

1 **Effects of ²³⁸U variability and physical transport on water column**

2 **²³⁴Th downward fluxes in the coastal upwelling system off Peru**

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15 **Abstract**

16 The eastern boundary region of the southeastern Pacific Ocean hosts one of the world's most
17 dynamic and productive upwelling systems with an associated oxygen minimum zone (OMZ).
18 The variability in downward export fluxes in this region, with strongly varying surface
19 productivity, upwelling intensities and water column oxygen content, is however poorly
20 understood. Thorium-234 (^{234}Th) is a powerful tracer to study the dynamics of export fluxes
21 of carbon and other elements, yet intense advection and diffusion in nearshore environments
22 impact the assessment of depth-integrated ^{234}Th fluxes when not properly evaluated. Here we
23 use VmADCP current velocities, satellite wind speed and *in situ* microstructure measurements
24 to determine the magnitude of advective and diffusive fluxes over the entire ^{234}Th flux budget
25 at 25 stations from 11°S to 16°S in the Peruvian OMZ. Contrary to findings along the
26 GEOTRACES P16 eastern section, our results showed that weak surface wind speed during
27 our cruises induced low upwelling rates and minimal upwelled ^{234}Th fluxes, whereas vertical
28 diffusive ^{234}Th fluxes were important only at a few shallow shelf stations. Horizontal
29 advective and diffusive ^{234}Th fluxes were negligible because of small alongshore ^{234}Th
30 gradients. Our data indicated a poor correlation between seawater ^{238}U activity and salinity.
31 Assuming a linear relationship between the two would lead to significant underestimations of
32 the total ^{234}Th flux by up to 40% in our study. Proper evaluation of both physical transport
33 and variability in ^{238}U activity is thus crucial in coastal ^{234}Th flux studies. Finally, we showed
34 large temporal variations on ^{234}Th residence times across the Peruvian upwelling zone, and
35 cautioned future carbon export studies to take these temporal variabilities into consideration
36 while evaluating carbon export efficiency.

37 **Keywords:** eastern tropical South Pacific, ^{234}Th tracer, uranium-salinity correlation, physical
38 processes, residence time

39 1. Introduction

40 Isotopes of thorium (Th) are widely used as tracers for particle cycling in the oceans
41 (Waples et al., 2006). In particular, ^{234}Th has been extensively used to trace particle dynamics
42 and export fluxes in the upper ocean, and to quantify the marine budgets of important macro-
43 and micronutrients such as carbon (C), nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P) and iron (Fe) (e.g. Bhat
44 et al., 1968; Buesseler et al., 1992; Coale and Bruland, 1987; Lee et al., 1998; Le Moigne et
45 al., 2013; Cochran and Masqué, 2003; Van Der Loeff et al., 2006; Black et al., 2019). ^{234}Th
46 has a relatively short half-life ($\tau_{1/2} = 24.1$ days) that allows studies of biological and physical
47 processes occurring on timescales of days to weeks. Unlike its radioactive parent uranium-238
48 (^{238}U , $\tau_{1/2} = 4.47$ Ga) that is soluble in seawater, ^{234}Th is highly particle reactive with a
49 particle-water partition coefficient of 10^3 to 10^8 (Santschi et al., 2006 and references therein)
50 and is thus strongly scavenged by particles (Bhat et al., 1968). Generally, a deficit of ^{234}Th
51 relative to ^{238}U is observed in the surface ocean and reflects net removal of ^{234}Th due to
52 particle sinking, whereas secular equilibrium between ^{234}Th and ^{238}U is observed for
53 intermediate and deep waters. Integrating this surface ^{234}Th deficit with depth yields the
54 sinking flux of ^{234}Th and, if elemental: ^{234}Th ratios are known, the sinking flux of elements
55 such as C, N, P, Si and trace metals (e.g. Bhat et al., 1968; Buesseler et al., 1998; Buesseler et
56 al., 1992; Coale and Bruland, 1987; Weinstein and Moran, 2005; Buesseler et al., 2006;
57 Owens et al., 2015; Black et al., 2019; Puigcorbé et al., 2020).

58 Various ^{234}Th models have been put forward to study adsorption/desorption,
59 aggregation and export, but single box models that assume negligible ^{234}Th fluxes due to
60 physical transport are commonly used to calculate oceanic ^{234}Th -derived particle fluxes (see
61 detailed review by Savoye et al., 2006). This assumption is typically appropriate in open
62 ocean settings where ^{234}Th fluxes due to advection and diffusion are small relative to the
63 downward fluxes of ^{234}Th associated with particle sinking. However, in upwelling regions

64 such as the equatorial Pacific and coastal systems, advective and diffusive ^{234}Th fluxes may
65 become increasingly important (e.g., Bacon et al., 1996; Buesseler et al., 1998; Buesseler et
66 al., 1995; Dunne and Murray, 1999). For example, in the equatorial Pacific, strong upwelling
67 post El-Niño could account for ~50% of the total ^{234}Th fluxes (Bacon et al., 1996; Buesseler
68 et al., 1995). Ignoring the upwelling term could thus lead to an underestimation of ^{234}Th
69 fluxes by a factor of 2. Conversely, horizontal diffusion carrying recently upwelled, ^{234}Th -
70 replete waters has been shown to balance the upwelled ^{234}Th fluxes in the central equatorial
71 Pacific (Dunne and Murray, 1999). To the contrary, advective and diffusive ^{234}Th fluxes were
72 minimal off the Crozet Islands in the Southern Ocean due to limited horizontal ^{234}Th
73 gradients, long residence time of water masses, and low upwelling rates and diffusivities
74 (Morris et al., 2007).

75 The dynamic nature of coastal processes requires that physical terms should be
76 included in ^{234}Th flux calculation whenever possible. Accurate measurements of current
77 velocities and diffusivities are however challenging and thus direct observations of the effects
78 of physical processes on ^{234}Th distributions in coastal regions are scarce. Limited studies have
79 incorporated advection and diffusion in the nearshore zones of the Arabian Sea (Buesseler et
80 al., 1998), Gulf of Maine (Gustafsson et al., 1998; Benitez-Nelson et al., 2000), the South
81 China Sea (Cai et al., 2008) and Peruvian oxygen minimum zone (OMZ) (Black et al., 2018).
82 In the Arabian Sea, coastal upwelling during the southwest monsoon season could account for
83 over 50% of the total ^{234}Th flux (Buesseler et al., 1998). Horizontal advection has been shown
84 to be substantial in the Inner Cosco Bay of the Gulf of Maine (Gustafsson et al., 1998),
85 whereas offshore advection and diffusion are only important in late summer (Benitez-Nelson
86 et al., 2000). Therefore, the importance of physical processes on the ^{234}Th flux estimate is
87 highly dependent on the seasonal and spatial variability of the current velocities, diffusivities
88 and ^{234}Th gradients. In terms of the Peruvian OMZ, Black et al. (2018) showed that coastal

89 upwelling accounts for >50% of total ^{234}Th fluxes at 12°S ; however, how upwelling ^{234}Th
90 fluxes vary seasonally and spatially in this region is unclear.

91 Another uncertainty in ^{234}Th flux calculations in such region stems from variations on
92 dissolved ^{238}U activities. Generally speaking, U behaves conservatively under open ocean
93 oxic conditions and is linearly correlated with salinity (Chen et al., 1986; Ku et al., 1977;
94 Owens et al., 2011). However, numerous studies have shown that such correlation breaks
95 down in various marine environments including the tropical Atlantic (Owens et al., 2011),
96 Mediterranean Sea (Schmidt and Reys, 1991), and Arabian Sea (Rengarajan et al., 2003).
97 Although it is generally accepted that deviations from the linear ^{238}U -S correlation will lead to
98 differences in the final calculated ^{234}Th fluxes, there is currently little knowledge on how
99 significant these differences could be.

100 In this study, we report vertical profiles of ^{234}Th and ^{238}U along four transects
101 perpendicular to the coastline of Peru (i.e. shelf-offshore transects). We evaluate the ^{238}U -S
102 correlation in low-oxygen waters and how deviations from this correlation impact final ^{234}Th
103 flux estimates. We also assess the spatial and temporal importance of advection and diffusion
104 on ^{234}Th flux estimates.

105

106 **2. Sampling and methods**

107 2.1 Seawater sampling and analysis

108 Seawater samples were collected at 25 stations along 4 shelf-offshore transects
109 between 11°S and 16°S in the Peruvian OMZ during two cruises M136 and M138 on board
110 the RV Meteor (Figure 1). Cruise M136 took place in austral autumn (April 11 to May 3,
111 2017) along two main transects at 12°S and 14°S (Dengler and Sommer, 2017). Two stations
112 from M136 (stations 458 and 495) were reoccupied within a week (repeat stations 508 and

113 516, respectively) to evaluate the steady-state assumption in the ^{234}Th flux calculation. The
114 surface sample of the repeat station 508 (reoccupied 4.5 days after station 458) was missing so
115 only results from repeat stations 495 and 516 (occupation interval 1.5 days) were compared
116 and discussed in terms of the non-steady state model (section 3.3). ^{234}Th sampling during
117 cruise M138 was carried out in austral winter (June 1 to July 4, 2017) and focused on four
118 shelf-offshore transects at 11°S , 12°S , 14°S and 16°S .

119 At each station, a stainless-steel rosette with Niskin bottles (Ocean Test Equipment[®])
120 was deployed for sampling of total ^{234}Th in unfiltered seawater and dissolved ^{238}U ($0.2\ \mu\text{m}$
121 pore size, Acropak[®] polycarbonate membrane). High vertical resolution sampling was
122 performed in the upper 200 m where most of the biological activity occurs; additional depths
123 were sampled down to 600 m, or 50 m above the seafloor. Deep seawater at 1000 m, 1500 m,
124 and 2000 m was sampled at three stations to determine the absolute β counting efficiency.
125 Salinity, temperature, oxygen concentrations and fluorescence data (Table S1) were derived
126 from the sensors (Seabird Electronics[®] 9plus system) mounted on the CTD frame (Krahmann,
127 2018; Lüdke et al., in review 2020).

128 Sample collection and subsequent chemical processing and analysis for total ^{234}Th
129 followed protocols by Pike et al. (2005) and SCOR Working Group RiO5 cookbook
130 (<https://cmer.who.edu/>). Briefly, a ^{230}Th yield tracer (1 dpm) was added to each sample (4 L)
131 before Th was extracted with MnO_2 precipitates. Precipitates were filtered onto 25 mm quartz
132 microfiber filters (Whatman[®] QMA, $2.2\ \mu\text{m}$ nominal pore size) and dried overnight at 50°C ,
133 after which they were counted at sea on a Risø[®] low-level beta GM multicounter until
134 uncertainty was below 3%, and again 6 months later at home laboratory for background ^{234}Th
135 activities. After the second beta counting, filters were digested in an 8M HNO_3 /10% H_2O_2
136 solution (Carl Roth[®], trace metal grade). 10 dpm of ^{229}Th was added to each sample at the
137 beginning of digestion to achieve a 1:1 atom ratio between ^{229}Th : ^{230}Th . Digested samples
138 were diluted in a 2.5% HNO_3 /0.01% HF mixture and $^{229}\text{Th}/^{230}\text{Th}$ ratios were measured using

139 an ICP-MS (ThermoFisher® Element XR) to determine the chemistry yield and final ^{234}Th
140 activities. The average yield was calculated to be $97\% \pm 6\%$ ($n = 247$). For a subset of
141 samples (marked in Table S1) whose analysis failed during initial ICP-MS measurement,
142 anion chromatography (Biorad® AG1x8, 100 – 200 mesh, Poly-Prep columns) was performed
143 to remove Mn from the sample matrix before another ICP-MS analysis. This subset of
144 samples also included three samples (marked in Table S1) whose initial ICP-MS measurement
145 was successful, to test whether anion chromatography affects final ICP-MS results. Identical
146 $^{229}\text{Th}/^{230}\text{Th}$ ratios were measured for samples with and without column chromatography (see
147 Table S1 footnotes for details).

148 Each ^{238}U sample was acidified to pH ~ 1.6 at sea and transported home for analysis.
149 Samples of dissolved ^{238}U were diluted 20 times in 1N HNO_3 at home laboratory and spiked
150 with an appropriate amount of ^{236}U spike to achieve $^{236}\text{U}:^{238}\text{U} \sim 1:1$. Ratios of $^{236}\text{U}:^{238}\text{U}$ were
151 analyzed by ICP-MS (ThermoFisher Element XR) and activities of ^{238}U were calculated using
152 isotope dilution. Seawater certified reference materials (CRMs), CASS-6 and NASS-7, and
153 the International Association for the Physical Sciences of the Oceans (IAPSO) standard
154 seawater were analyzed routinely for uranium concentrations.

155

156 2.2 Flux calculation

157 Assuming a one box model, the temporal change of ^{234}Th activities is balanced by
158 production from ^{238}U , radioactive decay of ^{234}Th , removal of ^{234}Th onto sinking particles, and
159 transport into or out of the box by advection and diffusion (Bhat et al., 1968; Savoye et al.,
160 2006; and references therein):

$$161 \quad \frac{\partial A_{Th}}{\partial t} = \lambda(A_U - A_{Th}) - P + V \quad (1)$$

162 where A_U and A_{Th} are respectively the activities of dissolved ^{238}U and total ^{234}Th , λ is
 163 the decay constant of ^{234}Th , P is the net removal flux of ^{234}Th , and V is the sum of advective
 164 and diffusive fluxes. It is recommended that the time interval between station occupations
 165 should be >2 weeks in order to adequately capture the temporal variability of the mean spatial
 166 gradients rather than small local changes (Resplandy et al., 2012). The solution of Eq. (1)
 167 (Savoie et al., 2006) is

$$168 \quad P = \lambda \left[\frac{A_U(1-e^{-\lambda\Delta t}) + A_{Th1}e^{-\lambda\Delta t} - A_{Th2}}{1-e^{-\lambda\Delta t}} \right] \quad (2)$$

169 where Δt is the time interval between repeat occupations of a station; A_{Th1} and A_{Th2}
 170 are respectively total ^{234}Th activities during the first and second occupation. At times when
 171 repeat sampling is not possible within adequate cruise timeframe, steady state conditions are
 172 generally assumed, i.e. $\frac{\partial A_{Th}}{\partial t} = 0$. In this case, Eq. (1) is simplified into:

$$173 \quad P = \int_0^z \lambda(A_U - A_{Th})dz + V \quad (3)$$

174 The vertical flux of ^{234}Th , P ($\text{dpm m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$), is integrated to the depth of interest. Earlier
 175 studies generally used arbitrarily fixed depths (e.g., the base of mixed layer or ML, and 100
 176 m) for ^{234}Th and POC flux estimates (e.g., Bacon et al., 1996; Buesseler et al., 1992). Recent
 177 studies emphasized the need to normalize POC flux to the depth of euphotic zone (EZ), which
 178 separates the particle production layer in the surface from the flux attenuation layer below
 179 (Black et al., 2018; Buesseler and Boyd, 2009; Rosengard et al., 2015). In the open ocean, the
 180 depth of EZ is generally similar to ML depth. The PAR (Photosynthetically Active Radiation)
 181 sensor was not available during both of our cruises, so that it was not possible to identify the
 182 base of the EZ. For the purpose of this study, the slight difference of the exact depth chosen
 183 (ML vs. EZ) was of little relevance to the significance of physical processes and ^{238}U
 184 variability. Due to sampling logistics, however, we did not sample at the base of the ML, but
 185 5-20 m below the ML. This depth corresponded closely to the EZ depth used in Black et al.

186 (2018) in the same study area during austral spring 2013. For the purpose of comparison with
 187 earlier studies which reported ^{234}Th fluxes at 100 m, we also calculated ^{234}Th fluxes at 100 m
 188 in this study.

189

190 2.3 Quantification of the physical fluxes

191 The physical term V in Eq. (2) is expressed as following:

$$192 \quad V = \int_0^z \left(w \frac{\partial Th}{\partial z} - u \frac{\partial Th}{\partial x} - v \frac{\partial Th}{\partial y} \right) dz + \int_0^z \left(K_x \frac{\partial^2 Th}{\partial x^2} + K_y \frac{\partial^2 Th}{\partial y^2} - K_z \frac{\partial^2 Th}{\partial z^2} \right) dz \quad (3)$$

193 where w is the vertical (i.e. upwelling) velocity (m s^{-1}), u and v respectively the zonal
 194 and meridional current velocities (m s^{-1}), and K_x , K_y , and K_z represent eddy diffusivities ($\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$)
 195 in zonal, meridional and vertical directions, respectively. $\frac{\partial Th}{\partial z}$, $\frac{\partial Th}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial Th}{\partial y}$ are vertical and
 196 horizontal ^{234}Th gradients ($\text{dpm L}^{-1} \text{m}^{-1}$), and $\frac{\partial^2 Th}{\partial x^2}$, $\frac{\partial^2 Th}{\partial y^2}$ and $\frac{\partial^2 Th}{\partial z^2}$ are respectively the second
 197 derivative of ^{234}Th ($\text{dpm L}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}$) on the zonal, meridional and vertical directions.

198

199 2.3.1 Estimation of upwelling velocities

200 In the Mauritanian and Peruvian coastal upwelling regions, there is strong evidence
 201 that upwelling velocities in the mixed layer derived from satellite scatterometer winds and
 202 Ekman divergence (Gill, 1982) agree well with those from helium isotope disequilibrium
 203 (Steinfeldt et al., 2015). The parameterization by Gill (1982) considers the baroclinic response
 204 of winds blowing parallel to a coastline in a two-layer ocean. Vertical velocity (w) at the
 205 interface yields

$$206 \quad w = \frac{\tau}{\rho f a} e^{-x/a} \quad (4)$$

207 where τ is the wind stress ($\text{kg m}^{-1} \text{s}^{-2}$) parallel to the coast line, ρ the water density
208 (1023 kg m^{-3}), f the Coriolis parameter (s^{-1}) as a function of latitude, a the first baroclinic
209 Rossby radius (km) and X the distance (km) to the coast.

210 Upwelling velocities were calculated at stations within 60 nautical miles (nm) of the
211 coast, where upwelling is the most significant (Steinfeldt et al., 2015). We used $a = 15 \text{ km}$ for
212 all stations based on the results reported by Steinfeldt et al. (2015) for the same study area.
213 The magnitude of monthly wind stress was estimated from the monthly wind velocities
214 (Smith, 1988):

$$215 \quad \tau = \rho_{air} C_D U^2 \quad (5)$$

216 where ρ_{air} is the air density above the sea surface (1.225 kg m^{-3}), C_D the drag
217 coefficient (10^{-3} for wind speed $< 6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$), and U the wind speed.

218 Monthly wind speed (m s^{-1}) fields from MetOp-A/ASCAT scatterometer sensor with
219 a spatial resolution of 0.25° (Bentamy and Croize-Fillon, 2010) were retrieved from the
220 Centre de Recherche et d'Exploitation Satellitaire (CERSAT), at IFREMER, Plouzané
221 (France) (data version numbers L3-MWF-GLO-20170903175636-01.0 and L3-MWF-GLO-
222 20170903194638-01.0). We assumed a linear decrease of w from base of the mixed layer
223 toward both the ocean surface and 240 m depth (bottom depth of our shallowest station).
224 Upwelling rates at any depth between 0 and 240 m at individual stations could thus be
225 determined once w was estimated. Following (Rapp et al., 2019), an error of 50% was
226 assigned to estimated upwelling velocities to account for uncertainties associated with the
227 spatial structure and temporal variability of the wind field, and the satellite wind product near
228 the coast.

229

230 2.3.2 Estimation of upper-ocean velocities

231 During both cruises a phased-array vessel-mounted acoustic Doppler current profiler
232 (VmADCP; 75 kHz Ocean Surveyor, Teledyne RD-Instruments) continuously measured zonal
233 and meridional velocities in the upper 700 m of the water column (Lüdke et al., in review
234 2020). Post-processing of the velocity data included water track calibration and bottom
235 editing. After calibration, remaining uncertainty of hourly averages of horizontal velocities are
236 smaller than 3 cm s^{-1} (e.g. Fischer et al., 2003). For the horizontal advective flux calculation
237 (Eq. 3), velocities collected within a 10 km radian at inshore stations (St. 353, 428, 458, 475,
238 508, 904, and 907) and within a 50 km radian at offshore stations (Lüdke et al., in review
239 2020) were averaged. Data collected at the same positions within 5 days due to station repeats
240 were also included in the velocity average. As representative for the near-surface flow, we
241 extracted the velocity data from the top 30 m for M136 stations and top 50 m for M138 station
242 (defined as the “top layer” thereafter); these depths correspond to 5-20 m below the base of
243 the ML during each cruise.

244

245 2.3.3 Estimation of vertical and horizontal eddy diffusivities

246 While the strength of ocean turbulence determines the magnitude of diapycnal or
247 vertical eddy diffusivities, the intensity of meso- and submesoscale eddies determine the
248 magnitude of lateral eddy diffusivities. During the R/V Meteor cruise M136 and the follow up
249 cruise (M137) in the same region, the strength of upper-ocean turbulence was measured using
250 shear probes mounted to a microstructure profiler. The loosely-tethered profiler was
251 optimized to sink at a rate of 0.55 m s^{-1} and equipped with three shear sensors, a fast-response
252 temperature sensor, an acceleration sensor, two tilt sensors and conductivity, temperature,
253 depth sensors sampling with a lower response time. On transit between each CTD station 3 to
254 9 microstructure profiles were collected. Standard processing procedures were used to
255 determine the dissipation rate of turbulent kinetic energy (ϵ) in the water column (see

256 Schafstall et al., 2010 for detailed description). Subsequently, turbulent vertical diffusivities
257 K_z were determined from $K_z = \Gamma \varepsilon N^{-2}$ (Osborn, 1980), where N is stratification and Γ is the
258 mixing efficiency for which a value of 0.2 was used following Gregg et al. (2018).
259 Stratification (Buoyancy frequency) was calculated using CTD data retrieved from
260 microstructure profilers and following the `gsw_Nsquared` function from the Gibbs Sea Water
261 library (McDougall et al., 2009; Roquet et al., 2015). A running mean of 10 dbar was applied
262 to avoid including unstable events due to turbulent overturns. The 95% confidence intervals
263 for averaged K_z values were determined from Gaussian error propagation following Schafstall
264 et al. (2010).

265 Altogether, 189 microstructure profiles were collected during M136 (Thomsen and
266 Lüdke, 2018) and 258 profiles during the follow-up cruise M137 (unpublished data; May 6 –
267 29, 2017). An average turbulent vertical diffusivity profile was calculated each from all
268 inshore (<500m water depth) and all offshore (>500m water depth) profiles (Figure S1).
269 Microstructure profiles collected during cruise M138 were not available but there were little
270 variations amongst the cruise average inshore and offshore microstructure profiles from M136
271 and M137 despite drastic change in the intensities of the poleward Peru Chile Undercurrent
272 (Lüdke et al., in review 2020). It thus appears appropriate to apply these average vertical
273 diffusivities also to stations during M138.

274 Horizontal eddy diffusivity could not be determined from data collected during the
275 cruises. Surface eddy diffusivities in the North Atlantic OMZ were estimated to be on the
276 order of a few $1000 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ that decrease exponentially with depth (Hahn et al., 2014). Similar
277 magnitude of eddy diffusivities was estimated for the ETSP based on surface drifter data and
278 satellite altimetry (Abernathey and Marshall, 2013; Zhurbas and Oh, 2004). We thus consider
279 an eddy diffusivity of $1000 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ as a good approximate in this study for the evaluation of
280 horizontal diffusive ^{234}Th fluxes.

281

282 2.4 Residence time of ^{234}Th

283 The residence time (τ_{Th}) of total ^{234}Th represents a combination of the time required
284 for the partition of dissolved ^{234}Th onto particulate matter and that for particle removal. In a
285 one-box model, the residence time of an element of interest can be estimated by determining
286 the standing stock of this element and the rates of elemental input to the ocean or the rate of
287 elemental removal from seawater to sediments (Bewers and Yeats, 1977; Zimmerman, 1976):

$$288 \tau_{\text{Th}} = \frac{A_{\text{Th}(\text{mean})} \cdot Z}{P} \quad (6)$$

289 For the case of ^{234}Th , $A_{\text{Th}(\text{mean})}$ is the averaged ^{234}Th activities of the surface layer, Z is
290 the depth of top layer, and P the removal flux of ^{234}Th .

291

292 3. Results

293 3.1 Profiles of dissolved ^{238}U , total ^{234}Th , oxygen and fluorescence

294 The vertical profiles of ^{238}U and ^{234}Th activities are shown in Figure 2 and tabulated in
295 Table S1. Data from station 508 were reported in Figure 2 and Table S1 but excluded in the
296 Discussion section, because the surface sample at 5 m from this station was missing, which
297 prevents any flux calculation. Also tabulated in Table S1 are temperature, salinity and
298 concentrations of oxygen and fluorescence obtained from the CTD sensors. Uranium
299 concentrations of CRMs and the IAPSO standard seawater are reported in Table S2.

300 Activities of ^{238}U showed small to negligible variations with depth, averaging $2.54 \pm$
301 0.05 dpm L^{-1} (or $3.28 \pm 0.07 \text{ ng/g}$, 1SD, $n = 247$) at all stations. The vertical distributions of
302 ^{238}U did not appear to be affected by water column oxygen concentrations or the extent of
303 surface fluorescence maxima (Figure 2). Average U concentrations of both CASS-6 ($2.77 \pm$

304 0.04 ng g⁻¹, 1SD, n = 5) and NASS-7 (2.86 ± 0.05 ng/g, 1SD, n = 5) measured in this study
305 agreed well with certified values (2.86 ± 0.42 ng g⁻¹ and 2.81 ± 0.16 ng g⁻¹, respectively).
306 Average ²³⁸U concentration measured in our IAPSO standard seawater (OSIL batch P156)
307 (3.24 ± 0.06 ng g⁻¹, 1SD, n = 27) is slightly higher than that reported in Owens et al. (2011)
308 (3.11 ± 0.03 ng g⁻¹, 1SD, n = 10, OSIL P149), and may reflect slight differences in U
309 concentrations between different OSIL batches.

310 Total ²³⁴Th activities varied from 0.63 to 2.89 dpm L⁻¹ (Figure 2). All stations showed
311 large ²³⁴Th deficits in surface waters with ²³⁴Th/²³⁸U ratios as low as 0.25 (Figure 3). The
312 extent of surface ²³⁴Th deficits did not vary as a function of depths of either mixed layer or the
313 upper oxic-anoxic interface, nor the magnitude of surface fluorescence concentrations (Table
314 1, Figure 2). ²³⁴Th at all stations generally reached equilibrium with ²³⁸U at depths between 30
315 m and 250 m (Table 1). The equilibrium depths were slightly shallower toward the shelf at the
316 11°S, 12°S and 16°S transects. At St. 912, deficits of ²³⁴Th extended beyond 600 m depth
317 (Figure 2). The following stations (St. 428, 879, 898, 906, 907, 915, 919) displayed a
318 secondary ²³⁴Th deficit below the equilibrium depth, indicative of ²³⁴Th removal processes. A
319 small ²³⁴Th excess at depth was only observed for St. 559 at 100 m. Ratios of ²³⁴Th/²³⁸U for
320 deep samples at 1000 m, 1500 m, and 2000 m varied between 0.95 and 1.02 (1.00 ± 0.04,
321 1SD, n = 11), suggesting that ²³⁴Th was at equilibrium with ²³⁸U at these depths.

322

323 3.2 Vertical and horizontal ²³⁴Th gradients

324 Discrete vertical ²³⁴Th gradients in each profile (or the curvature of the profile) were
325 estimated by the difference in ²³⁴Th activities and that in sampling depths. As such, vertical
326 ²³⁴Th gradients varied greatly amongst stations, and were larger at shallow depths ranging

327 from 0.003 dpm L⁻¹ m⁻¹ to 0.085 dpm L⁻¹ m⁻¹ (median 0.013 dpm L⁻¹ m⁻¹). Vertical ²³⁴Th
328 gradients were essentially negligible at and below equilibrium depths.

329 While calculation of the vertical ²³⁴Th gradient is straightforward, the same is hardly
330 true for the determination of horizontal ²³⁴Th gradient. Mean ²³⁴Th activities in the top layer
331 (see section 2.3.2 for depth definition) of the water column are highly variable amongst
332 stations (Table 3, Figure 4), and likely reflect variations occurring at small temporal and
333 spatial scales in the Peruvian OMZ. Quantification of the horizontal ²³⁴Th gradient between
334 individual station thus may not be adequate to evaluate large scale advection and eddy
335 diffusion across the study area. Therefore, alongshore ²³⁴Th gradients on a larger spatial scale
336 (1° apart) were instead calculated by grouping stations into 1° by 1° grids and averaging ²³⁴Th
337 activities of each grid for the top layer. Alongshore ²³⁴Th gradients in the top layer at
338 nearshore stations for M138 are fairly consistent, ranging from 1.5 x 10⁻⁶ dpm L⁻¹ m⁻¹ to 1.7 x
339 10⁻⁶ dpm L⁻¹ m⁻¹, with a slightly stronger gradient in the north compared to the south. The net
340 difference in alongshore ²³⁴Th gradient is merely 2 x 10⁻⁷ dpm L⁻¹ m⁻¹. A slightly smaller
341 alongshore ²³⁴Th gradient of 4.8 x 10⁻⁷ dpm L⁻¹ m⁻¹ was observed for M136. The magnitude of
342 the net difference in alongshore ²³⁴Th gradient for M136 cannot be adequately quantified, due
343 to smaller spatial sampling coverage. Judging on the similarity in the spatial distributions of
344 mean ²³⁴Th between cruises M136 and M138 (Figure 4), it is reasonable to assume that net
345 difference in alongshore ²³⁴Th gradient remained similar during both cruises.

346

347 3.3 Steady state vs. non-steady state models

348 The relative importance of ²³⁴Th fluxes due to advection and diffusion were assessed
349 here assuming steady state conditions, which assume negligible temporal ²³⁴Th variability.
350 But how valid is this assumption in the Peruvian upwelling zone? Profiles of temperature and
351 oxygen at repeat stations 458 and 508 showed that a lightly cooler and oxygen-depleted water

352 mass dominated at the upper 50 m at station 508 (Figure 5). However, an assessment of the
353 ^{234}Th fluxes at these two stations were not possible as the surface sample from station 508 was
354 missing. Repeat stations 495 and 516 show substantial temporal variations in ^{234}Th activities
355 at each sampled depth in the top 200 m, while temperature and salinity profiles confirmed that
356 similar water masses were sampled during both occupations (Figure 5). Particularly, the
357 surface ^{234}Th deficit was more intense at St. 495 ($^{234}\text{Th}/^{238}\text{U} = 0.44$) compared to St. 516
358 ($^{234}\text{Th}/^{238}\text{U} = 0.73$). Correspondingly, ^{234}Th fluxes decreased substantially from St. 495 to St.
359 516. At 100 m, the difference in ^{234}Th fluxes between these two stations was $\sim 30\%$ ($3200 \pm$
360 $90 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ at St. 495 and $2230 \pm 110 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ at St. 516). At 200 m where ^{234}Th
361 resumed equilibrium with ^{238}U at both stations, ^{234}Th flux difference was $\sim 25\%$ (4510 ± 220
362 $\text{dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ at St. 495 and $3455 \pm 200 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ at St. 516). Taking the non-steady state
363 term in Eq. (1) into consideration (see details in Resplandy et al. (2012) and Savoye et al.
364 (2006) for the derivation of flux formulation and error propagation) increased total ^{234}Th at St.
365 516 by 40% to $3110 \pm 1870 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ at 100 m (or 45% to $5040 \pm 2290 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ at 200
366 m), which is indistinguishable within error from fluxes at St. 495. The large errors associated
367 with the non-steady state calculation due to the short duration between station occupations
368 prevent a meaningful application of this model in the current study (also see discussion in
369 Resplandy et al, 2012). As estimation of the physical fluxes is independent of the models
370 chosen between steady and non-steady states, the following results and discussion sections
371 regarding physical effects on the ^{234}Th flux estimates is based on the steady state model only.

372

373 3.4 Export fluxes of ^{234}Th

374 Fluxes of ^{234}Th due to radioactive production and decay (hereafter ‘production flux’),
375 upwelling, and vertical diffusion were reported in Table 1 and Figure 6 for both depths 5-20
376 m below the ML and at 100 m. The production fluxes of ^{234}Th at 5-20 m below the ML

377 ranged from $560 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ to $1880 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, whereas at 100 m they were much higher at
378 $850 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ to $3370 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. There is no discernable trend regarding the production
379 fluxes between the shelf and offshore stations, similar to those seen along the eastern GP16
380 transect (Black et al. 2017).

381 Alongshore winds were unusually weak off Peru preceding and during our sampling
382 campaign as a result of the 2017 coastal El Niño (Echevin et al., 2018; Lüdke et al., in review
383 2020; Peng et al., 2019), which resulted in nominal upwelling in the water column. At
384 nearshore stations, upwelling rates at the base of the ML varied between $1.3 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ and
385 $9.7 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m s}^{-1}$, whereas upwelling rates at offshore stations were on the order of $10^{-10} \text{ m s}^{-1}$
386 to 10^{-8} m s^{-1} and essentially negligible. As a result, upwelled ^{234}Th fluxes at 5-20 m below the
387 ML were only significant at stations closest to shore; these stations were 428 ($130 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$)
388 1), 883-12 ($80 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) and 904-16 ($280 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) whose upwelled ^{234}Th fluxes
389 accounted for 10%, 11% and 25% of the total ^{234}Th fluxes respectively (Figure 6). Upwelled
390 ^{234}Th fluxes at the rest of the stations accounted for less than 2% of the total ^{234}Th fluxes (6%
391 at stations 353 and 907-11) and were insignificant. At 100 m, both vertical ^{234}Th gradients and
392 upwelling rates were significantly smaller compared to shallower depths. As a result,
393 upwelled ^{234}Th fluxes were less than $70 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, or less than 4% of total ^{234}Th fluxes.

394 Similarly, vertical diffusivities, shown as running mean over 20 m in Figure S1, were
395 an order of magnitude higher at shallow stations ($3.2 \times 10^{-4} \pm 1.7 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$; 1SD, 27 m to
396 100 m below sea surface) compared to those at deep stations ($1.7 \times 10^{-5} \pm 0.6 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$;
397 1SD; 34 – 100 m below sea surface). Within the upper 27 m to 33 m layer at offshore deep
398 stations, vertical diffusivities decreased exponentially by an order of magnitude within a few
399 meters; below this depth, vertical diffusivities remained relatively stable (Figure S1). This is
400 not surprising as wind-driven turbulent is most significant at the ocean surface (Buckingham
401 et al., 2019). In this study, the sampling depths immediately below the ML were generally 30

402 m and 60 m. A few high vertical diffusivity values around 30 m at deep stations were unlikely
403 representative for the 30 m – 60 m water column layer. We thus opted to only apply vertical
404 diffusivities below 33 m at deep stations. Relative standard errors (RSE) associated with
405 diffusivity estimates varied from 35% to 55%. Vertical diffusive ^{234}Th fluxes at 5-20 m below
406 the ML, determined using both vertical diffusivity and vertical ^{234}Th gradient, varied greatly
407 amongst stations. At shallow stations 428, 458, and 883-12, vertical diffusive ^{234}Th fluxes
408 made up 37% ($490 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$), 14% ($160 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$), and 21% ($160 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) of total
409 ^{234}Th fluxes, respectively (Figure 6). At the rest of the stations, vertical diffusive ^{234}Th fluxes
410 appeared to be insignificant, ranging between 1% and 10% in the total ^{234}Th flux budget. At
411 100 m, vertical diffusive ^{234}Th fluxes at station 428, 458, and 883-12 remained high at 390
412 $\text{dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, $150 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, $120 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, respectively, whereas those at the rest of the
413 stations accounted for < 2% of the total ^{234}Th flux.

414 Horizontal advective and diffusive ^{234}Th fluxes were both very small. Average
415 alongshore current velocities (Lüdke et al., in review 2020) for the top layer varied from 0.06
416 m s^{-1} to 0.34 m s^{-1} . At the peripheral of a freshly-formed anticyclonic eddy (St. 915-1),
417 alongshore current velocities could be as high as 0.53 m s^{-1} . Taking the mean alongshore
418 velocity of 0.2 m s^{-1} and the net difference in alongshore ^{234}Th gradient of $2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ dpm L}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$,
419 the resulting net horizontal advective ^{234}Th flux at the top layer is $\sim 50 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, a mere
420 3-9% of the total ^{234}Th fluxes.

421 Horizontal diffusive ^{234}Th flux was estimated using an average eddy diffusivity of
422 $1000 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (see Methods section 2.3.3) and the alongshore ^{234}Th gradient. A maximum value
423 of $10 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ was calculated, which accounted for <1% of total ^{234}Th flux at all stations.
424 Note that the horizontal advective and lateral diffusive fluxes presented here are a rough
425 estimate and should only provide an idea of their order of magnitude. Due to the uncertainty
426 inherent to the estimates, we refrain from adding these values to Table 1.

427

428 **4. Discussion**

429 4.1 Lack of linear ^{238}U – salinity correlation in the Peruvian OMZ

430 The water column profiles of ^{238}U in the Peruvian OMZ (Figure 2) are similar to those
431 seen in the open ocean (see compilations in Owens et al., 2011 and Van Der Loeff et al.
432 (2006), and references therein). It thus appears that water column suboxic/anoxic conditions
433 alone is not sufficient to remove U, in contrast to sedimentary U studies underlying low
434 oxygen waters where soluble U(VI) diffused downward into subsurface sediments and
435 reduced to insoluble U(IV) (Anderson et al., 1989; Böning et al., 2004; Scholz et al., 2011).
436 Our inference is in accord with water column ^{238}U studies in intense OMZs in the eastern
437 tropical North Pacific (Nameroff et al., 2002) and the Arabian Sea (Rengarajan et al., 2003),
438 where ^{238}U concentrations remain constant over the entire upper water column studied.

439 Dissolved ^{238}U and salinity across the entire Peruvian OMZ displayed poor linear
440 correlation regardless of seawater oxygen concentrations (Figure 7a-b). The general consensus
441 is that U behaves conservatively in oxic seawater in the open ocean and early observations
442 have shown that ^{238}U activities can be calculated from salinity based on a simple linear
443 correlation between the two (e.g. Chen et al., 1986; Ku et al., 1977). Compilations in Van Der
444 Loeff et al. (2006) and Owens et al. (2011) further demonstrated that the majority of uranium
445 data points in the global seawater dataset follow a linear correlation with seawater salinity.
446 The ^{238}U -salinity formulations from either Chen et al. (1986) or Owens et al. (2011) are thus
447 generally appropriate for open ocean conditions and have been widely used in ^{234}Th flux
448 studies. However, this linear ^{238}U -salinity correlation breaks down in the Peruvian OMZ.
449 Furthermore, the measured ^{238}U activities in this study correlated poorly with those calculated
450 from salinity using the Owens formulation regardless of water column oxygen concentrations
451 (Table S2, Figure 7c), with the former significantly higher than the projected values and

452 differences up to 10%. Both evidences suggested that non-conservative processes have
453 introduced significant amount of dissolved U into the water column.

454 It is likely that this poor ^{238}U -salinity correlation in the water column is not a unique
455 feature off the coast of Peru. Poor correlations between dissolved ^{238}U and salinity have been
456 previously observed in open ocean settings such as the Arabian Sea (Rengarajan et al., 2003)
457 and the Pacific Ocean (Ku et al., 1977), and shelf-estuary systems such as the Amazon shelf
458 (McKee et al., 1987; Swarzenski et al., 2004). It is possible that the narrow range of salinity
459 within any single ocean basin precludes a meaningful ^{238}U -salinity correlation (Ku et al.,
460 1977; Owens et al., 2011). For the Peruvian shelf system, two possible scenarios may further
461 explain the lack of linear ^{238}U -salinity correlation in the water column. Firstly, authigenic U
462 within the sediments may be remobilized under ENSO-related oxygenation events. In
463 reducing pore water, U reduction and removal from pore water is usually seen within the Fe
464 reduction zone (Barnes and Cochran, 1990; Barnes and Cochran, 1991; Scholz et al., 2011).
465 As such, a downward diffusive flux of U across the water-sediment interface is expected in
466 reducing sedimentary environment. However, pore water and bottom water geochemistry
467 measurements during two previous cruises (M77-1 and M77-2) along an 11°S transect off
468 Peru showed large diffusive fluxes of U out of the Peruvian shelf sediments despite that both
469 Fe reduction and U reduction took place in the top centimeters of sediments (Scholz et al.,
470 2011). It was suggested that a minute increase in bottom water oxygen concentration induced
471 by El Niño events would be sufficient in shifting the U(VI)/U(IV) boundary by a few
472 centimeters and remobilize authigenic U (Scholz et al., 2011). Preceding and during our
473 sampling campaign, a coastal El Niño event, with coastal precipitation as strong as the 1997-
474 98 El Niño event, had developed rapidly and unexpectedly in January, and disappeared by
475 May 2017 during cruise M136 (Echevin et al., 2018; Garreaud, 2018; Peng et al., 2019). This
476 strong coastal El Niño event could induce an oxygenation event large enough to remobilized

477 authigenic U along the Peruvian shelf. Secondly, resuspension of bottom sediments and
478 subsequent desorption of U from ferric-oxyhydroxides could affect the ^{238}U -salinity
479 relationship, similar to that seen on the Amazon shelf at salinity above 10 (McKee et al.,
480 1987) and in laboratory experiments (Barnes and Cochran, 1993). Fe reduction and release
481 from the Peruvian shelf sediments (Noffke et al., 2012; Scholz et al., 2014) could release
482 additional U to overlying waters. The magnitude of such, however, has not been quantified.

483 The consequence of the notable difference between measured ^{238}U in this study and
484 salinity-based ^{238}U to ^{234}Th flux according to Eq. (2) is neither linear nor straightforward,
485 because the vertical gradients of both ^{238}U and ^{234}Th strongly affects the impacts of ^{238}U
486 variations on ^{234}Th fluxes. In this study, ^{234}Th fluxes at 100 m derived from salinity-based
487 ^{238}U lead to significant underestimation of ^{234}Th fluxes by an average of 20% and as high as
488 40% (Table 2). These differences in ^{234}Th fluxes will have direct consequences for ^{234}Th
489 derived elemental fluxes such as C, N, P and trace metals. It is thus important to note that U
490 concentrations in coastal systems are highly sensitive to bottom water oxygen concentrations
491 and redox-related U addition, variability of which is expected to intensify with future climate
492 change (Shepherd et al., 2017). Relatively minor variations in dissolved ^{238}U could account
493 for substantial overestimation/underestimation of the depth-integrated ^{234}Th fluxes. We thus
494 encourage future ^{234}Th flux studies in such environments to include seawater ^{238}U analysis.

495

496 4.2 Dynamic advective and diffusive ^{234}Th fluxes

497 The significance of advection and diffusion in the total ^{234}Th flux budget highly
498 depends on the upwelling rate, current velocity, vertical diffusivity, and ^{234}Th gradient on the
499 horizontal and vertical directions. Our results demonstrated that physical processes off Peru
500 during and post the 2017 coastal El Niño have very limited impact on the downward fluxes of
501 ^{234}Th (Figure 6).

502 Our findings are in reasonable agreement with those from the GEOTRACES GP16
503 eastern section along 12°S from Peru to Tahiti, in which Black et al. (2018) quantified both
504 horizontal and vertical advective ^{234}Th fluxes. Horizontal advective fluxes for the upper 30 m
505 water column estimated during GP16 were $\sim 180 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ for all nearshore and offshore
506 stations, similar in magnitude to those estimated in our study ($\sim 50 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$). Upwelling
507 fluxes along GP16 eastern section was suggested to account for 50% to 80% of total ^{234}Th
508 fluxes at the base of the euphotic zone (Black et al., 2018), a depth similar to or slightly
509 deeper than ML depths in the current study where upwelling fluxes accounted for less than
510 25% of total ^{234}Th fluxes). Total ^{234}Th fluxes along the GP16 eastern section, ranging from
511 4000 to 5000 $\text{dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ at the base of the euphotic zone, were much higher than those in our
512 study (560 to 1900 $\text{dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ 5-20 m below the ML). This difference could be related to the
513 period of sampling (austral autumn and winter 2017 in our study vs. austral spring 2013 for
514 the GP16 section). We note that the estimated vertical mixing rates based on ^7Be isotope at
515 the base of the euphotic zone along the GP16 section (Kadko, 2017) were at least an order of
516 magnitude higher than the upwelling rates at the base of the ML at nearby stations in our
517 study. This difference could stem from different methods used to estimate upwelling rates at
518 different timescales, and may also reflect the dynamic upwelling system off Peru in which
519 upwelling rates vary greatly seasonally and interannually. During cruises M136 and M138,
520 upwelling favorable easterly winds off Peru were weak, resulting in negligible coastal
521 upwelling. Coastal upwelling in the same general area was also suggested to be negligible in
522 austral summer 2013 during cruise M92 due to nominal surface wind stress (Thomsen et al.,
523 2016). Results from studies conducted in the same year (October to December 2013, Kadko,
524 2017; December 2012, Steinfeldt et al., 2015; January 2013, Thomsen et al., 2016) indicate
525 that seasonal upwelling rates vary drastically in the Peruvian upwelling zone. The seasonal
526 dynamics of coastal upwelling off Peru are similar to those seen in the Arabian Sea, where
527 large upwelled ^{234}Th fluxes only occurred during mid-late southwest monsoon at stations

528 close to shore (Buesseler et al., 1998). Our findings lend further support to earlier studies that
529 advection and diffusion are seasonally important for ^{234}Th fluxes in regions with high
530 upwelling velocities and diffusivities such as the equatorial Pacific (Bacon et al., 1996;
531 Buesseler et al., 1995; Dunne and Murray, 1999) and coastal sites such as the Arabian Sea
532 (Buesseler et al., 1998) and offshore Peru (Black et al., 2018; this study).

533

534 4.3 Residence time of ^{234}Th in the Peruvian OMZ

535 The residence time calculated using equation (6) was based on a simplified one-
536 dimension (1D) model of Zimmerman (1976). This 1D steady state model is obviously an
537 oversimplification of a multi-dimensional process, it however provides a good first order
538 estimate for understanding the highly dynamic nature of the ^{234}Th residence time. It also
539 provides a reasonable value that can be directly compared to values estimated in earlier ^{234}Th
540 flux studies that did not consider the physical processes. Furthermore, we showed in the
541 Discussion (sections 4.2) that physical processes, namely upwelling and vertical diffusion, are
542 only important at a few shelf stations. We thus consider this simple 1D model robust in
543 estimating the residence time of total ^{234}Th .

544 In this study, residence time of total ^{234}Th in the top layer varied from 20 days at
545 shallow stations to 95 days at deep stations (mean $\tau = 51 \pm 23$ days, 1SD, $n = 24$; Table 3).
546 These values were similar to those estimated within the California Current (Coale and
547 Bruland, 1985) and the residence times of particulate organic carbon (POC) and nitrogen
548 (PON) (Murray et al., 1989), but were much longer than predicted in nearshore shelf waters
549 where residence times of total ^{234}Th were on the order of a few days (Kaufman et al., 1981;
550 Kim et al., 1999; and references therein). The longer residence times estimated in our study
551 could reflect a combination of weak surface ^{234}Th deficits ($^{234}\text{Th} = 0.63$ to 1.82 dpm L^{-1})
552 (Figure 3) and low export fluxes (800 to 2000 dpm $\text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, Figure 7). Nearshore seawater

553 samples during GP16 (Black et al., 2018) featured similar surface ^{234}Th deficits ($^{234}\text{Th} = 0.63$
554 to 1.33 dpm L^{-1}) but much higher downward ^{234}Th fluxes (4000 to $5000 \text{ dpm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) as a
555 result of strong upwelling, implying that residence times of total ^{234}Th in the Peruvian OMZ
556 during GP16 occupation would be 3 – 6 times shorter. Indeed, a quick re-assessment of the
557 GP16 data predicted a shorter residence time of total ^{234}Th of 5 – 23 days within the euphotic
558 zone of the coastal Peruvian OMZ.

559 These temporal variations on the residence times of total ^{234}Th have important
560 implications for the estimation of POC fluxes and quantification of carbon export efficiency.
561 Firstly, seasonal changes in Th residence times reflect variations in particle removal over
562 different integrated timescales. For example, POC produced in surface waters during GP16
563 (austral spring 2013) (Black et al., 2018) would have been exported out of the euphotic zone
564 3-6 times faster than it did during austral autumn 2017 (this study). Secondly, to properly
565 evaluate carbon export efficiency, surface net primary production (NPP) should be averaged
566 over a similar timescale as the residence time of total ^{234}Th during station occupation.
567 Applying a 16-day averaged NPP for export efficiency estimate (Black et al., 2018; Henson et
568 al., 2011) would likely not be appropriate in the current study in which total ^{234}Th fluxes
569 integrated timescales of several weeks. ^{234}Th residence times should thus be properly
570 quantified in coastal studies before deriving export efficiencies over varying NPP integration
571 timescales.

572

573 **5. Conclusions and implications for coastal ^{234}Th flux studies**

574 Advection and diffusion are important in coastal and upwelling regions with respect to
575 ^{234}Th export fluxes (Bacon et al., 1996; Buesseler et al., 1995; Dunne and Murray, 1999;
576 Buesseler et al., 1998). Our findings show that their significance is subject to the seasonal
577 variability of the current and upwelling velocities, diffusivities and ^{234}Th gradients, and

578 should be evaluated on a case-to-case basis. Advective fluxes are perhaps the most
579 straightforward to estimate as current velocities can be obtained routinely from shipboard
580 ADCP measurements and upwelling rates calculated from satellite wind stress (Steinfeldt et
581 al., 2015; Bacon et al., 1996). Horizontal and vertical velocities derived from general ocean
582 circulation models also provide a good first order estimate for advective ^{234}Th fluxes; this
583 approach has been successfully demonstrated in a few studies (Buesseler et al., 1995;
584 Buesseler et al., 1998). In addition, the anthropogenic SF_6 tracer and radium isotopes, widely
585 used to quantify nutrient and Fe fluxes (Charette et al., 2007; Law et al., 2001), as well as ^7Be
586 isotope (Kadko, 2017), could be used independently to constrain horizontal and vertical
587 exchange rates of ^{234}Th (Morris et al., 2007; Charette et al., 2007; Buesseler et al., 2005).
588 When *in situ* microstructure measurements are available (this study), vertical diffusivity can
589 be directly calculated to estimate the vertical diffusive ^{234}Th fluxes. Yet, microstructure
590 analysis is not a routine measurement on oceanographic cruises. Earlier studies in the
591 equatorial Pacific and the Gulf of Maine have shown that general ocean circulation models
592 and a simple assumption on dissipation coefficients could provide a robust estimate on
593 vertical and horizontal diffusivities (Benitez-Nelson et al., 2000; Gustafsson et al., 1998;
594 Charette et al., 2001). Therefore, the calculation of physical fluxes is possible, though
595 challenging, and ^{234}Th fluxes due to physical processes should be carefully considered when
596 conducting research in a coastal and upwelling systems.

597 A striking finding in this study is that the assumption of a linear ^{238}U -salinity
598 correlation could lead to one of the largest errors in ^{234}Th flux estimates. In our study, using
599 the salinity-based ^{238}U activities resulted in significant underestimation of total ^{234}Th fluxes by
600 as much as 40%. Because the translation of ^{238}U activities to ^{234}Th fluxes is not linear, larger
601 differences between measured and salinity-based ^{238}U do not necessarily contribute to greater
602 overestimation or underestimation of ^{234}Th fluxes. For example, moderate difference of 3-6%

603 in ^{238}U throughout the upper 100 m at station 898 lead to 40% difference in final ^{234}Th flux,
604 while a 5-9% difference in ^{238}U at station 906 only resulted in 16% ^{234}Th flux difference
605 (Table 2, S2). We would thus stress the importance of ^{238}U measurements in future ^{234}Th flux
606 studies particularly in coastal and shelf regions.

607 Finally, our study showed that the residence times of total ^{234}Th in the Peruvian
608 nearshore waters varied seasonally. Tropical OMZs are important hotspots for carbon
609 sequestration from the atmosphere and enhanced sedimentary carbon preservation (Arthur et
610 al., 1998; Suess et al., 1987). These OMZs are projected to intensify as a result of future
611 climate change (Keeling and Garcia, 2002; Schmidtke et al., 2017; Stramma et al., 2008).
612 Future studies should take into consideration the large temporal variations of the residence
613 times of total ^{234}Th in order to properly evaluate how carbon biogeochemical cycles and
614 carbon export efficiency in these OMZs will respond to continuing ocean deoxygenation,

615

616 **Data availability**

617 Data are available in supplementary tables and archived at
618 <https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.921917> (Xie et al., 2020).

619

620 **Author contribution**

621 RCX, FACLM and EAP designed the study. RCX carried out sampling, on-board beta
622 counting of ^{234}Th , and drafted the manuscript. IR conducted ^{234}Th and ^{238}U analyses at home
623 laboratory. JL computed current velocities and vertical diffusivities respectively from
624 VmADCP and microstructure profiler data. All co-authors had a chance to review the
625 manuscript and contributed to discussion and interpretation of the data presented.

626

627 **Competing interests**

628 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

629

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918 Figure captions

919 Figure 1. Maps showing (a) locations of each station from M136 (white squares) and M138
920 (grey circles) and (B) monthly-averaged current field in the top 15 m from April 16 to May
921 15, 2017 derived from altimetry measurements (<http://marine.copernicus.eu/>; product ID:
922 MULTIOBS_GLO-PHY_REP_015_004). Color boxes in (a) schematically divide the four
923 shelf-offshore transects. Map (a) was created with Ocean Data View (Schlitzer, 2014). The
924 white box in (b) highlights our study area.

925

926 Figure 2. Profiles of ^{238}U (black) and ^{234}Th (orange squares – M136; orange circles – M138)
927 along with concentrations of oxygen (grey) and fluorescence (green). Profiles are organized
928 by cruises, transects, and distance to shore from left to right and top to bottom, indicated by
929 east (E) to west (W) arrows. Error bars for both ^{238}U and ^{234}Th are indicated. Red dashed lines
930 indicate the depth of the mixed layer. The start of the oxygen deficient zone is where oxygen
931 diminishes. Bottom depths are indicated for stations whose bottom depths are shallower than
932 600 m.

933

934 Figure 3. Shelf-offshore distributions of $^{234}\text{Th}/^{238}\text{U}$ along the four studied transects, as shown
935 in Figure 1, for M136 (left) and M138 (right). White dots denote station location.

936

937 Figure 4. Distributions of averaged ^{234}Th activities during M136 (a, top 30 m) and M138 (b,
938 top 50 m).

939

940 Figure 5. Profiles of temperature (solid lines) and salinity (dashed lines) for (a) repeated
941 stations 458 (purple) and 508 (yellow), and (d) 495 (blue) and 516 (orange); (b) and (c)
942 respectively profiles for stations 458 and 508 of ^{238}U (black), ^{234}Th (color squares), and
943 concentrations of oxygen (grey) and fluorescence (green). (e) and (f) respectively profiles for
944 stations 495 and 516 of ^{238}U (black), ^{234}Th (color squares), and concentrations of oxygen
945 (grey) and fluorescence (green).

946

947 Figure 6. Bar charts of ^{234}Th fluxes due to production and decay (blue), upwelling (orange),
948 and vertical diffusion (grey) for the depths at 5 – 20 m below the ML (top) and 100 m below
949 sea surface (bottom). Color boxes corresponds to individual transects in Figure 1. Within each
950 transect stations from west (offshore) to east (nearshore) are listed from left to right. Error
951 bars (1SE) are indicated.

952

953 Figure 7. Cross plots of measured ^{238}U activities vs. salinity for M136 (a) and M138 (b),
954 showing poor linear relationship between ^{238}U and salinity. (c) shows a direct comparison
955 between measured and salinity-based ^{238}U to further highlight the large difference between the
956 two. The solid blue line indicates the 1:1 ratio between measured and projected ^{238}U . Blue
957 dashed lines indicate the \pm errors reported in Owens et al. (2011). Error bars for measured
958 ^{238}U activities are smaller than symbols.

Table 1. ²³⁴Th fluxes due to production and decay, upwelling and vertical diffusion below the mixed layer and at 100 m. Horizontal advective fluxes were not quantified at 100 m. Refer to text for details.

Cruise	Station	Mixed layer		Upper oxygen depth	Maximum fluorescence	Equilibrium depth	²³⁴ Th flux at the base of the ML						²³⁴ Th flux at 100 m						
		depth	depth				Depth	Production and decay	Upwelling	Diffusion	Final flux	1 SD	Production and decay	Upwelling	Diffusion	Final flux	1 SD		
		m	m	m	µg L ⁻¹	m	m	dpm m ⁻² d ⁻¹	dpm m ⁻² d ⁻¹	dpm m ⁻² d ⁻¹	dpm m ⁻² d ⁻¹	dpm m ⁻² d ⁻¹	dpm m ⁻² d ⁻¹	dpm m ⁻² d ⁻¹	dpm m ⁻² d ⁻¹	dpm m ⁻² d ⁻¹	dpm m ⁻² d ⁻¹	dpm m ⁻² d ⁻¹	dpm m ⁻² d ⁻¹
M136	353	1	25	102	1.20	100	30	907	52	-36	923	69	1422	-14	2	1410	189		
M136	380	1	26	129	0.87	80	30	1145	0	-41	1105	54	1637	0	-1	1637	132		
M136	402	1	24	129	7.51	100	30	808	0	-75	732	64	1234	0	2	1236	111		
M136	428	1	10	76	4.11	30	30	983	-128	493	1348	129	1772	33	-390	1415	256		
M136	445	1	17	64	2.07	100	30	820	-10	16	826	66	1621	53	6	1681	165		
M136	458	1	5	55	1.61	100	30	1012	-18	161	1155	117	2101	-11	145	2235	238		
M136	472	1	11	29	7.41	200	40	1887	15	-29	1872	77	3315	-12	63	3366	233		
M136	495	1	18	50	1.13	200	30	1149	1	-19	1130	50	3195	2	-5	3192	89		
M136	516	1	16	45	3.77	200	30	614	0	1	615	49	2229	2	-4	2227	109		
M136	547	1	22	48	1.28	150	30	791	0	85	877	61	2510	0	-15	2495	118		
M136	559	1	20	79	1.70	85	50	623	3	-67	559	117	854	-4	2	852	120		
M136	567	1	21	50	2.40	150	30	1593	0	-23	1570	52	3011	0	-11	3000	86		
M138	879	3	43	93	2.24	200	60	1249	0	-16	1266	91	1702	0	-5	1697	111		
M138	882	10	39	211	2.68	150	50	1321	-7	16	1331	63	2264	19	-12	2272	82		
M138	883	12	10	220	1.31	250	30	683	-84	-159	758	108	1782	31	-121	1692	179		
M138	888	7	41	127	1.59	150	50	1364	0	-120	1244	62	1813	0	-4	1809	86		
M138	892	14	47	128	1.05	100	60	1395	33	-118	1309	72	1743	-3	1	1741	99		
M138	898	1	38	101	1.42	60	50	1099	0	-19	1080	104	1091	0	0	1091	125		
M138	904	16	12	72	3.63	150	20	812	275	0	1087	76	2643	0	-9	2634	79		
M138	906	18	32	81	1.73	200	40	1796	0	4	1799	41	3100	0	-1	3100	77		
M138	907	11	31	100	1.29	60	60	1594	-88	13	1518	147	1787	67	-2	1853	140		
M138	912	3	37	70	2.75	>600	50	1960	0	-79	1881	43	2975	0	-3	2972	78		
M138	915	1	26	99	3.51	200	40	1628	0	22	1650	38	2752	0	0	2752	93		
M138	919	1	19	79	4.46	150	30	1316	0	49	1365	32	3249	0	-8	3241	85		

Table 2. Comparison of ^{234}Th fluxes at 100 m calculated with measured ^{238}U activities and those with salinity-based ^{238}U .

Cruise	Station	Cast	^{234}Th fluxes at 100 m*		Difference %
			measured $\text{dpm m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$	predicted $\text{dpm m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$	
M136	353	1	1422	1320	8
M136	380	1	1637	1304	26
M136	402	1	1234	865	43
M136	428	1	1772	1443	23
M136	445	1	1621	1365	19
M136	458	1	2101	1859	13
M136	472	1	3315	3073	8
M136	495	1	3195	3058	4
M136	516	1	2229	2140	4
M136	547	1	2510	2313	9
M136	559	1	854	751	14
M136	567	1	3011	2879	5
M138	879	3	1702	1515	12
M138	882	10	2264	1875	21
M138	883	12	1782	1352	32
M138	888	7	1813	1441	26
M138	892	14	1743	1257	39
M138	898	1	1091	770	42
M138	904	16	2643	2280	16
M138	906	18	3100	2673	16
M138	907	11	1787	1308	37
M138	912	3	2975	2572	16
M138	915	1	2752	2380	16
M138	919	1	3249	2862	14

* For comparison purposes, we only report here ^{234}Th fluxes due to radioactive production and decay.

Table 3. Residence time of total ^{234}Th in the top layers of Peruvian OMZ.

Cruise	Station	Cast	Average ^{234}Th in	Residence time
			the top layer* dpm L ⁻¹	days
M136	353	1	1.48	46
M136	380	1	1.35	35
M136	402	1	1.64	61
M136	428	1	1.57	35
M136	445	1	1.64	61
M136	458	1	1.45	38
M136	472	1	0.93	20
M136	495	1	1.20	31
M136	516	1	1.74	85
M136	547	1	1.67	63
M136	559	1	1.75	94
M136	567	1	1.41	45
M138	879	3	1.59	75
M138	882	10	1.81	69
M138	883	12	1.87	74
M138	888	7	1.68	67
M138	892	14	1.69	65
M138	898	1	1.66	92
M138	904	16	1.32	24
M138	906	18	1.15	25
M138	907	11	1.04	41
M138	912	3	1.25	33
M138	915	1	1.16	28
M138	919	1	1.17	26

* Here 'the top layer' refers to the top 30 m during M136 and top 50 m during M138.

Figure 1

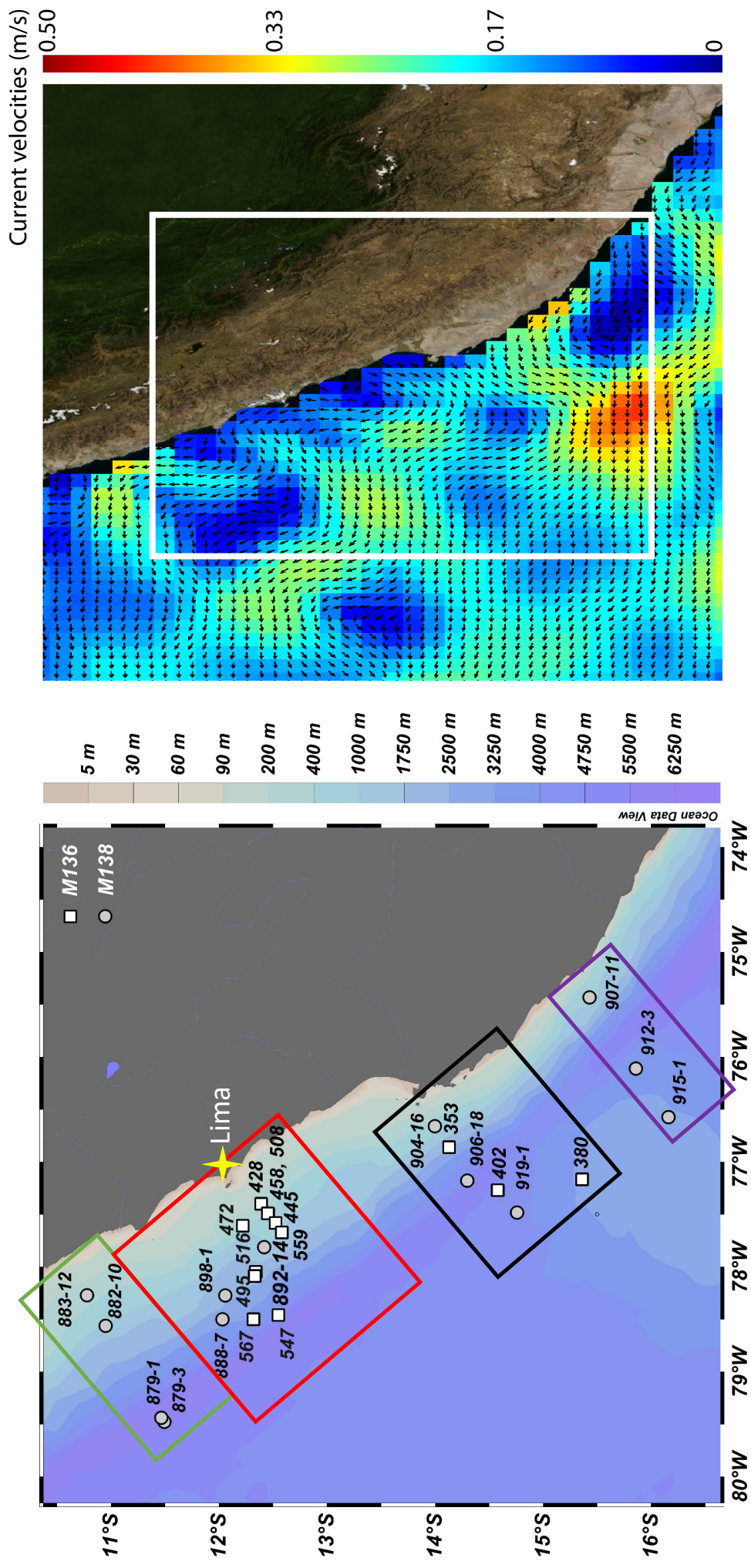
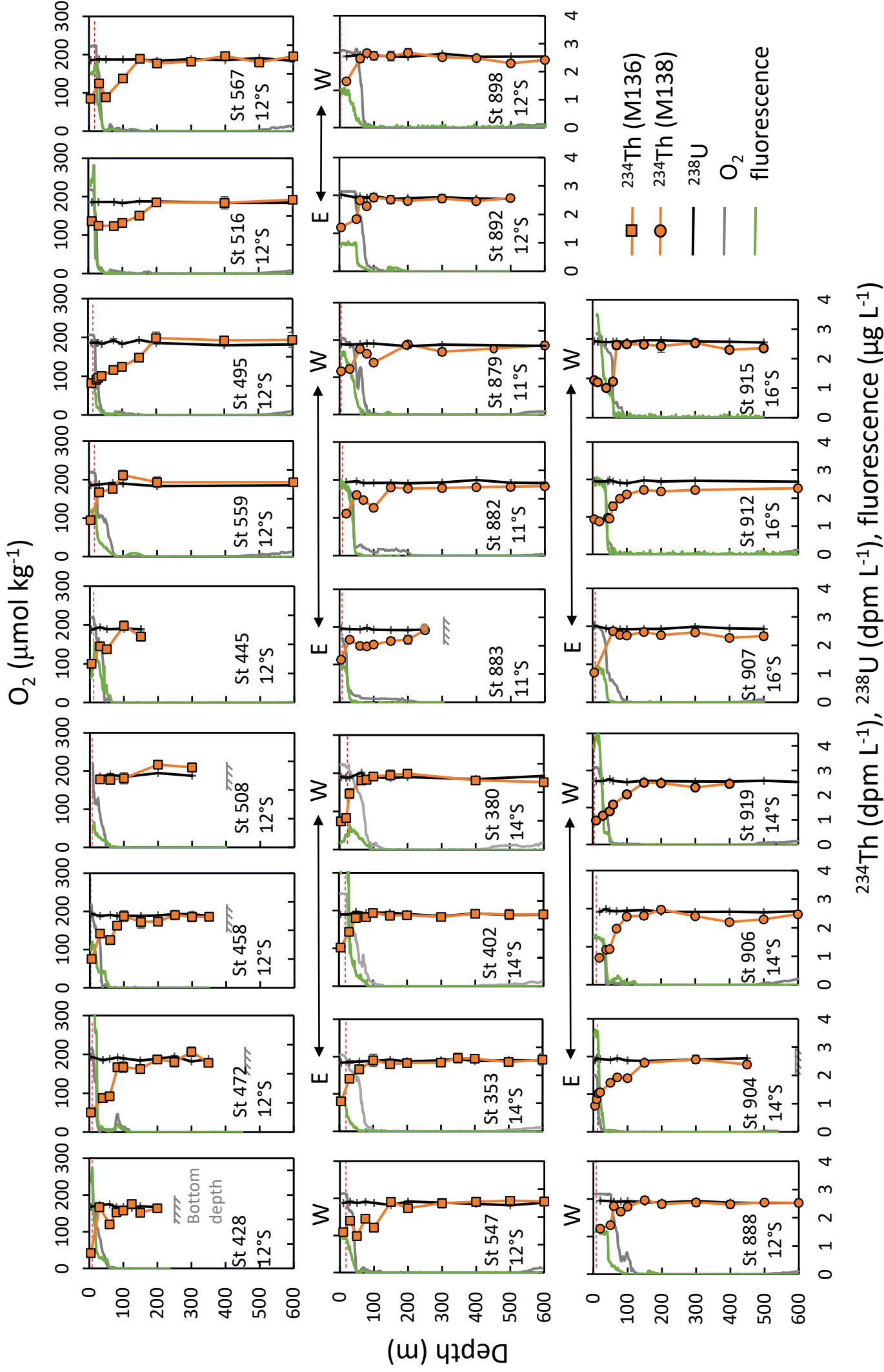


Figure 2

E ← → W



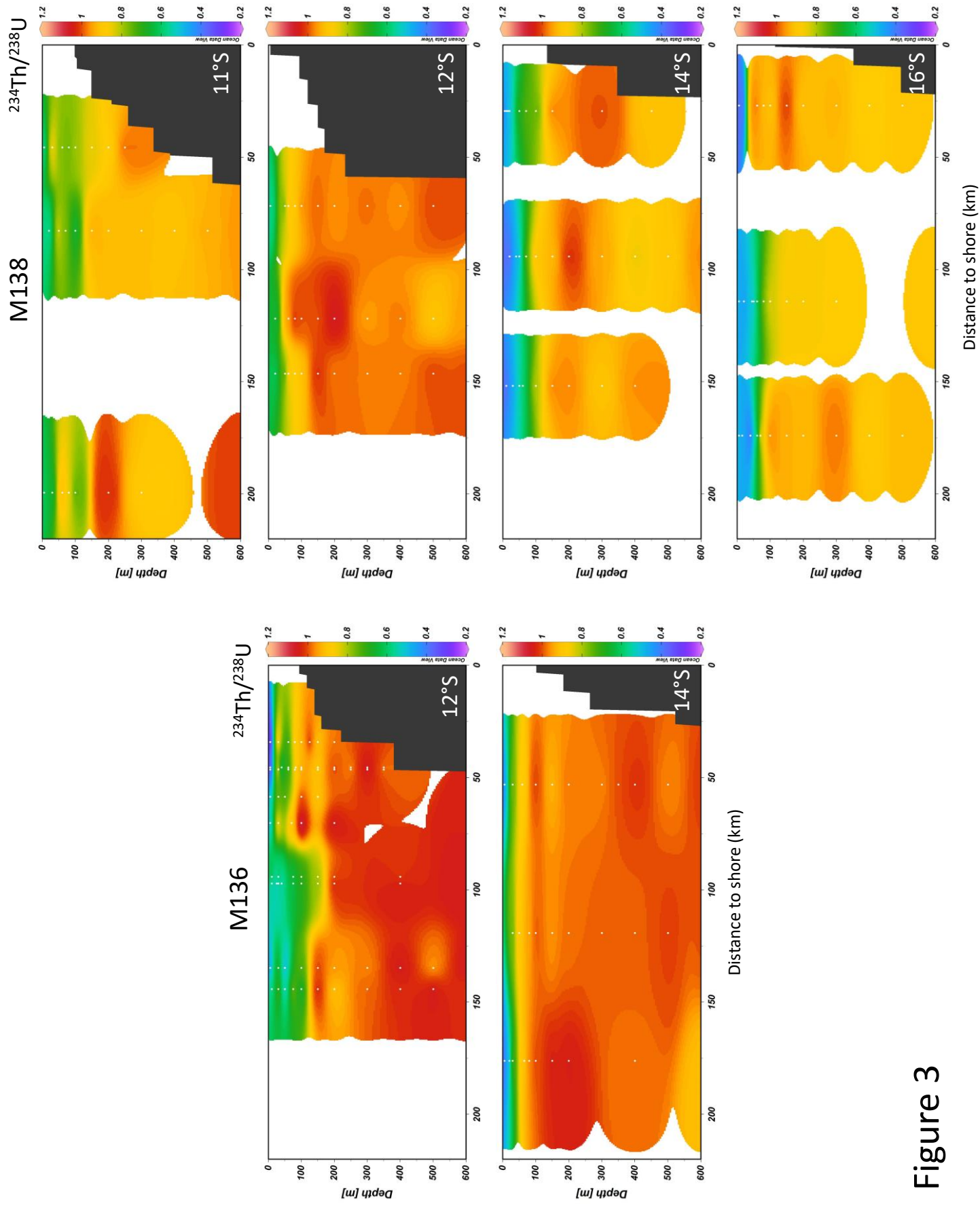


Figure 3

Figure 4

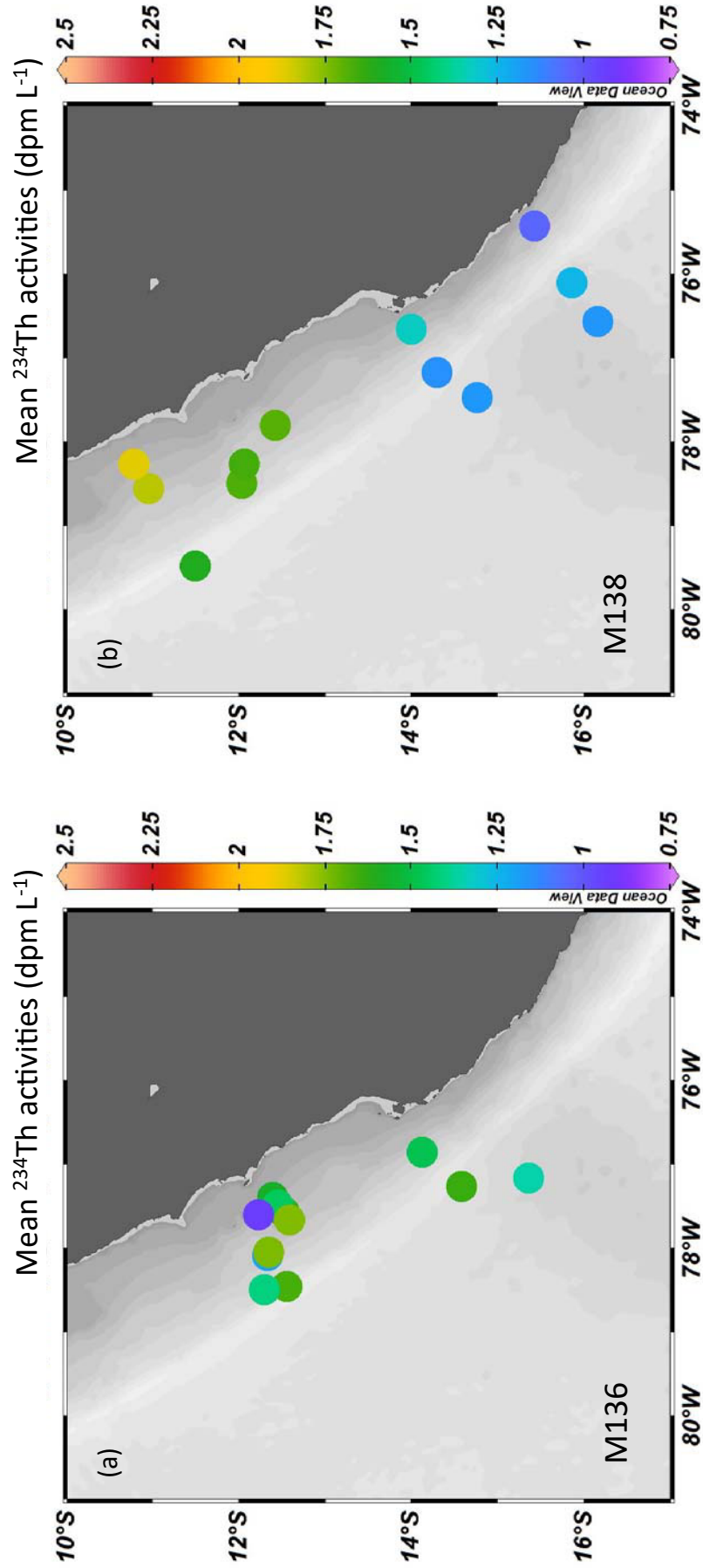


Figure 5

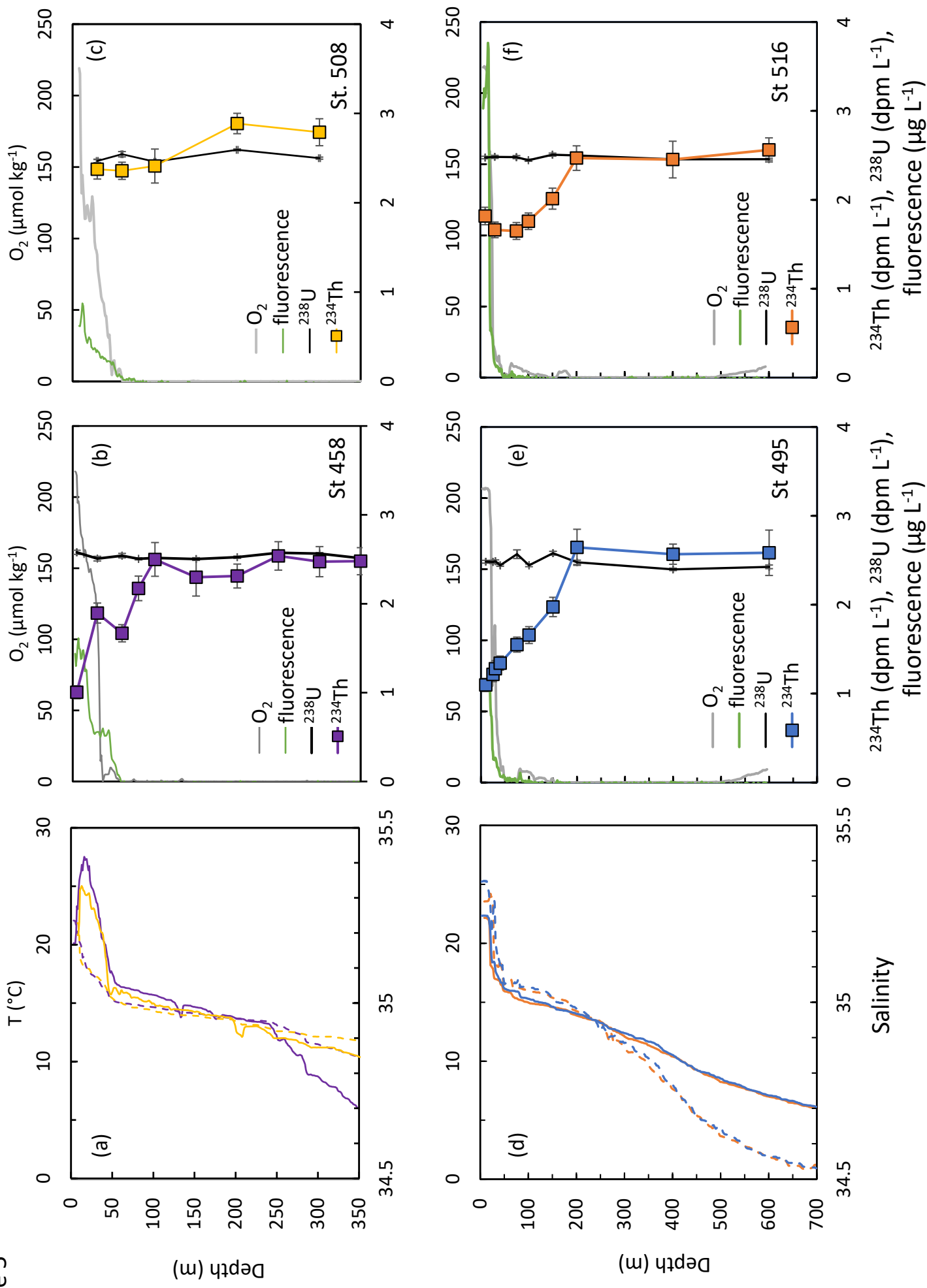


Figure 6

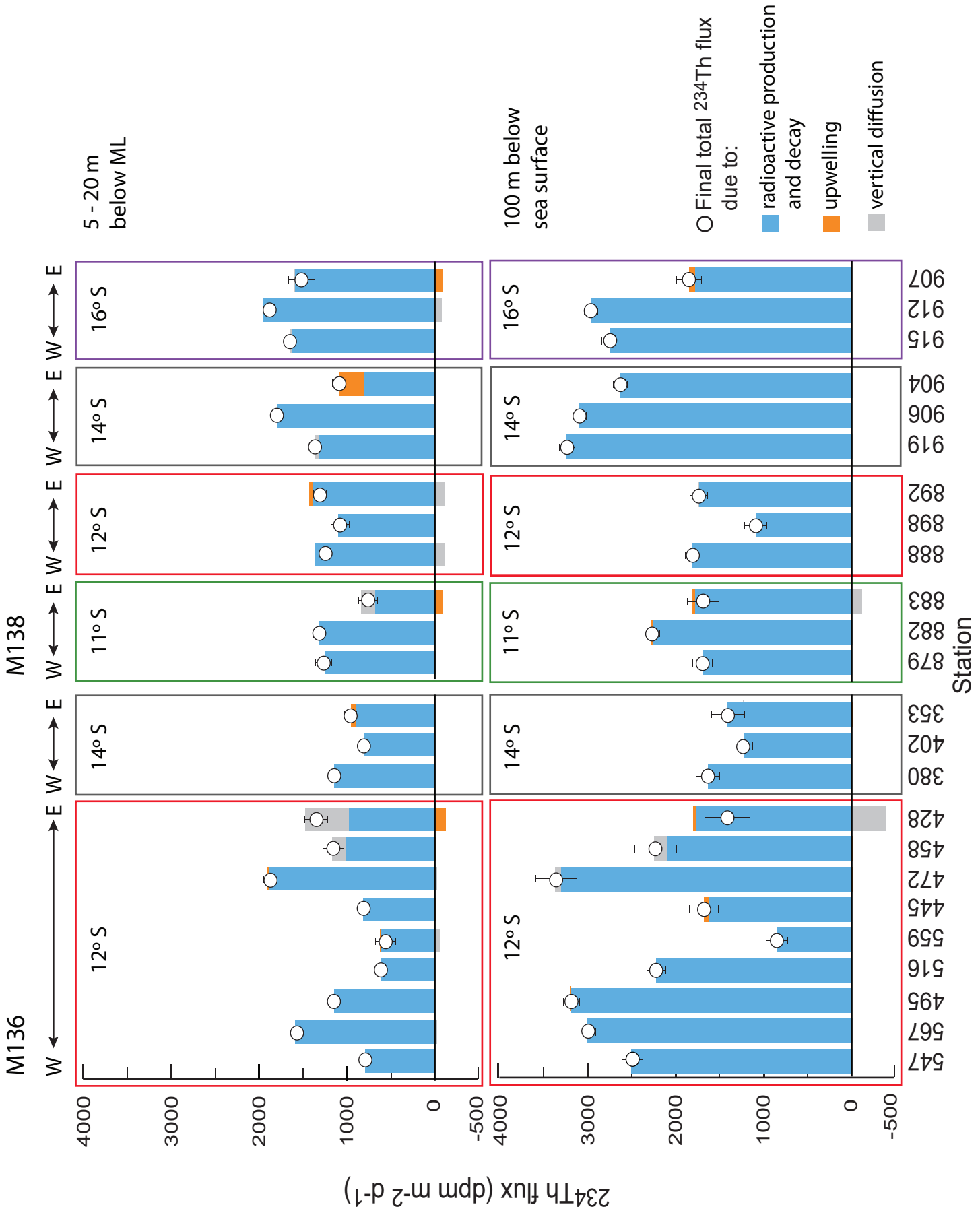


Figure 7

