phytoplankton production more than Fe alone, promoting growth of the 62 cyanobacterium Synechococcus (Ahlgren et al., 2014; Saito et al., 2005). While eukaryotic 63 phytoplankton mainly use cobalt to compensate for insufficient zinc (Sunda and Huntsman, 64 65 1995), populating the same enzymes with either metal (Yee and Morel, 1996), marine cyanobacteria have an absolute growth requirement for Co that cannot be substituted, which and 66 67 suggests they may be more prone to limitation (Saito et al., 2002). Yet, the extent to which their

Abstract. Cobalt is a nutrient to phytoplankton, but knowledge about its biogeochemical cycling

or remove it from, the surface ocean relative to other limiting nutrients. 69 70 Biological cycling of dissolved cobalt (dCo) is apparent in vertical profiles, showing uptake and 71 export in the surface and regeneration in the thermocline (Bown et al., 2011; Dulaquais et al., 72 73 2014a; Noble et al., 2012). While dCo in the euphotic zone can be entirely bound by strong organic ligands, a substantial portion (10-50 %) of subsurface dCo is unbound and labile 74 75 (LCo10 50 %, Bown et al., 2012; Ellwood and van den Berg, 2001; Saito and Moffett, 2001; 76 Saito et al., 2005) and therefore vulnerable to scavenging (Moffett and Ho, 1996). The similar 77 ionic radii and redox potentials of cobalt and manganese (Mn) cause dCo to be actively incorporated into bacterialauthigenic Mn-oxides, which sink from the water column and 78 79 accumulate in marine sediments (Cowen and Bruland, 1985; Moffett and Ho, 1996; Swanner et al., 2014). Below the euphotic zone, the persistence of labile dissolved cobalt (LCo) throughout 80 the Atlantic indicates that scavenging of dCo, unlike Fe, is slow (Noble et al., 2012). On 81 timescales of ocean circulation, however, scavenging is responsible for decreasing dCo 82 concentrations with depth and for the low ratio between dCo and macronutrients in deep waters 83 84 relative to phytoplankton biomass (Moore et al., 2013). As these deep waters are repackaged into thermocline water masses and eventually brought to the surface (Sarmiento et al., 2011), the 85 upper ocean would become depleted in cobalt – as well as other hybrid metals like Fe and Mn – 86 without external sources that keep pace with scavenging (Bruland and Lohan, 2003; Noble et al., 87 2008). 88 89

growth in situ is affected by cobalt scarcity ultimately depends on the processes that add Co to,

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Yet, the nature of marine cobalt sources is uncertain. In zonal sections of the North and South Atlantic, sources appear to be concentrated along continental margins (Noble and Saito, in prep; Noble et al., 2012). In the western Atlantic, dCo concentrations exceeding 100 pM were associated with the flow of Upper Labrador Seawater, likely gained through intense sediment resuspension along the shelf or input prior to subduction (Noble and Saito, In prep). dCo in fresh and estuarine waters can be 100-1000x greater than seawater (Gaillardet et al., 2003; Knauer et al., 1982; Tovar-Sánchez et al., 2004) and Co is less prone to flocculation in estuaries than other metals (Sholkovitz and Copland, 1982). ‡Terrigenous inputs from the American continent can be clearly seen in lower salinity surface waters influenced by the Gulf Stream (Noble and Saito, in prep; Saito and Moffett, 2002) and Amazon discharge (Dulaquais et al., 2014b). Yet, in both the North and South Atlantic, a much larger dCo plume was associated with the oxygen minimum zones along the Mauritanian and Namibian coasts (Noble and Saito, in prep, Noble et al., 2012). Although these waters are not anoxic, the dCo plumes imply that O2 over the continental shelf is sufficiently low that reductive dissolution of Mn and Fe oxides in sediments releases a large flux of dCo to the water column (Heggie and Lewis, 1984; Sundby et al., 1986). Drawing from large inventories in the Atlantic OMZs, upwelling along eastern margins provides a large dCo flux to the surface ocean. While surface dCo maxima from atmospheric deposition generally do not appear in vertical profiles, this process may be important for regions that are isolated from continental input or receive very high levels of dust (e.g. the Sargasso Sea, Dulaquais et al., 2014a; Shelley et al., 2012).

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To date, sectional datasets for dCo have been confined to the Atlantic and, as such, our understanding of cobalt cycling may be biased by the dominant processes occurring there. In

comparison, the South Pacific receives considerably less dust deposition and river input (Mahowald et al., 2005; Milliman and Farnsworth, 2011), but hosts a much larger and more reducing oxygen minimum zone. Surface transects off Peru and the Costa Rica Dome suggest a large source from upwelling (Ahlgren et al., 2014; Saito et al., 2004, 2005); however, profiles in the tropical Pacific are sparse (Noble et al., 2008; Saito et al., 2014). We measured the concentration of dissolved cobalt and labile dissolved cobalt eoneentrations from in over 750 samples collected onboard the 2013 US GEOTRACES GP16 expedition across the South Pacific along 12° S, intersecting coastal upwelling along the Peru margin, hydrothermal venting over the East Pacific Reise, and oligotrophic conditions near Polynesia (Fig. 1). Across this section, the distribution of dCo and LCo follow the intensity of the oxygen minimum zone, with highest concentrations near the South American shelf and low concentrations in both deep waters and oligotrophic surface waters, matching OMZ-associated plumes observed in the Atlantic.

2. Methods

2.1 Sample collection and handling

Sampling on GP16 was conducted with a 24_position trace metal clean titanium rosette attached to a non-metallic Kevlar cable designed for the U.S. GEOTRACES program (Cutter and Bruland, 2012). An additional sample was collected from a surface towfish at each station. Subsamples were collected in a Class-100 sampling van from 12 L Go-Flo bottles (General Oceanics) and passed through 0.2 μ M Acropack filters (Pall). All bottles were rinsed 3x with sample seawater before being filled entirely, leaving no headspace. For samples analyzed at sea, both dissolved and labile cobalt were analyzed from the same bottle. All samples were kept refrigerated at 4° C until analysis in a HEPA filtered clean van. All of the LCo samples and more

than 90 % of dCo samples were analyzed at sea. Samples not analyzed at sea were preserved for dCo immediately after sampling using metal-free gas adsorbing satchels (Mitsubishi Gas Chemical, model RP-3K), using 3–4 satchels per 6 seawater samples. Gas-impermeable plastic bags (Ampac) were heat sealed and were hand carried directly to Woods Hole at 4° C following disembarkation.

2.2 Cobalt determination by cathodic stripping voltammetry

dCo and LCo were measured using a cathodic stripping voltammetry (CSV) method optimized for organic speciation by Saito and Moffett, 2001. This method relies on the complexation of inorganic Co species by a strong synthetic ligand, dimethylglyoxime (DMG, $K^{cond} = 10^{11.5\pm0.3}$), which forms a bis-complex, $Co(DMG)_2$, with Co^{2+} that readily absorbs to a hanging mercury drop (Saito and Moffett, 2001). The $Co(DMG)_2$ complex is measured following a fast, $10_2V s^{-1}$ sweep that reduces both the Co-(II) to Co(0) and the DMG to 2,3-bis(hydroxylamino)butane, producing an 8—10 electron decrease in current for each $Co(DMG)_2$ complex (Baxter et al., 1998). The height of the $Co(DMG)_2$ reduction peak at -1.15 V is measured is directly proportional to the Co concentration.

Triplicate scans of the seawater sample were followed by four standard cobalt additions (25 pM per addition) and the slope of their linear regression (mean $R^2 = 0.998$) was used to calculate the sample specific sensitivity (in nA pM⁻¹). The cobalt concentration was determined by dividing the mean of the three baseline peaks by the sensitivity, and correcting for reagent volume. The average deviation for these triplicate scans was 1.5 pM.

dCo analyses were conducted after a 1-hour UV oxidation procedure to remove strong organic ligands that prevent DMG from binding. Co-binding by DMG. UV digestion was performed in 15 mL quartz glass tubes using a Metrohm 705 UV digester (Metrohm USA). Temperature was maintained below 20° C to minimize evaporation losses. After UV digestion, 11 mL of sample was pipetted into 15 mL polypropylene tubes and DMG and a buffering agent, EPPS, were added to final concentrations of 400 µM and 3.8 mM, respectively. 8.5 mL of sample solution was added to a Teflon analysis cup and mixed with 1.5 mL of 1.5 M NaNO2, making a final analysis volume of 10 mL.

LCo was measured after >8 hour incubation of 11 mL of seawater with 400 μ M DMG in a Teflon eupvial. LCo is therefore the concentration that will readily exchange with DMG. After this time, the sample was poured into an autosampler-compatible 15 mL poly-propylene tube (separate from those used for dCo analyses) and EPPS was added to 3.8 mM.

2.2.1 Preparing reagent and blanks

All bottles and sample tubes were soaked for >1 week in the acidic detergent Citranox, rinsed thoroughly with $18.2 \, \text{M}\Omega$ Milli Q water (Millipore), filled with 10 % trace metal grade HCl (J.T. Baker) to soak for 10 days, and rinsed thoroughly with ~10 mM TM-grade HCl. DMG (Sigma-Aldrich) was purified by recrystallization in a 1 mM EDTA solution (Sigma-Aldrich). Crystals were filtered, dried, and dissolved in HPLC grade methanol to a concentration of 0.1 M (Saito and Moffett, 2001). EPPS (Fischer) and Sodium Nitrite (Millipore) were both dissolved in $18.2 \, \text{M}\Omega$ Milli Q water to 0.5 M and 1.5 M, respectively, and treated with separate batches of thoroughly cleaned Chelex-100 beads (Bio-Rad) to remove background Co and Ni (Price et al.,

1989). Standard additions of cobalt were generated by diluting a 1 ppm certified reference 182 standard (SPEX Certiprep) with 10 mM HCl to a concentration of 5.00 nM. 50 µl of this solution 183 was added to the 10mL sample volume for each standard addition (25 pM addition). 184 185 To determine reagent blanks, Co-free seawater was generated by treating UV-seawater with 186 187 cleaned Chelex-100 beads. The seawater was then UV digested a second time to remove any 188 ligands leached during Chelex treatment. Any dCo measured in the Chelexed seawater derives 189 from addition of Co from analytical reagents. The mean blank for at sea analysis was 190 consistently low: 3.7 ± 1.2 pM (n=28). For analyses at Woods Hole, mean blank was 4.7 ± 1.4 pM (n=12). Blanks were subtracted from all measured values. Detection limits were calculated 191 192 as triple the standard deviation of the blank: 3.6 pM for at-sea analyses and 4.2 pM for samples 193 measured in Woods Hole. 194 195 2.2.2 Automated cobalt analyses 196 To accommodate a greater number of samples, our previous workflow (Noble et al., 2008) was modified to incorporate fully automated sample analyses using the Metrohm 85837 Sample 197 198 Processor autosampler. All measurements were performed using an Eco-Chemie µAutolabIII system connected to a Metrohm 663 VA stand. A hanging drop mercury electrode (Metrohm) 199

was set to semi-hanging drop mode and accompanied by a 3 M KCl/AgCl reference electrode

and glassy carbon auxiliary electrode. Scheduling and data acquisition were controlled using

NOVA 1.8 software (Metrohm Autolab B.V). Automated delivery of seawater, sodium nitrite,

and Co standard to the analysis cup was accomplished by three dedicated Dosino 800 burettes

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(Metrohm). Sample volume was increased to allow ~2 mL for conditioning tubing and analysis 204 cup prior of sample delivery. 205 206

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Tubes containing 11 mL seawater, DMG, and EPPS were inverted several times and placed onto a sampling rack where 8.5 mL of the mixture was dosed into the Teflon analysis cup. 1.5 mL of 1.5 M sodium nitrite was added directly to the sample cup. Samples were purged with highpurity N₂ (>99.99 %) for 180 s and then conditioned for 90 s at -0.6 V. Scan sweeps were run at 10 V s⁻¹ from -0.6 V to -1.4 V. Before each analysis, the sample cup was rinsed fully with Milli-Q water and 1 mL sample before measurement. Between uses, autosampler tubes, quartz vials,

and Teflon cups were rinsed with 10 mM HCl, 18.2 MΩ water Milli Q water, and 1-2 mL of new

sample. The autosampler sample uptake line was rinsed with 10 mM HCl and $18.2 \text{ M}\Omega$ water

Milli Q when transitioning from LCo analyses to dCo analyses.

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We noticed a decrease in sensitivity of preserved samples relative to those analyzed at sea, possibly caused by an increase in the sample pH during storage. Sensitivity was restored by doubling the concentration of our buffering agent, EPPS, in the sample to a final concentration of 7.6 mM. We tested a broader range of EPPS additions in UV seawater and found the cobalt concentration unchanged while the deviation-variance between triplicate scans was reduced markedly by the increase in sensitivity (data not shown). We tentatively attribute this decrease in sensitivity in preserved samples to CO₂ adsorption by gas satchels, which would increase sample pH.

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2.2.3 Signal processing

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Analyses conducted at sea were characterized with a mild to moderate electrical interference that mandated additional processing before peak height could be reliably measured (Fig. 2). We opted for a simplified least squared fitting routine included in the NOVA software package that conducts a 15-point weighted moving average – equivalent to a 36.9 mV analytical window – according to a 2nd order polynomial. This method did not distort measured peak height cobalt concentrations when noise was low (Fig. 2a, b). A small fraction of scans (~3 %) were not adequately fit using this routine and were instead smoothed using a 9-point linear moving average (22.1 mV window, Fig. 2c), also included in NOVA. For all samples, peak height was measured manually to minimize peak distortion due to added noise. Subsequent analyses in the laboratory at Woods Hole were able to remove this signal by increasing the current sampling step from 2.46 mV (341 points between -0.6V to -1.4V) to 4.88 mV (174 points) which eliminated the need for smoothing prior to sample analysis. We observed good agreement between samples analyzed at sea and in the lab, indicating that the smoothing procedures applied at sea did not bias the data and that gas adsorbing satchels preserved original concentrations (Noble and Saito, in prep). 2.2.4 Intercalibration and internal laboratory standard All data reported in this manuscript have been submitted to the Biological and Chemical Oceanography Data Management Center (BCO-DMO, http://www.bcodmo.org/dataset/647250). Our laboratory continues to participate in international intercalibration efforts through the GEOTRACES program in anticipation of the release of the 2nd Intermediate Data Product, Summer 2017. The sampling scheme for GP16 included 2 overlapping samples

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per full depth profile where the shallowest sample of the deep cast matched the deepest sample for the mid cast, and the shallowest sample from the mid cast matched the deepest sample from the shallow cast (i.e. a 36-point profile is composed of 34 discreet depths and 2 overlapping depths). Comparing overlapping samples collected at the same depth and location on separate hydrocasts provides a measure of reproducibility. The average difference between dCo analyses across 40 overlapping depth samples was 5.7 pM with a median difference of 3.5 pM. For labile cobalt, average deviation was 2.1 pM (median of 2.0 pM, n = 41). Least-squares regression of these samples yielded slopes close to 1(0.98 for dCo and 0.96 for LCo; y-intercept forced to 0), indicating good reproducability. Furthermore, comparisons with other groups measuring dCo in the same samples reported here suggest strong agreement between groups despite major methodological differences (C. Parker and K. Bruland, personal communication). Because acidified community reference materials such as the SAFe standards require a delicate neutralization to pH 7.5-8 prior to analysis, a large batch of UV oligotrophic seawater was generated prior to the cruise and used to assee instrument performance during at-sea analysis. This consistency seawater standard was run ~3x per week, as were blanks, and values were stable over several reagent batches for the duration of the cruise $(4.5 \pm 2.1 \text{ pM}, \text{n} = 28)$. SAFe standard D1 was measured at sea (48.5 ± 2.4 pM, n = 3) and fell within 1 SD of the consensus value (46.6 ± 4.8 pM). SAFe standard D2 and GEOTRACES standard GSP were run at higher frequency for analyses at Woods Hole. Our measurements of D2 (46.9 ± 3.0 pM, n_=7) agreed with consensus values ($45.7 \pm 2.9 \text{ pM}$) and concentrations from our lab published previously (Noble et al., 2012). While the GSP standard does not have a consensus value, our determinations (2.5 \pm 2.0 pM, n = 10) are within the range for SAFe S (4.9 \pm 1.2 pM), which was

collected at the same offshore location as GSP. Acidified SAFe and GEOTRACES standards were neutralized with concentrated ammonium hydroxide (Seastar), mixing the entire sample between drops, prior to UV digestion. When base was added more quickly, measured dCo was halved, presumably due to adsorption or co-precipitation onto magnesium hydroxides formed during base addition. For analysis of neutralized standards, we found a ~6:1 EPPS:NH₄OH (M:M) buffer improved pH stability during analysis and removed significant baseline drift observed with samples solely buffered with EPPS.

2.3 Particulate metal analyses

Particulate material collected from Go-Flo bottles was filtered onto acid-cleaned 0.45 μm polyethersulfone filters (25 mm). Digestion protocol and analyses are identical to those used to measure particulate metal concentrations during the North Atlantic GA03 cruise, described in Twining et al., 2015. After filtration, filters were halved, digested at 135° C in sealed Teflon vials containing 4 M HCL, 4 M HNO₃, and 4 M HF; digests were then dried, and re-dissolved in 0.32 M HNO₃ before analysis. pCo, pMn and pP concentrations were measured by ICP-MS (Element 2, Thermo Scientific), calibrated using external multi-element standard curves, and corrected for instrument drift and sample recovery by In and Cs internal standards. More detailed methods for this dataset can be found elsewhere (Ohnemus et al., In ReviewPress).

3. Results

We report 680 determinations of dissolved cobalt (dCo) and 783 determinations of labile dissolved cobalt (LCo) measured at sea, onboard the GP16 expedition in October–December

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2013, as well as an additional 140 measurements of dCo measured from preserved samples on land. In this section, we describe the distributions of dCo, particulate cobalt (pCo), and LCo in the South Pacific Ocean.

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3.1 Dissolved Cobalt

Throughout the GP16 transect, nutrient uptake and scavenging result in a hybrid-type profile for dCo-dissolved cobalt (dCo, Fig. 3), similar to dCo profiles from the Atlantic (Bown et al., 2011; Dulaquais et al., 2014b; Noble et al., 2012; Noble and Saito, in prep) and North Pacific (Ahlgren et al., 2014; Knauer et al., 1982; Saito et al., 2014). dCo ranged from <3 pM (below detection) in the South Pacific Gyre (e.g. Stations 23, 36) to 210 pM beneath the oxycline near the Peru Margin (Station 1). In the deep Pacific, concentrations fell between 20-40 pM but increased slightly at deepest stations below 4500 m. These values are much less than those observed in zonal transects surveying the North and South Atlantic (Noble et al., 2012; Noble and Saito, in prep) but are similar to measurements in the Southern Ocean (Bown et al., 2011), indicating that dCo is scavenged in the deep ocean along meridional overturning circulation. Below 3000 m, dCo is somewhat lower east of the Eastern Pacific Rise (EPR), and matches less oxygenated, older waters than in the western portion of the transect (Fig. 4). While many profiles west of the EPR show considerable variation between 2000-3000 m suggestive of hydrothermal influence, the range is small (<10 pM) relative to background concentrations (30–40 pM) and unlike the 50-fold excess of hydrothermal dFe and dMn above background seawater measured at Station 18 (Resing et al., 2015).

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dCo peaks in the mesopelagic, typically between 300-500 m. Towards the Peru shelf, this maximum shoals and increases, following the position and intensity of the oxygen minimum zone (OMZ, defined here as $\Theta_2 < -20 \mu M O_2$). Although the OMZ is several hundred meters thick near the eastern margin (Fig. 3), dCo concentrations >100 pM are restricted to samples collected just below the oxycline. Despite this narrow depth range, dCo>100 pM_dCo extends as far as 100° W. For all depths below 200 m, dCo follows a negative linear relationship with O₂ (Fig. 5a). Over the Peru shelf, maximum dCo was measured at the top of the OMZ and dCo decreased with depth (except for the shallowest and most shoreward Station 2). Only at the western edge of the section do dCo and O₂ decouple: the dCo maximum at Setation 36 is deeper (500–1000 m) than the oxygen minimum (300-500 m), seemingly independent of the influence of the South Pacific OMZ (Fig. 3). All profiles show a surface or near-surface minimum that indicates biological uptake and export. As a result, dCo is well traced by dissolved phosphate, PO₄, in the upper 200 m of the ETSP (Fig. 5c). This relationship holds despite sharp transitions to high dCo in the oxycline near the Peru shelf. Upwelling of O₂-depleted, PO₄-rich waters along the eastern boundary results contributes to high dCo in the surface ocean along the eastern marginin high surface dCo, with concentrations decreasing westward due to mixing and export. A secondary surface dCo maximum marked a cyclonic eddy sampled at 89° W (Station 9, V. Sanial, personal communication), which appeared to transport a shelf-like dCo and LCo signature for the upper 300 m into the offshore OMZ (Figs. 6a, b). Toward In the South Pacific gyre, dCo in the euphotic zone falls below 10 pM. While the lowest PO₄ was found in low salinity surface waters west of 140° W, minimum dCo and deepest nutriclines corresponded to a southwestward

excursion in the transect between Stations 17–23 (109–120° W), which were accompanied by high salinities (>36) associated with the eastern part of the subtropical gyre (Fig. 13). In contrast to the deep, smooth dCo nutricline further to the east, stations at the western edge of the section (Stations 32, 34, and 36) contained 20 pM Co until ~50 m where concentrations decrease sharply surfaceward, resembling profiles in the North Atlantic (Fig. 3; Noble and Saito, in prep).

3.2 Particulate Cobalt

The surface minimum in dCo is mirrored by a near-surface maximum in particulate cobalt (pCo) from biological uptake throughout the GP16 section. The distribution of pCo (Fig. 6c) resembles particulate phosphorus (pP), chlorophyll, and other indicators of phytoplankton biomass. Very high pCo (>10 pM) was measured in the highly productive waters in the Peru upwelling ecosystem while lower concentrations (2–4 pM) were found in oligotrophic surface waters. West of 100° W on the GP16 transect, a secondary pCo maximum between 300–500 m overlaps with high particulate Mn (pMn), reflecting Co incorporation into Mn-oxides in oxygenated thermocline waters (Fig. 6c). Elevated pCo was also found at the top of the OMZ in the eastern half of the transect, corresponding with high dCo from remineralization. High pP and low pMn in these samples suggest that pCo may be present as biomass in anoxic bacterial and archaeal communities (Ohnemus et al., In ReviewPress), rather than incorporation into bacterial Mn-oxides by co-oxidation. pMn increases sharply west of 100° W, implying that pCo here is present as an authigenic phase (Fig. 9, Ohnemus et al., In ReviewPress; Moffett and Ho, 1996).

3.3 Labile Dissolved Cobalt

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dCo can be bound by extremely strong organic ligands that affect its reactivity (Ellwood and van den Berg, 2001; Saito and Moffett, 2001). These ligands may be composed of degradation products of the cobalt-bearing cofactor vitamin B₁₂ and may be stabilized following oxidation of Co(II) to Co(III) (Baars and Croot, 20145). Unlike other metals such as Fe, dCo bound to natural ligands is kinetically inert to ligand exchange (although some forms may still be bioavailable) and strong Co(II) ligands are not in excess of dCo, largely due to binding competition with nanomolar levels of labile nickel (Saito and Moffett, 2001; Saito et al., 2005). These properties can result in a significant fraction of labile dissolved cobalt (LCo) that can be measured without the UV-oxidation procedure necessary to measure dCo, especially in the mesopelagic (Noble et al., 2012). On GP16, the distribution of LCo is similar to that of dCo (Figs. 3, 4, 6). Except for samples from the upper 50 m, dCo and LCo form a linear relationship ($R^2 = 0.88$) whose slope indicates that ~33 % of dCo is labile (Fig. 7a). Major exceptions are confined to the highly productive waters over the Peru shelf (Stations 1-6) where LCo is much lower than expected from dCo. In these waters, LCo decreases in step with silicate (Fig. 7c). As in the North and South Atlantic (Noble et al., 2012; Noble and Saito, in prep), LCo is undetectable in the surface ocean outside of the waters influenced by upwelling (beyond 100° W, Fig. 6b). The absence of LCo from the upper 300 m of the water column is deeper than corresponding gradients in the Atlantic, suggesting cobalt depletion is more intense in the South Pacific. In the deep Pacific (>3000 m), where dCo is low, LCo is undetectable. LCo remains low (<15 pM) in the mesopelagic, except where the OMZ is most intense (Fig. 4). Within the OMZ, LCo

maxima coincide with dCo maxima (Stations 1–15), but further to the west these LCo maxima are much less intense pronounced and occur deeper than dCo maxima (Fig. 3). The LCo plume from the OMZ also extends deeper (below 2000 m) than the corresponding dCo (<2000 m), suggesting that remineralization and scavenging affect these quantities in different ways. Slight secondary maxima between 1500–2000 m (10–15 pM) appear in the center of the section on σ_{θ} = 27.7–8 kg m⁻³ isopycnal layers (Fig. 4c, 105° W–115° W), perhaps tracing transport of LCo remineralized in the eastern basin as these waters flow over the mid ocean ridge.

4. Discussion

4.1 Basin-scale coupling between dCo and O2

The most striking aspect of the dCo distribution in the ETSP is the very high concentrations present in the OMZ (Figs. 3–5). Similar distributions have been observed in both the North and South Atlantic, where >100 pM dCo plumes corresponded to low oxygen waters underneath the Benguela and Mauritanian upwelling systems (Noble et al., 2012; Noble and Saito, in prep). In the North Pacific, profiles from the Costa Rica Dome (Ahlgren et al., 2014), the California margin (Biller and Bruland, 2013; Knauer et al., 1982), and the Central Pacific along 155° W (Saito et al., 2014) support an OMZ-cobalt plume there as well. Based on measurements from these four OMZs, oxygen biogeochemistry seems to exert a major control on cobalt cycling throughout the oceans. It is interesting to note that the magnitude of the observed dCo plumes does not appear to scale with minimum O₂ between Atlantic and Pacific OMZs. While minimum O₂ in the Atlantic OMZs exceeds 20 μM, much of the ETSP is anoxic (Karstensen et al., 2008; Ulloa et al., 2012). Yet, dCo in the ETSP occupies a similar 100–200 pM range reported for the

North and South Atlantic OMZs (Noble et al., 2012; Noble and Saito, in prep). Clearly, other 409 factors besides O₂ alone contribute to large scale plumes of dissolved cobalt in the oceans. 410 411 In the following, we describe the oceanographic processes that lead to elevated dCo and LCo 412 413 concentrations in low-oxygen waters (Section 4.1). At the basin scale, the combined effects of remineralization and circulation link dCo with O₂ throughout the water column in the ETSP 414 415 (Section 4.1.1). The 'cobalt plume' in the OMZ, however, is more than an extrapolation of these 416 mechanisms, requiring a large coastal source (Section 4.1.2), and suppression of dCo scavenging 417 at very low O₂ (Section 4.1.3). The mechanism, magnitude, and redox sensitivity of the coastal 418 Co source are then examined in greater detail (Section 4.2). Finally, we highlight the scarcity of dCo – a critical micronutrient to phytoplankton – in the surface ocean of the South Pacific and 419 420 the dependence of surface ocean dCo supply on coastal sources (Section 4.3). 421 422 Between the Atlantic and Pacific basins, the magnitude of the observed dCo plumes does not 423 appear to scale with minimum O₂. While offshore O₂ in the Atlantic OMZs exceeds 20 µM, 424 425 much of the ETSP is anoxic (Karstensen et al., 2008; Ulloa et al., 2012): Winkler titrations of discreet samples measured on the GP16 cruise indicate minimum O2 to be <5 µM, while in situ 426 427 sensors suggest true concentrations in the ETSP can be even lower (Thamdrup et al., 2012). Yet, dCo in the ETSP occupies a similar 100-200 pM range reported for the North and South Atlantic 428 OMZs (Noble et al., 2012; Noble and Saito, in prep). Either the redox thresholds that affect 429 430 processes like water column scavenging or sedimentary release are met in the suboxic Atlantic as

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well as the anoxic Pacific, or the apparent evenness in dCo concentration between OMZs results 431 other factors besides O2 (e.g. continental sources, dust, remineralization). 432 433 4.1. Processes generating the OMZ cobalt plume in the Eastern South Pacific Ocean 434 4.1.1 Basin-scale remineralization and circulation couple dCo with O2 435 In the ETSP, tight coupling between dCo and O₂ is evident in the results in the strong, inverse 436 Formatted: Font: Bold 437 relationship that describes all samples below 200 m (Fig. 5a). In light of the nutrient-like dCo 438 depletion in the surface of the ETSP and elsewhere (Fig. 6, Ahlgren et al., 2014; Dulaquais et al., 439 2014b; Noble et al., 2012), this negative correlation might be attributed to remineralization: dCo is returned to the dissolved phase from a sinking biogenic phase following respiration (i.e. O₂ 440 consumption). The slope of the dCo:O₂ line (-0.33 μ M M⁻¹, R² = 0.75 for 200–5500 m) might 441 would then represent the biological stoichiometry of the exported organic material in the ETSP. 442 However, Co:P ratios in particulate material collected in the upper 50 m on GP16 indicate 443 greater phytoplankton cobalt utilization (median pCo:pP of 140 μ M M⁻¹ ÷ 118 O₂:P M M⁻¹ = 1.2 444 Co:O₂ μM M⁻¹; Fig. 13C; DeVries and Deutsch, 2014). If the dCo:O₂ trend is borne solely from 445 remineralization, a greater slope would be expected, implying removal of dCo by scavenging. 446 The linearity in the dCo:O₂ relationship is also not reproduced upon conversion of O₂ to apparent 447 oxygen utilization (AOU = $O_{2,saturation} - O_{2,measured}$, Fig. 5b, $R^2 = 0.49$), implying further 448 suggesting that other factors besides remineralization (such as circulation and scavenging) shape 449 450 the subsurface dCo distribution as well. 451 452 In the deep ocean, near-conservative mixing of dCo with high and low O₂-/high dCo water 453 masses with high O₂/low dCo water masses probably contributes to the observed dCo:O₂ Formatted: Subscript

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relationship. The enormous depth range (>5000 m) described by the linear dCo:O₂ relationship contrasts with the near-exponential decrease in remineralization rates with depth (e.g. Karstensen et al., 2008). It is likely that deep Pacific circulation acts to spread signals of local dCo remineralization throughout the water column, aggregating a multitude of export stoichiometries and remineralization processes into a single, coherent relationship across the basin. LCo is undetectable below ~2500 m and the shallower slope of the LCo: O_2 trend (-0.11 μ M M⁻¹, R² = 0.67, not shown) implies that the dCo:O₂ relationship is driven mostly by strongly complexed species, which are less vulnerable to co-oxidation by Mn-oxidizing bacteria in the water column (Moffett and Ho, 1996). Since the deep Pacific can be broadly regarded as a mixture of oxygenated circumpolar waters and OMZs (especially from the North Pacific), the linear dCo:O2 relationship between 200 and 5500 m may reflect mixing of a dCo pool that is largely inert to losses by scavenging. In the upper 200 m, dCo is not well coupled with O₂ and almost all samples fall above the line established by deeper samples (Fig. 5a). Near the South American margin, the dCo maximum in the upper OMZ is more than double-twice the dCo concentration expected by extrapolation of the basin-scale dCo:O₂ relationship to the 0 µM O₂ intercept of the dCo:O₂ relationship from deeper waters (77 pM, Fig. 5a). Given their resemblance The similarity of dCo profiles -to profiles of excess N₂ from denitrification from this region (e.g. Chang et al., 2010)(Chang et al., 2010), implies that it is likely that both the dCo maximum in the OMZ and its decrease with

depth are driven by factors that also affect nitrogen loss: namelya combination of in-situ

remineralization of sinking biogenic particles cobalt and lateral transport of coastal waters that

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experience high rates of denitrification and are also rich in dCo of a coastal cobalt source 476 (DeVries et al., 2012). 477 478 4.1.2 Distinct surface and mesopelagic Co:P relationships 479 In the upper ocean (0–200 m), dCo is linearly related to PO₄ (Figs. 5c-and 7b), indicating that the 480 481 processes controlling PO₄ in the surface – upwelling, mixing, biological uptake and export – are the main drivers of dCo as well. In the upper 50 m, the dCo:PO₄ slope (69 μ M:M, R² = 0.89, Fig. 482 483 7b) may describe export stoichiometry throughout the Eastern Pacific. That the surface dCo:-PO₄ 484 slope intercepts the highest dCo concentrations (below the 50 m depth range of the regression, 485 Fig. 5c, cyan line) indicates that new cobalt sourced from the shelf is rapidly incorporated into biological the biological cycleing and that the capacity for phytoplankton Co uptake is not 486 487 overwhelmed by the order of magnitude higher dCo in coastal waters relative to the open ocean. Culture experiments with model diatoms and coccolithophores demonstrate this capacity 488 489 (Shaked et al., 2006; Sunda and Huntsman, 1995; Yee and Morel, 1996), deploying Co to zinc enzymes to maintain activity when Zn becomes scarce. When Zn is limiting, Co quotas, as 490 judged by observed in open ocean phytoplankton (Sunda and Huntsman, 1992; Twining and 491 492 Baines, 2013), are 10–100x greater than Co quotas when Zn is replete (Sunda and Huntsman, 1992; Twining and Baines, 2013). Therefore, minor substitution of Zn quotas by Co (~10 %) can 493 double cellular Co levels in eukaryotes, resulting in nearly complete uptake of dCo from the 494 surface ocean. 495 496 497 A separate nutrient-like dCo:PO₄ trend arises from gradients of both elements in the open ocean 498 nutricline (Fig. 5c). The slope of the mesopelagic trend (16 µM:M, for 200–1000 m, red line in

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Fig. ure 5c) is much less than that measured for the upper 50 m (69 µM:M, cyan line). Due to considerable preformed PO₄ in deep waters, as well as elevated dCo:PO₄ ratios in the OMZ, the mesopelagic dCo:PO₄ regression is considerably less robust than in the surface ($R^2 = 0.21$), though the slope does reflect dCo and PO₄ covariation in this depth range when PO₄ is <-2 µM (Fig. 5c, red line). Regardless, there seems to be a fundamental mismatch between dCo:PO₄ from the upper water column (0–200 m) and that observed deeper (200–1000 m). -In the eastern margin, the surface and mesopelagic dCo:PO₄ vectors are joined at 2.6 μM PO₄ by a near-vertical line that makes the dCo:PO4 domain triangular. Interpretation of this line depends largely on its perceived direction: a downward vector can be a fingerprint of scavenging while an upward vector describes a cobalt source (Noble et al., 2008; Saito et al., 2010). This ambiguity is clarified by examining dCo:PO₄ gradients within isopycnal surfaces, which strongly indicate a source at low O_2 . In the ETSP, σ_{θ} 26.2 and 26.4 isopycnals host the upper OMZ and the oxygenated thermocline waters west of 100° W. Water masses on these surfaces can be distinguished on the basis of salinity; from the GP16 dataset, mixing between salty and deoxygenated equatorial sub-surface waters (ESSW or 13° C water) with fresher, ventilated Sub-Antarctic waters is apparent (Fiedler and Talley, 2006; Toggweiler et al., 1991). Oxygenated waters on $\sigma_{\theta} = 26.2$ and 26.4 show a tight coupling between dCo and PO₄ from remineralization of both elements (Fig. 8a). For samples with <-20 μM O₂, however, deviation from the oxic dCo:PO₄ trend is always positive, indicating a dCo source within the OMZ. When oxygen is low, dCo follows salinity (Fig. 8b). Mixing of high salinity (34.9–35.0), high dCo ESSW from the northeast with low salinity, low dCo Subantarctic waters explains the dCo:salinity covariation on these isopycnal surfaces. While ESSW is fed by the lower equatorial undercurrent

(EUC), which originates near Papua New Guinea and transports a large Fe and Al source eastward (Slemons et al., 2010), it is low in dCo (as measured at 155° W, Hawco and Saito, unpublished; Saito et al., 2014). When the EUC bifurcates near the Galapagos, it mixes with coastal waters north and south of the equator (Fiedler and Talley, 2006; Stramma et al., 2010), where its high dCo signature is likely acquired.

4.1.3 Suppression of cobalt scavenging in the OMZ

8b). This is not surprising given the slower rates of thermodynamic barriers to MnO₂ formation at low O₂ (Johnson et al., 1996; von Langen et al., 1997) and very low particulate Mn measured in the ETSP OMZ (Ohnemus et al. In PressFig. 9). In the OMZ, both pCo:pP and pMn:pP ratios in the OMZ are consistent with micronutrient use by microbial communities and resemble biomass collected in the euphotic zone on GP16 (Co:P = $0.5-4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M M}^{-1}$, Mn:P ~ 10^{-3} M M^{-1} , Ohnemus et al., In Review); Fig. 9, pink and cyan lines). These low, biomass-like pCo:pP and

pMn:pP signatures in the ETSP OMZ are consistent with thermodynamic and kinetic redox-

barriers to Mn oxidation at very low O₂ (Ohnemus et al., In Review).

The isopycnal dCo:salinity relationship also implies cobalt scavenging in the OMZ is low (Fig.

Crossing the anoxic/oxic transition at 100° W in the thermocline (σ_{θ} 26.2–27.0, centered at 300 m) results in a factor of ten higher pMn concentrations and implies a redox threshold to Mn oxidation in the mesopelagic (Fig. 9, blue circles). Heterotrophic Mn-oxidizing bacteria are known to incorporate Co by enzymatic co-oxidation into the Mn-oxide lattice and are prevalent throughout the water column (Cowen and Bruland, 1985; Moffett and Ho, 1996). While particulate Co profiles in the ETSP have a near-surface maximum from biological uptake (Fig.

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67c), pCo attenuates much less with depth than pP in oxic thermocline waters. Very high pCo:pP ratios (up to 10⁻³ M M⁻¹) are found in the oxygenated thermocline but not in the OMZ (σ_0 26.2—27.0, Fig. 9, pink circles). The coincidence of high pCo:pP and high pMn throughout the in the mesopelagic is consistent with pCo being present in an authigenic Mn-oxide phase, marking an important transition between nutrient-like cobalt cycling in the surface ocean (where pCo is almost entirely biogenic) to Mn-oxide driven scavenging at depth.

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The stimulation of cobalt scavenging across the anoxic/oxic transition at 100° W was also reflected in a sharp decrease in LCo:PO4 as scavenging removed LCo from the water column (Fig. 9, black circles). Indeed, the same oxygenated thermocline samples with high pMn and pCo:pP are responsible for the shallow vector gradual slope in dCo:PO₄ space (16 µM M⁻¹, Fig. 5c, red line). The offset between high surface and low mesopelagic dCo:PO₄ is mirrored by the lower surface and higher mesopelagic pCo:pP. While scavenging is often presumed to draw chiefly from metals in the dissolved phase, the heterotrophic nature of Mn-oxidizing bacteria and their abundance in sediment traps hint that Mn-oxidizing bacteria may access biogenic metal pools within sinking particles (Cowen and Bruland, 1985). In such a case, pCo may be shunted directly from a biogenic to an authigenic phase without being truly remineralized, preventing the equal return of dCo at depth relative to that exported from the surface, as documented here by the disparity between deep and shallow dCo:PO₄ slopes (Fig. 5c)14). An important consequence of mesopelagic scavenging is that ventilation of these waters by upwelling without an exogenous source (e.g. the continental marginmargin sediments) would create conditions whereby dCo, relative to PO₄, is not supplied to the same extent it is presently utilized and exported. Because these scavenged waters are relatively shallow and have short ventilation ages (Fiedler and Talley, 2006), fluxes of cobalt to the South Pacific from margin sources must be sufficiently rapidlarge enough to balance these scavenging losses.

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4.3 4.2 A major cobalt source from the Peruvian shelfmargin

4.2.1 Water column signatures of a dCo source

The strong covariation between high dCo and low O₂ in the ETSP and the intersection of the OMZ with the South American margin suggests that reducing sediments along the continental shelf may be an important cobalt source. Sections from the North and South Atlantic (Noble et al., 2012; Noble and Saito, in prep) and profiles from the North Pacific (Ahlgren et al., 2014; Knauer et al., 1982) have resulted in similar assertions, but the coincidence of high phytoplankton productivity along eastern margins also imprints signals from elevated remineralization. This is certainly the case for the ETSP, where Setations 2 and 3 on the Peru shelf featured >-1.5 μ g chlorophyll L⁻¹ in the euphotic layer, and >-4 μ M nitrite throughout the OMZ from intensified anoxic remineralization. As a result, the dCo profile in Peru shelf waters strongly resembles PO₄ and other nutrients above the oxycline (Fig. 10). Unlike PO₄, however, these shelf stations show a dCo maximum at the oxycline and decreasing concentrations with depth that more strongly resembles the Mn profile (Fig. 10), implying that additional process contribute to the dCo profile over the shelf. As a result, all but one station along the shelf shows a dCo maximum at the oxycline, rather than the benthic boundary layer (Fig. 10). The lone exception, Station 2, is also the most shoreward, having respective dCo and LCo maxima of 159 pM and 59 pM at the deepest depth (110 m), indicating a flux of cobalt to the water column.

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Positive correlations between dCo, LCo and dMn within the OMZ on the Peru shelf reflect a shared source (Fig. 11). The slope of the LCo:dMn relationship ($18 \pm 2 \text{ mM M}^{-1} \text{ R}^2 = 0.76$) is nearly identical to that in upper continental crust and Andesite (21–26 mM M⁻¹, McLennan, 2001; Taylor and McLennan, 1995), matching expectations that mineral dissolution should provide labile Co. However, the steeper slope for the dCo:dMn relationship $(42 \pm 5 \text{ mM M}^{-1} \text{ R}^2)$ = 0.67) exceeds crustal endmembers. Addition of a second, Co-enriched component is needed to explain the observed relationship. Given the massive productivity over the Peru shelf, biological export and remineralization of dCo and dMn in the OMZ is a reasonable cause for the high Co:Mn ratio in the shelf OMZ. From particulate material in the upper 40 m of shelf stations (1– 5), the average Co:Mn ratio in local biomass is between 100 and 110 mM M⁻¹ (median and mean), roughly 5 times higher than continental crust, and falling within the range reported for single cell analysis of phytoplankton cells from other regions (70-400 mM M⁻¹, Twining and Baines, 2013). The combination, then, of a high biotic Co:Mn and a lower ratio from a sedimentary source can produce the slope observed in the water column, but requires remineralized dCo to be chiefly ligand-bound in order to preserve the near-crustal LCo:Mn slope. The higher Co:Mn ratio in biomass relative to their shared sedimentary source also results in a nutrient trap that returns upwelled dCo to the OMZ more efficiently than dMn and implies that input of dCo from the shelf is rapidly followed by biological utilization, evident in the immediate transition from a dMn-like profile below the oxycline to a PO₄-like profile above it (Fig. 10).

	Water column observations of a large dCo source are also mirrored in the depleted Co contents
	of continental shelf sediments along the Peru margin. A survey of continental shelf sediments
	underlying the Peru OMZ found low Co/Al ratios ($1.2 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ g g}^{-1}$, Böning et al., 2004)
	relative to Andesitic and upper continental crusts (2.63 and 2.11 x 10 ⁻⁴ g g ⁻¹ respectively,
	McLennan, 2001; Taylor and McLennan, 1995), requiring that about half of the Co delivered to
	the continental shelf from crustal sources dissolved prior to <u>long-term</u> burial on the shelf. The
	only other element to have a similar depletion was Mn, which covaried with Co across all
	samples in the Böning et al. study, consistent with release of both metals by reductive
	dissolution. Yet the exact mechanism for dCo release is unclear: mass balance calculations for
	Mn indicate that diffusive fluxes from sediment porewaters on the Peru Shelf are much too slow
	to account for solid-phase Mn/Al deficits that accumulate in the sediment column (Scholz et al.
	2011). Therefore, most Mn is released prior to sedimentation on the margin, either by dissolving
	directly in the water column or through upstream release in estuaries. Since Co covaries with Mn
	in both dissolved and sediment phases (Fig. 11, Böning et al., 2004), the ultimate source of the
	dCo plume in the Peruvian OMZ may not be generated by diffusion from margin sediments
	either. Near surface Co and Mn content were slightly higher in the shallowest sediments (<150
	m water column depth) and uniformly low at deeper locations (Böning et al., 2004), implying
	that sedimentation outpaces dissolution of Co and Mn only in very shallow water columns and/or
	proximal to input, which explains the lack of dissolved benthic maxima for both elements
	beyond Station 2 (Fig. 10).
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	Positive correlations between dCo, LCo and dMn within the OMZ on the Peru shelf reflect a
	shared source (Figs. 10, 11). The slope of the LCo:dMn relationship, 18 ± 2 mM M ⁻¹ R ² = 0.76,

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is nearly identical to that in upper continental crust and Andesite (21-26 mM M⁻¹, McLennan, 2001; Taylor and McLennan, 1995), matching expectations that mineral dissolution should provide should provide labile Co. However, the steeper slope for the dCo:dMn relationship (42 ± 0.67) exceeds crustal endmembers. Addition of a second. Co enriched component is needed to explain the observed relationship. Given the massive productivity over the Peru shelf, biological export of dCo and dMn into the OMZ is a reasonable cause for the high Co:Mn ratio in the shelf OMZ. From particulate material in the upper 40 m of shelf stations (1 5), the Co:Mn ratio in biomass is 100 110 mM M⁻¹ (median and mean), -5 times higher than crust, and falling within the range reported for single cell analysis of phytoplankton cells (70-400 mM M⁻¹, Twining and Baines, 2013). The combination, then, of a high biotic Co:Mn and a lower ratio from a sedimentary source can produce the slope observed in the water column, but requires remineralized dCo to be chiefly ligand bound in order to preserve the near crustal LCo:Mn slope. The higher phytoplankton Co:Mn ratio relative to their shared sedimentary source results in a nutrient trap that returns upwelled dCo to the OMZ more efficiently than dMn and implies that input of dCo from the shelf is rapidly followed by biological utilization, demonstrated in the transition from a dMn like profile below the oxycline to a PO₄ like profile above it (Fig. 10).

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4.2.2 Potential redox sensitivity of coastal cobalt sources

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The Co/Al ratio in buried sediments on the continental shelf can provide a <u>coarse_eourse-</u>measure of how much Co has been released to the ocean. Sub-crustal Co/Al ratios in Peruvian sediments

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between 9-14° S (Böning et al., 2004) match similar measurements in Chilean OMZ sediments 658 at 36° S (Table 2, Co/Al = 1.3 ± 0.1 x 10^{-4} g g⁻¹, Table 2, Böning et al., 2009) and the Gulf of 659 California (1.4 x 10⁻⁴ g g⁻¹, Brumsack, 1989). The deficit between these values and continental 660 crust (2.11 x 10⁻⁴ g g⁻¹) implies that dissolution of crustal materials along the eastern margin 661 provides a large source of dCo and LCo to the Pacific. UltimatelyIn the absence of large 662 663 hydrothermal inputs (see Section 4.2.5, Swanner et al. 2014), this sourceburial of Co depleted 664 sediments on the margin -is needed to balance extremely high Co/Al ratios in Pacific pelagic 665 sediments, which collect Co scavenged from the water column (e.g Dunlea et al., 2015; Goldberg 666 and Arrhenius, 1958). 667 In contrast to depleted Co along the South American shelf, the Co/Al ratio inin shelf sediments 668 669 from the western margin of the Pacific appears crustal (Table 2). Holocene records from the Pearl River delta and shelf slope in the South China Sea ~20° N (Hu et al., 2012, 2013) show 670 mean Co/Al ratios of 2.2 and 2.1 x 10⁻⁴ g g⁻¹, respectively, similar to sediments from the Gulf of 671 Papua at 9° S (2.3 x 10⁻⁴ g g⁻¹, Alongi et al., 1996). Crustal Co/Al in these sedimentary systems 672 673 implies that most of the Co provided from fluvial sediment delivery either does not dissolve or is 674 quickly reburied by water column Mn oxidation, rates of which can be very high in estuaries and coastal seas (Moffett and Ho, 1996; Moffett, 1994; Sunda and Huntsman, 1987; Sunda and 675 Huntsman, 1990). 676 677 It is likely that oxidizing conditions in the water column and surface sediments prevent limit the 678 679 release of cobalt on reductive dissolution on the western margin, leading to crustal Co/Al ratios 680 in shelf sediments, while suboxic conditions on the eastern margin mobilize Co, evident in

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depleted Co/Al ratios observed there. Although sedimentary anoxia releases Co bound in Mn oxides, even a thin layer of O₂ penetration into sediments results in a near-zero diffusive flux into the water column (Heggie and Lewis, 1984). Indeed, El Niño-driven oxygenation events on the Peru shelf are associated with deposition of Mn-oxides in shallow sediments (Scholz et al. 2011). Bottom water deoxygenation restores Co fluxes to the water column (Johnson et al., 1988, Sundby et al., 1986), but Co is also incorporated into sulfide minerals can also precipitate, analogous to the 'Goldilocks' mechanisms for benthic Fe release where flux is maximized when redox conditions are low enough to promote oxide dissolution but still high enough to avoid pyrite burial (into which cobalt is incorporated and by analogy, CoS; Morse and Luther, 1999, Scholz et al., 2014). Cos Cobalt burial in pyrite is evident in high Co/Al content of Black Sea sediments (Brumsack, 2006) and sulfide-rich pockets of Namibian sediments near Walvis Bay $(2.9 \pm 0.7 \times 10^{-4} \text{ g g}^{-1})$, Borchers et al., 2005), despite more widespread Co/Al depletion in suboxic (but not sulfidic) terrigenous sediments underneath the Benguela upwelling region (Bremner and Willis, 1993). Prevailing suboxic conditions along the Namibian coast ultimately lead to an extensive dCo, dMn, and dFe plumes that reaches across the South Atlantic basin (Noble et al., 2012). Similarly, depleted sedimentary Co/Al on the Peruvian margin and high dCo in the water column perhaps reflect sustained anoxia that, in the present, is unlikely outside the domain of OMZs. Altogether, the accumulating evidence that the oceans' major OMZs harbor dCo plumes (Noble et al., 2012, Alhgren et al., 2014, Noble et al., in prep) indicates a strong chemical connection between the efficiency of dCo sources and local redox conditions where these OMZs interact with the continental margin. While reductive dissolution is the most likely mechanism at play,

whether this process predominantly occurs in estuaries, the OMZ water column, or margin sediments is presently unclear, but will ultimately dictate how the dCo source (and the resulting OMZ plumes) are affected by climate-driven changes in the size and intensity of OMZs (e.g. Scholz et al. 2011, 2014). As such, there is a significant need for future experimental and field studies that address the redox sensitivity of dCo and other metal fluxes from coastal environments.

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4.2.3 Comparing coastal sources with the OMZ cobalt plume

Can a terrigenous cobalt source account for the observed OMZ plume? Because lithogenic sediments along the Peru margin are delivered primarily by rivers (Scheidegger and Krissek, 1982), we can estimate a dCo flux to OMZ waters as the product of the fluvial sediment delivery to the continental shelf and the difference in Co/Al ratios between original rocks and buried shelf sediments:

718 Co flux
$$_{\text{suboxic}} = \left(\frac{\text{Co}}{\text{Al}_{\text{crust}}} - \frac{\text{Co}}{\text{Al}_{\text{suboxic sediments}}}\right) * \% \text{ Al} * F_{\text{fluvial}}$$
 (1)

where F_{fluvial} is the riverine flux of terrigenous sediments from Ecuador, Peru and Northern Chile to oxygen-depleted coastlines in the ETSP. If this supply is approximately 200 MT year⁻¹ (Lyle, 1981; Milliman and Farnsworth, 2011), the Co deficit in Peruvian sediments from Böning et al., 2004 corresponds to a 2.5–4.6 x 10⁷ mol per year flux from the South American shelf, depending on the crustal endmember applied (upper continental crust vs. andesite, Table 2). When scaled to the size of the ETSP OMZ (2.2 x 10⁶ km³ defined at 20 µM O₂, Fuenzalida et al., 2009) a terrigenous cobalt supply of 11–21 pM year⁻¹ would be expected.

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The extent to which the coastal flux and dCo inventory are in agreement depends on the residence time of OMZ waters. Models and CFC distributions from WOCE imply an approximately decadal recirculation time in OMZ waters relative to mesopelagic gyre circulation in the ETSP (Deutsch et al., 2001, 2011). Integrating our terrigenous Co flux estimate over 10 years yields an expected concentration of 120–230 pM within the OMZ. This is of similar magnitude, but greater than the concentrations measured on the GP16 transect (mean of 100 ± 30 pM). The difference between estimated and actual dCo inventories in the OMZ is probably due to upwelling and advection by surface currents, readily seen in the dCo section (Fig. 6), which carries the remainder to the gyre.

4.2.4 Comparison to atmospheric deposition

We can compare the calculated sedimentary flux to an expected flux from aerosol dust dissolution. Aeolian deposition is extremely low over the South Pacific basin (Mahowald et al., 2005), except immediately offshore of Peru, where dust from the Altiplano interacts with the prevailing northward winds (Prospero and Bonatti, 1969; Scheidegger and Krissek, 1982). Model results (Mahowald et al., 2005) suggest that deposition does not exceed 0.5 g m⁻² yr⁻¹, except very close to the coastline. Using this estimate, crustal cobalt abundances, and the aerial extent of the OMZ (9.8 x 10⁶ km², Fuenzalida et al., 2009), we can estimate the an-aerial flux of cobaltCo from dust to be 1.4 x 10⁶ mol-Co per year. A 10% fractional solubility for Co-cobalt (Shelley et al., 2012) indicates a soluble cobalt flux from dust of 0.065 pM dCo year⁻¹, ~0.5 % of the expected sedimentary flux. Over a decade, dust deposition accounts <-1 pM of the OMZ dCo plume. dCo profiles also lack surface maxima near shore despite corresponding features for

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dissolved Al and Mn at Stations 1 and 5 (Fig. 10, Resing et al., 2015). Fluvial sediment delivery to the margin, therefore, is a much more plausible source for the elevated dCo in the ETSP OMZ.

4.2.54 An inefficient cobalt source in hydrothermal vents

Hydrothermal venting along the Eastern Pacific Rise (EPR) provides a major source of dFe and dMn to the deep South Pacific (Resing et al., 2015) where nanomolar concentrations of both metals were measured between 2000–3000 m at the ridge crest and concentrations exceeded background values for several thousand kilometers westward. In contrast, dCo concentrations are only slightly elevated at the ridge crest (Station 18, Fig. 312), reaching 36 pM at 2400m (against a background of ~25 pM); at the same station, dFe and dMn both exceeded 15 nM (background <1 nM, Fig. 12a). Unambiguous hydrothermal input is evident from the LCo profile, which peaks at 14 pM at the dCo maximum (Fig. 12b), roughly consistent with a 10,000-fold dilution of high temperature endmember sources containing 100–1000 nM dCo (Lupton et al., 1985; Metz and Trefry, 2000).

However, both dCo and LCo maxima are offset from dFe and dMn plumes. At Setation 18, dFe and dMn peak at 2500–2600 m. At this depth, LCo is undetectable and dCo values are at – or slightly lower than – background levels (Fig. 12b), suggesting that Mn and/or Fe scavenging in the heart of the hydrothermal plume has removed most of the hydrothermal Co from the water column before being transported away from the ridge crest (Fig. 12). Indeed, Co is strongly associated with Mn phases in near-axis metalliferous sediment in the EPR at 14° S (Dunk and Mills, 2006). The position of the LCo maximum above the dMn and dFe maxima probably reflects lower scavenging rates outside the main plume, which may spare a fraction of the

hydrothermal Co source from an otherwise immediate and total removal. Even without scavenging losses, global hydrothermal Co fluxes (2.2 Mmol year⁻¹; Swanner et al., 2014) are 10–25x less than our estimated source from the Peru Shelf alone, highlighting the importance of upper ocean sources in maintaining the dCo inventory.

4.35 Cobalt scarcity in the euphotic zone

4.3.1 The South Pacific gGyre

The combination of eastern boundary upwelling and a continental source produces large dCo gradients across the surface of the South Pacific Ocean (Fig. 6a13). Westward, decreasing surface dCo results from phytoplankton uptake and export, reflected in strong correlations with PO4, as well as mixing with low dCo waters from the subtropical gyre. It is interesting to note that the intercept for the dCo:PO4 relationship is negative (-12.8 ± 2.6 µM M⁻¹, Fig. 7b); cobalt was depleted before PO4. This is opposite to what was observed in the Sargasso Sea, where extreme PO4 scarcity results in a positive dCo:PO4 intercept (Jakuba et al., 2008). The dCo nutricline in the South Pacific gyre (~200 m, Figs. -3, 6) is also deeper than corresponding features in the North and South Atlantic (Noble et al., 2012; Noble and Saito, in prep). Because winter mixed layers in the tropical South Pacific generally does not exceed 100 m and strong haloclines separate the oxygen minimum layer from the surface (Fiedler and Talley, 2006), convective overturn does not reach the dCo nutricine at 150–250 m. Low vertical cobalt supply makes the South Pacific gyre an interesting counterpoint counterpart to the Sargasso Sea, which experiences deep winter mixed layersmixing and higher dCo (10–30 pM, Dulaquais et al., 2014b; Jakuba et al., 2008; Noble and Saito, in prep), and emphasizes the importance of lateral

supply mechanisms, especially eastern boundary upwelling, in maintaining the surface dCo inventory of the tropical Pacific (Fig. 6, Saito et al., 2004).

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While productivity in the South Pacific is thought to be limited by scarcity of iron and nitrogen (Moore et al., 2013; Saito et al., 2014), the extremely low dCo measured here implies that it may be important as well. Because marine cyanobacteria such as *Prochlorococcus* and Synechococcus have an absolute Co requirement (Saito et al., 2002; Sunda and Huntsman, 1995), they are vulnerable to limitation. Indeed, a Synechococcus bloom in the Costa Rica Dome was found to be co-limited by both iron and cobalt (Saito et al., 2005). Despite dCo concentrations below 10 pM (sometimes below the 3 pM detection limit), the South Pacific gyre contains a significant Prochlorococcus population – evident in the high proportion of divinyl chlorophyll A to total chlorophyll (Fig. 13ab). As LCo was undetectable beyond 100° W, biological uptake must occur either by accessing strongly bound dCo or through fast recycling of LCo at very low steady-state concentrations. On GP16, particulate Co concentrations in the upper 50 m were steady (3.5 ± 1.2 pM) and mostly reflect Co bound in biomass (Ohnemus et al., In Press), sometimes rivaling and sometimes equaled dissolved cobalt concentrations (Fig. 13b). Compared to low pCo:dCo ratios observed in the South Atlantic (<1:12, Noble et al., 2012), the high ratio in the South Pacific gyre (~1:3, Fig. 13ba) indicates that resident *Prochlorococcus* are extremely well-adapted to widespread dCo scarcity and that efficient recycling of biogenic pCo may be crucial to survival of Prochlorococcus and other cyanobacteria (e.g. Synechococcus, Ahlgren et al. 2014) in the face of widespread dCo scarcity. y.

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4.3.2 Depletion of labile dissolved cobalt in the Peru Upwelling Ecosystem

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Unlike its near uniform relationship with dCo in the underlying OMZ, LCo measured on GP16 is low relative to dCo in the surface ocean (0-50 m), especially along the Peru Margin (Figs. -76a, 13cb, 13e). This might result either from microbial production of cobalt ligands – as observed in a Synechococcus-dominated community in the Costa Rica Dome (Saito et al., 2005) and with cultured Prochlorococcus strains (Saito et al. 2002) - or if LCo is the preferred species for uptake. The latter has been demonstrated in culture with model eukaryotic algae (Sunda and Huntsman, 1995), where free Co ion is acquired by high affinity Zn-transporters. Because the Peru upwelling region is dominated by diatoms (Bruland et al., 2005), preferential uptake of free Co ion by these organisms is realistic and is corroborated by a strong correlation between LCo and dissolved silicate (Si) in the upper 50 m of the section ($R^2 = 0.90$, Fig. 7c). As a result of diatom-driven export, LCo in shelf surface waters is nearly depleted (1-12 pM) despite high concentrations of dCo (40–80 pM, Fig. 13c). Very low surface LCo at 12° S on GP16 contrasts with previous observations showing high concentrations of LCo in the Peru upwelling region during August–September 2000 (Saito et al., 2004). Between 5–10° S, much higher surface dCo was measured in freshly upwelled waters (up to 315 pM) and dCo was >50 % labile in surface transects (Saito et al., 2004). Surface dFe during August-September 2000 was also higher between 5–10° S than on GP16 at 12° S (Bruland et al., 2005; Resing et al., 2015). Decreasing surface dFe from North to South followed decreasing gradients in shelf width and fluvial sediment supply (Bruland et al., 2005; Milliman and Farnsworth, 2011), implying that the high dFe was due to stronger benthic sources to the North. Because coastal sources are expected to provide labile cobalt (e.g. Fig 11), the high concentrations of LCo measured between 5–10° S during August-September 2000 indicate a similar gradient in coastal dCo input and LCo availability in surface waters.

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Spatial and temporal variability of margin dCo sources may ultimately affect carbon flow through the Peru upwelling ecosystem. Considering the very low dissolved Zn in surface waters on GP16 (<100 pM east of 90° W, S. John personal communication) and that >95 % of the dZn is typically complexed by organic ligands (Bruland, 1989), coastal diatoms in the off of Peru upwelling region may be subject to diffusion limitation when free Zn ion falls below a 1–10 pM threshold (Sunda and Huntsman, 1992). Because Co can replace Zn in carbonic anhydrase enzymes (Sunda and Huntsman, 1995; Yee and Morel, 1996), LCo supplied from the margin may maintain fast rates of carbon fixation and export in the Peru Upwelling region despite low dZn. The relatively low concentrations measured on GP16, however, imply that the LCo supply may not always be sufficient.

5. Conclusions

A schematic of the cobalt cycle in the Eastern Tropical South Pacific Ocean – and how these processes lead to covariation of dissolved cobalt with O2 and PO4 – is shown in Figure 14. High dCo and LCo on the Peru shelf match depleted Co content reported in Peru shelf sediments and indicate a large source to the water column (Böning et al., 2004). Correlations between dMn and LCo in anoxic shelf waters, and crust-like Co/Al ratios in oxic western boundary sediments suggest that margin cobalt sources are redox sensitive and that the sustained presence of the OMZ on the Peru margin amplifies coastal Co fluxes. The high dCo within the OMZ also-leads to a large flux to the surface ocean by upwelling along the Peru margin, where it is readily accessed by phytoplankton. The significance of cobalt as a micronutrient is emphasized by strong correlations with phosphate throughout the surface ocean. Strong correlations with

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phosphate across the surface ocean emphasize its significance as a micronutrient. Preferential uptake of LCo over the Peru shelf by diatoms generates a linear relationship with silicate and Co may be critical to sustaining carbonic anhydrase activity and CO₂ fixation during blooms. The basin scale association between high dCo and low O₂ throughout the GP16 section testifies to the importance of redox chemistry andof remineralization in maintaining the dCo distribution in the Eastern South Pacific (Fig. 14). High dCo and LCo on the Peru shelf match depleted Co content reported in Peru shelf sediments and indicate a large source to the water column (Böning et al., 2004). Correlations between dMn and LCo in anoxic shelf waters, and crust-like Co/Al ratios in oxic western boundary sediments suggest that margin cobalt sources are redox sensitive and that the sustained presence of the OMZ on the Peru margin amplifies coastal Co fluxes. Additionally, low oxygen in offshore OMZ waters suppresses particulate Mn accumulation and Co scavenging, evident in isopycnal dCo salinity relationshipscontributing to the OMZ cobalt plume. When mixing introduces sufficient O2 to stabilize Mn oxides, high particulate Co:P ratios in the mesopelagic accompany 10 fold higher particulate Mn. Scavenging in oxic mesopelagic waters limits the full return of Co to the dissolved phase during remineralization, resulting in low dissolved Co:P ratios relative to that biomass exported from the euphotic zone (Fig. 14). Oxidative scavenging also seems to limit the flux of Co from hydrothermal venting over the East Pacific rise, further emphasizing the Peru margin as the most important Co source to the South Pacific.

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phosphate across the surface ocean emphasize its significance as a micronutrient. Preferential uptake of LCo over the Peru shelf by diatoms generates a linear relationship with silicate and Co may be critical to sustaining earbonic anhydrase activity and CO2 fixation during blooms. Given that deep nutriclines in the South Pacific Gyre limit dCo supply from vertical mixing outside of the upwelling zone, phytoplankton Co nutrition depends largely on lateral supply from the Eastern Margin. Ultimately, the dCo inventory in the South Pacific – and its availability to surface phytoplankton - may be changing considerably as the size and intensity of the OMZ fluctuates. Recent warming and stratification appear to have expanded the volume of low oxygen waters in the tropics (Stramma et al., 2008, 2010). As such, dCo inventories may increase as lower O2 hinders mesopelagic Mn oxide production and scavenging. However, decreased wind-driven upwelling and carbon export may cause anoxic waters along the shelf to contract (Deutsch et al., 2011, 2014) and decrease the efficiency of the coastal dCo sourceCo flux from coastal sediments. Changes in the dCo inventory then depend on the relative redox sensitivities of the margin Co sources versus offshore scavenging in the mesopelagic, neither of which are is well understood. Considering the 100–200 year residence time of Co in the ocean (Saito and Moffett, 2002), feedbacks on the surface dCo supply may manifest more quickly than for other nutrients and may alleviate or exacerbate any existing Co limitation. Improved definition of biological Co limitation thresholds and efforts to reconstruct the Co cycle in past climates may resolve whether future changes in OMZ structure will have meaningful impacts on phytoplankton nutrition in the coming century.

910	Author Contributions
911	NJH, DCO and JAR participated on the EPZT cruise. NJH measured dCo and LCo. JAR
912	measured dMn; DCO and BST measured particulate Co, Mn, and P. NJH and MAS prepared the
913	manuscript with contributions from all authors.
914	
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1193 **Table 1.** Blanks and standards used during analyses.

	٩	Co, pM	+/-	n	Consensus
At sea	Blank	3.7	1.2	28	
Oct – Dec,	Lab SW <u>*</u>	4.5	2.1	28	
2013	D1	48.5	2.4	3	46.6 +/- 4.8
At WHOI,	Blank	4.7	1.4	12	
Sept – Nov,	GSP	2.5	2.0	10	4.9 +/-
2014					1.2**
	D2	45.0	2.7	7	46.9 +/- 3.0
	GSC	77.7	2.4	4	***

*Collected from South Pacific surface seawater, collected Nov. 2011

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Table 2. Co/Al ratios in sediments from different redox regimes.

Location	Co-/-Al x 10	⁴ (g g <mark>-1-1</mark> -)	Reference	
Crust				
Upper continental crust	2.11		McLennan 2001	
Andesitic crust	2.63		Taylor and McLennan 1995	
Eastern Boundary sediments				
Peru Upwelling Sedimen	ts 1.2 ± 0.3	9–14° S	Boning et al. 2004	
Chile upwelling Sedimer	its 1.3 ± 0.1	36° S	Boning et al. 2009	
Gulf of California	1.4	<u>22–30° N</u>	Brumsack 1989	
Namibian Shelf	1.0 ± 0.3	17-25° S, 'Terrigenous'	Bremner and Willis 1993	
Sulfidic Sediments				
Namibian diatom belt	2.9 ± 0.7	Near Walvis Bay, 22.5° S	Borchers et al. 2005	
Black Sea	3.8-6.2	•	Brumsack 2006	
Western Boundary Sediments				

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^{**}Refers to SAFe standard S, which was collected at the same location as GSP

^{***}No consensus

Papua New Guinea	2.3	8° S, Gulf of Papua	Alongi et al. 1996				
Pearl River Delta	2.2 ± 0.4	22° N, (10-0 ka)	Hu et al. 2013				
South China Sea Shelf Slope	2.1 ± 0.2	20° N, 2037m (14-0 ka)	Hu et al. 2012				
Deep Ocean Sediments							
South Pacific Gyre	35 (2.9-101)	22° S-32° S, 100-0 Ma	Dunlea et al. 2015				
Pelagic Pacific	17 (2-58)	50° N-20° S	Goldberg and Arrhenius 1958				

Figure Captions

the exception of Station 1.

Figure 1. The GP16 transect in the tropical South Pacific. Red circles indicate sampling stations. Dissolved oxygen at a depth of 300 m from the WOCE dataset is plotted in blue and 10 μ M contours are shown between 0–60 μ M O_2 . Station number increases sequentially westward, with

Figure 2. Signal processing of voltammetry scans. Varying instrumental noise imprinted negative current excursions during measurement and necessitated data smoothing to correctly integrate measure the Co(DMG)₂ reduction peak at -1.15 V. For mild (a) and moderate (b) noise levels, a 2nd order, 17-point smoothing was applied (red line, 97 % of scans). Increases in noise

caused this routine to overestimate peak height (c, red line) and a first order, 13-point smoothing

was applied instead (~3 % of scans, blue line).

Figure 3. Profiles of dissolved cobalt (dCo, closed circles), labile <u>dissolved</u> cobalt (LCo, open circles) and O₂ (grey lines) across the South Pacific. Upper panels show a 0–1000 m depth range; bottom panel show full profiles. dCo and LCo are highest close to the Peru Margin (Station 1) and decrease westward. O₂ follows the opposite trend. The small peak at 2400 m at Station 18 shows peak hydrothermal input from the East Pacific Rise. Note that the dCo and LCo scales in the upper panel are adjusted to highlight gradients and differ from the lower panels.

Figure 4. Dissolved oxygen (a), dissolved cobalt (b) and labile $\underline{\text{dissolved}}$ cobalt (c) sections along GP16, projected on a longitudinal axis. Note high dCo and LCo stem from the Peru margin and overlap with the low O_2 . Interpolations were made using Ocean Data View with DIVA gridding, with negative gridded values suppressed. The signal to noise ratio was set to 15 for dissolved $\underline{\text{cobalt}}$ and labile $\underline{\text{dissolved}}$ cobalt. Signal to noise for O_2 was set to the default, 50.

Figure 5. Coupling between dissolved cobalt with O₂ (a), AOU (b), and PO₄ (c). Below 200 m (red circles), dCo shows a decreasing linear trend with dissolved oxygen that is obscured upon conversion of O₂ to apparent oxygen utilization, AOU, and a weak relationship with PO₄. In the surface ocean (upper 0–50200 m₂ (cyanblue circles), dCo and PO₄ are strongly coupled but dCo shows no relationship with O₂ or AOU. Samples from 50–200 m are plotted in blue. Trend lines in (c) show least-squares regressions of dCo and PO₄. (0–50 m, cyan; 50–200 m, blue; 200–1000 m, red). Also plotted is the median best fit for 0–50 m in-particulate Co:P ratio for 0–50 m (146 μM M⁻¹, dotted line)₂, Major 0–50 m dissolved Co:P (69 μM M⁻¹, blue line, see Fig. 7b) and 200–1000 m regression for dissolved Co:P (16 μM M⁻¹, red line). pProcesses affecting these plots are described in vector legends.

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Figure 6. Dissolved cobalt (a), labile <u>dissolved</u> cobalt (b), and particulate cobalt (c) gradients in the upper 500 m of the ETSP. White lines in both panels show dissolved PO₄ contours at 0.5 μM increments. Interpolation was conducted using weight averaged gridding with 40 and 46 ‰ length scales in the x and y directions, respectively.

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Figure 7. (a) The relationship between dissolved cobalt (dCo) and labile cobalt (LCo) in the South Pacific. LCo increases linearly with dCo with a slope of 0.33 (black dots, $R^2 = 0.88$), except for the upper 50 m (red dots), where samples fall below this trend due to preferential depletion of LCo by phytoplankton. (b) In the 0-50 m range, dCo strongly correlates with phosphate ($R^2 = 0.89$). (c) LCo is preferentially removed from surface waters (0–50 m) and tracks silicate ($R^2 = 0.90$). Figure 8. Transition in dCo cycling at the OMZ boundary in the upper South Pacific thermocline. (a) Isopycnal windows centered at $\sigma_{\theta} = 26.2 \pm 0.1$ kg m⁻³ (circles) and $\sigma_{\theta} = 26.4 \pm 0.1$ 0.1 kg m⁻³ (triangles) show PO₄-coupled cycling in oxygenated waters (blue) but not in OMZ waters with $\frac{O_2}{<}$ (red). (b) In the OMZ, dCo follows salinity, indicating mixing between a high dCo endmember at a salinity of 35.0 and a fresher water mass that is low in dCo. **Figure 9.** Redox control of Co and Mn scavenging. Within mesopelagic waters ($\sigma_{\theta} = 26.2-27.0$ kg m⁻³, mean depth of 300 m), high O₂ in ventilating water masses result in a sharp redox boundary at the edge of the OMZ (red circles, scale in µM). Particulate Mn (pMn) increases across the oxic/anoxic boundary at 100° W (blue circles, in nM) and imply stabilization of Mn oxides. Both pMn:pP and pCo:pP (cyan and pink circles, respectively; units are M M⁻¹) increase across the OMZ boundary, exceeding predicted values from remineralization of biogenic material from the surface ocean (1.26 x 10⁻³ mean pMn:pP and 1.57 x 10⁻⁴ pCo:pP for 0–50 m (M M⁻¹), cyan and pink lines, respectively). Dissolved phase dCo:dPO₄ (black circles) and LCo:PO₄ (white circles) also decrease west of the OMZ boundary show scavenging of the dCo and LCo in the mesopelagic (units are M M⁻¹).

Figure 10. Profiles of dissolved cobalt (dCo, black), PO_4 (red) and dMn (blue) over the Peru shelf at 12° S. The oxycline (grey bar, defined by the first sample where $O_2 < \le 10 \,\mu\text{M}$) marks the transition between the OMZ and oxygenated surface waters. Station 2 is the closest to the coast. Note the similarity between dCo and PO_4 above the oxycline and the transition to a dMn-like profile beneath-it.

Figure 11. Cobalt and Mn in the Peru shelf OMZ (GP16 Stations 1–5, O₂ €20 uM). Dissolved cobalt (dCo, closed circled) and labile cobalt (LCo, white) follow positive linear relationships with dMn. The LCo slope (18 mM M⁻¹) approximates the Co:Mn ratio in upper continental crust and Andesite (red and pink lines 21 and 26 mM M⁻¹, respectively), suggesting it derives from a shelf crustal source. The mean pCo:pMn ratio from phytoplankton dominated particles collected in the upper 40 m over the shelf (blue line, 105 mM M⁻¹) is greater than dCo:dMn slope (42 mM M⁻¹), indicating that dCo and dMn concentrations in the Peru shelf OMZ represent a combination of biomass remineralization and sedimentary input.

Figure 12. Profiles from Station 18 at the East Pacific Rise ridge crest at 113 °W, 15 °S. (a) dMn (blue lines) and dFe profiles (red) replotted from Resing et al. 2015 clearly show hydrothermal input. Grey shading below 2250 m indicates area of hydrothermal influence where dFe and dMn are >1 nM. (ba) Dissolved cobalt (dCo, black circles) and labile cobalt (LCo, white) in the East Pacific Rise hydrothermal plume.

Profiles are from Station 18 at the EPR ridge crest at 113 °W. (b) dMn (blue lines) and dFe profiles (red) replotted from Resing et al. 2015 clearly show hydrothermal input. Grey shading below 2250 m indicates area of hydrothermal influence where dFe and dMn are >1 nM.

Figure 13. (ab) The ratio of divinyl chlorophyll A to total chlorophyll (green circles), an indication proxy for of *Prochlorococcus* abundance relative to other phytoplankton. (ba) The particulate to dissolved ratio of cobalt (pCo:dCo, in M M⁻¹, pink circles) in near-surface samples (0–50m) measured on GP16; a value of 1 indicates equal concentrations in each phase. (b) The ratio of divinyl chlorophyll A to total chlorophyll (green circles), a proxy for *Prochlorococcus* abundance. (c) The near-surface distribution of dissolved cobalt (dCo, black circles) and labile cobalt (LCo, white circles), showing higher concentrations near the Peru margin (<80° W) and very low dCo to the west.

Figure 14. SA schematic cross-section of the cobalt cycle in the Eastern Tropical South Pacific. Black arrows describe idealized physical circulation, showing upwelling near the Peru margin, advection westward and subduction in the South Pacific gyre. Biological Co export is shown in the red-hashed arrows, and solid and dashed red arrows show remineralization and scavenging respectively. The margin source is shown as a red-outlined arrow. These vectors are also plotted on idealized oxygen and phosphate axes, using the same color scheme, to show how these processes appear in Co:O₂ and Co:PO₄ space.