

Vertical export flux of metals in the Mediterranean Sea

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Abstract

We examined metal (Al, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd and Pb) and particulate organic carbon (OC) concentrations in the marine vertical export flux at the DYFAMED time-series station in the Northwestern Mediterranean Sea. We present here the first data set of natural and anthropogenic metals from sediment trap moorings deployed at 1000m-depth between 2003 and 2007 at the DYFAMED site. A highly significant correlation was observed between most metals, whatever the

33 nature and emission source of the metal. Cu, Zn and Cd exhibit different behaviors,
34 presumably due to their very high solubility and complexation with organic ligands.
35 The observed difference of atmospheric and marine fluxes in terms of temporal
36 variability and elemental concentration suggests that dense water convection and
37 primary production and not atmospheric deposition control the marine vertical export
38 flux. This argument is strengthened by the fact that significant Saharan dust events
39 did not result in concomitant marine vertical export fluxes nor did they generate
40 significant changes in metal concentrations of trapped particles.

41

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Identifying the factors controlling the vertical export fluxes of particulate matter from
44 surface water to deep sea is of paramount importance to understand the
45 mechanisms leading to the sequestration of carbon (Jickells et al., 1998). The
46 question of whether the incorporation of suspended minerals drives the vertical
47 export flux of particulate organic carbon (OC, used hereinafter for the particulate
48 fraction only) in the ocean is still under debate (Armstrong et al., 2002; Passow,
49 2004). The Mediterranean Sea is an ideal site to address this question. Strong
50 physical forcing, intense coastal-pelagic interactions, short water residence times
51 and an equally strong influence of natural and anthropogenic continental sources on
52 the marine biogeochemical cycles of metals make the Mediterranean Sea
53 particularly sensitive to environmental and climatic changes (Martin and Milliman,
54 1997; Krahnmann and Schott, 1998; Béthoux and Gentili, 1999; Duarte et al., 1999).
55 This particular sensitivity justifies that the Mediterranean Sea is a privileged
56 ecosystem for the investigation of marine responses to anthropogenic metal inputs
57 and warming climate (Durrieu de Madron et al., 2011). The atmosphere of the
58 Northwestern Mediterranean Sea is characterized by a European signature disrupted
59 by episodic Saharan dust events (Chester et al., 1997; Heimbürger et al., 2010b).
60 Atmospheric metal inputs to the Northwestern Mediterranean Sea originate from
61 natural and anthropogenic emissions sources. The major source of natural metals in
62 this region is the Saharan desert. Episodic but intense pulses characterize this
63 particular source (Chester et al., 1997; Guerzoni et al., 1999; Marty et al., 2002;
64 Heimbürger et al., 2010b; Ternon et al., 2010). Anthropogenic metals are mainly
65 carried with air masses from Northern and Central Europe. As a result, metal
66 concentrations in Mediterranean surface waters are higher than in the open ocean,

67 and those of the inflowing North Atlantic Ocean (Morley et al., 1997). Metal
68 distribution patterns in the water column suggest that their biogeochemical cycling is
69 mainly governed by atmospheric inputs (Béthoux et al., 1990; Migon et al., 2002;
70 Heimbürger et al., 2011). Three independent studies (Martín et al., 2009; Angelidis et
71 al., 2011; Heimbürger et al., 2012) show a recent increase of anthropogenic metals
72 in Mediterranean deep marine sediment records. This increasing metal trend in
73 sedimentary records reflects presumably the evolution of anthropogenic metal
74 emissions along the densely populated Mediterranean coast (~300 inhabitants per
75 km² (UNEP/MEDPOL, 2004; Laubier, 2005), in addition to metal inputs from long-
76 ranged sources.

77 However, the problem remains of knowing which parameter controls the temporal
78 variability of the vertical export flux of metal to deep marine sediments. Previous
79 studies (Fowler et al., 1987; Migon et al., 2002) have shown that biological and
80 biogeochemical processes occurring at the surface control the temporal variability of
81 vertical OC export fluxes in the Northwestern Mediterranean Sea. Miquel et al.
82 (1994; 2011) pointed out that the vertical mixing of the water column is a key factor
83 determining the magnitude of the vertical OC export flux.

84 The ballasting theory pioneered by (Armstrong et al. (2002); Armstrong et al. (2009))
85 suggests another mechanism, in which mineral material (atmospheric dust, biogenic
86 silica, and carbonate shells) determines the occurrence of vertical OC fluxes.
87 However, Passow (2004) proposed that, despite their conspicuous ballasting role,
88 mineral particles may not cause vertical OC fluxes. On the contrary, vertical OC
89 fluxes would determine the vertical export of mineral material. With the present paper
90 we aim to contribute to this debate by examining natural and anthropogenic metal
91 concentrations of the vertical export flux captured by a sediment trap moored at
92 1000m-depth at the DYFAMED site, Northwestern Mediterranean Sea.

93

94 **2. Methods**

95 **2.1. Study site**

96 The DYFAMED (DYnamique des Flux Atmosphériques en Méditerranée) time-series
97 station (2350m-depth, 43°25'N, 7°52'E; Fig. 1) is a long-term monitoring station in
98 the open Ligurian Sea (Northwestern Mediterranean Sea) located 28 nautical miles
99 off continental France. The Ligurian Sea circulation is characterized by a permanent
100 cyclonic gyre (Lévy et al., 1998). The Ligurian Current creates a band ~ 30 km wide

101 and > 250 m deep, which is believed to separate the DYFAMED site from coastal
102 lateral inputs by a strong horizontal density gradient (Niewiadomska et al., 2008).
103 Atmospheric metal inputs are believed to be by far the most significant source to the
104 open Ligurian Sea. The DYFAMED site has been used several times for the study of
105 interactions between atmospheric deposition and open surface waters (e.g.
106 DYFAMED and MEDFLUX programs; see special issues Deep-Sea Research II 49,
107 11 (2002) and 56, 18 (2009), respectively). DYFAMED is now viewed as a reference
108 site for monitoring of ongoing changes in the Northwestern Mediterranean Sea.

109

110 **2.2. Sampling**

111 Automated time-series sediment traps were moored at 1000-m depth at the
112 DYFAMED site between March 2003 and February 2007. Conical sediment traps
113 (Technicap PPS-5, height 2.3m, collection area 1m²) were equipped with a
114 programmable 24-cup collector. The sampling cups contained a solution of 2%
115 buffered formaldehyde in filtered seawater (0.22µm) to prevent *in situ* microbial
116 degradation and grazing by swimmers. After recovery, the samples were stored in
117 the dark at 4°C. Swimmers were removed by successive sieving through 1500 and
118 600µm and followed by hand-picking under the binocular microscope. The remaining
119 samples were then desalted by rinsing on a Nuclepore filter (porosity 1µm) with
120 buffered (pH 7) deionized Milli-Q[®] Millipore water (resistivity: 18MΩ.cm) three times
121 (JGOFS, 1996) and freeze-dried prior to analysis (Miquel et al., 1994; Miquel et al.,
122 2011). Samples were weighed using a high precision balance (Sartorius).

123

124 **2.3. Analysis**

125 Sediment trap samples were mineralized according to the following protocol: The
126 organic matrix was destroyed by oxidation (HNO₃) while the mineral aluminosilicate
127 matrices were destroyed with HF. Every freeze-dried sample was weighed in 7mL
128 Teflon flasks, and dissolved as follows: 1) each flask was filled with 1mL HNO₃ 65%
129 (suprapur, Merck), sealed and placed in a larger Teflon bottle (60mL). This
130 apparatus was left 5-6 hours in an oven at 150°C, after which bottles and flasks were
131 brought to room temperature and left open under laminar flow hood until a brown dry
132 residue remained. 2) 500µL HNO₃ 65% and 500µL HF 40% were added to the
133 remainder. The flasks and bottles were closed and put in an oven 5-6 hours at

134 150°C, prior to open evaporation at room temperature under laminar flow hood, until
135 a white dry residue was obtained. This residue was ultrasonically dissolved in 5mL
136 HNO₃ 0.1N. The samples were diluted with HNO₃ 0.1N to 15mL.

137 Digested and dissolved metals were analyzed by ICP-OES, using a Perkin-Elmer
138 Optima 3000, axial torch instrument. An ultrasonic nebulizer (CETAC) was used for
139 sample introduction to improve the sensitivity (Desboeufs et al., 2003) to 0.01 to 0.1
140 ppb levels depending on the metal. A plasma power of 1250W and a sample flow of
141 1 mL.min⁻¹ were used. An external calibration was performed with multi-elemental
142 standard solutions made by mixing 1g.L⁻¹ mono-elemental solutions provided by
143 Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). The accuracy was checked using dilutions of multi-
144 elemental commercial solutions and SLRS-4 as certified reference material (CRM).
145 We also monitored the analysis with CRM geo-standards: GBW (National Research
146 Center for Certified Reference Materials, China), BCSS-1 and PACS (National
147 Research Council, Ottawa, Canada). A summary of analytical performances is given
148 in Table 1.

149 Metal concentrations (Al, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd and Pb) were analyzed for
150 samples collected from March 2003 to February 2007. However, years 2005 and
151 2006 were affected by higher currents than usual. Currents >12cm.s⁻¹ are more likely
152 to bias quantitative collection of settling particles by sediment traps (Baker et al.,
153 1988; Scholten et al., 2001; Buessler et al., 2007). This situation occurred from 22
154 February to 23 June 2005, and during most of the year 2006. Vertical export fluxes
155 during those periods might be underestimated ((Miquel et al., 2011), and the quality
156 of the trapped particles in terms of OC content and metal concentration has to be
157 observed critically.

158

159 **2.4. Data treatment and statistical analysis**

160 To our knowledge no certified reference material for sediment trap material exists
161 today and complete procedural blanks are hard if not impossible to realize. We
162 carefully examined the raw data in order to investigate for possible artifacts and
163 contamination. To do so we used enrichment factors (EFs) to trace the
164 anthropogenic component of samples, either from anthropogenic inputs or
165 contamination during sampling. We chose EFs standardized to Al, which is the most
166 commonly used soil dust reference. These ratios are usually defined for a given
167 element as (e.g. (Herut et al., 2001; Heimbürger et al., 2010b):

168

$$169 \quad EF = (M_{\text{sample}} / Al_{\text{sample}}) / (M_{\text{background}} / Al_{\text{background}}) \quad (1)$$

170

171 where $(M_{\text{sample}} / Al_{\text{sample}})$ is the metal concentration of the sample relative to the Al
172 concentration. This ratio is normalized to the ratio $(M_{\text{background}} / Al_{\text{background}})$ of Earth's
173 continental crust (Wedepohl, 1995). Average metal concentrations in soil dust or
174 rocks are very difficult to define accurately, due to the inhomogeneous composition
175 of worldwide soils. Moreover, the $(M_{\text{background}} / Al_{\text{background}})$ ratio may be dependent on
176 grain size fractionation and chemical alteration during atmospheric transport,
177 biogeochemical cycling in the euphotic zone and settling of particles through the
178 water column. Such modifications might involve the solubilization of certain metals
179 from particles, photo-chemically induced redox-reactions and aggregation processes
180 (Desboeufs et al., 2001). The use of EF is permissible if they are used for the
181 comparison of different enrichments standardized to the same $Al_{\text{background}}$ value
182 (Herut et al., 2001; Heimbürger et al., 2010b). We calculated EFs for each metal to
183 distinguish anthropogenic influences from natural ones. Suspiciously high EFs (for
184 Cu, Zn, Cd and Pb) were measured in the first samples of every sediment trap
185 deployment . Those metals are particularly prone to contamination, thus handling,
186 maintenance and setting of the sediment trap mooring lines and their deployment
187 might have corrupted them although the collection of settling particles always started
188 at least 24 hours after completion of the deployment of the mooring. We removed all
189 of those occasional outliers from the data set.

190 Principal component analysis (PCA) was applied to extract the geochemical
191 signatures of the chemical composition of the vertical export flux and to get insights
192 into the underlying factors accounting for them. The analysis was performed by
193 means of the Z-scores transformation of the raw data:

194

$$195 \quad Z\text{-score} = (X_i - X_{\text{avg}}) / X_{\text{std}} \quad (2)$$

196

197 where X_i is a given value of a variable in a sample, X_{avg} is the average of that
198 variable and X_{std} is its standard deviation. Z-scores allow keeping the relative
199 variation of the original data while reducing all variables to a similar range of
200 variation avoiding scaling effects. The best solution was obtained with a Varimax
201 rotation, which is more restrictive with the variables associated to the principal

202 components (i.e. maximizes the proportion of variance of the variables in the
203 principal components). The square of the factor loadings was used as an estimation
204 of the proportion of variance of each variable for each principal component.
205 Statistical computations were performed with XLSTAT® software from Addinsoft.

206

207 **3. Results and Discussion**

208 Temporal variability of vertical export flux, OC and metal concentrations are
209 compared at 1000m-depth (Fig.2.). Mineralization processes and grazing are
210 important features in the upper water column, whereas, at 1000m-depth, vertical
211 export fluxes are considered to be net fluxes with minimal alteration (Martin et al.,
212 1987; Guidi et al., 2009).

213 Metal mean concentrations and vertical metal export fluxes at the DYFAMED site
214 and various other moorings in the Mediterranean and Black Sea are shown in Table
215 2. The variability of metal and OC concentrations is relatively low (RSD = 21-46 %)
216 compared to the variability of vertical export flux (RSD = 147 %). This implies that the
217 temporal variability of TM and OC fluxes (calculated as the product of TM or OC and
218 vertical export flux) is almost entirely governed by the variability of the vertical export
219 flux. This is also the case for other Mediterranean sediment moorings, suggesting
220 that this is a general feature. Vertical export fluxes, OC and metal concentrations are
221 roughly in the same ranges as values presented by Migon (2002) and Heimbürger et
222 al. (2012), and also comparable to finding in other basins of the Mediterranean Sea
223 (Theodosi et al., 2010; Roussiez et al., 2012; Theodosi et al., 2012) and the Black
224 Sea (Theodosi et al., 2013). Miquel et al. (2011) suggested that under a one-
225 dimensional scenario, ~38% of OC leaving the 200m-depth horizon is remineralized
226 before reaching the 1000m-depth horizon. OC concentrations during the selected
227 sampling period were with values between 2 and 19%, not different from the typical
228 range of the complete 20-year DYFAMED time-series (Miquel et al., 2011).

229 The vertical export flux at DYFAMED follows a well-known seasonal pattern (Miquel
230 et al., 1994; Migon et al., 2002; Ternon et al., 2010; Miquel et al., 2011; Heimbürger
231 et al., 2013). This pattern was repeated over the duration of the sampling period and
232 characterized by the following known sequence:

233 In winter (December to February), the cooling and evaporation of surface waters
234 lead to the formation of dense water. The vertical convection of dense water leads to
235 rapid downward transport of dissolved (Copin-Montégut and Avril, 1993; Avril, 2002)

236 and particulate matter (flush-down effect), including metals (Béthoux and Gentili,
237 1999; Heimbürger et al., 2013). The vertical export flux during dense water
238 convection contains a higher portion of atmospherically-deposited mineral material,
239 that has been accumulated in the mixed layer during the preceding stratified period
240 (Migon et al., 2002; Heimbürger et al., 2010a). As a result, the OC concentration is
241 the lowest. The seasonal pattern of vertical export flux shows reproducible peaks in
242 January-February (e.g., 2004 and 2005; Fig. 2). During the mesotrophic period
243 (March to May), the vertical export flux is driven by primary production. Nutrients
244 brought to surface waters by the previous dense water convection trigger
245 phytoplanktonic blooms in spring, and generate moderate vertical export fluxes e.g.,
246 2003 and 2004; Fig.2). The spring vertical export flux is characterized by moderate
247 OC concentrations, as a result of the combination of biogenic material and mineral
248 material. The intensity of the vertical export flux under mesotrophic conditions
249 directly depends on the intensity of the spring bloom conditioned by the dense water
250 convection in winter (Marty and Chiavérini, 2010).

251 Under oligotrophic stratified conditions (June to November, approximately), the
252 vertical export flux is minimal ($\sim 40 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$) at the DYFAMED site (Sarhou and
253 Jeandel, 2001; Migon et al., 2002; Sternberg et al., 2007). During this period, there is
254 also only little to no production of fecal pellets, which are known for their capacity to
255 transfer matter and elements to depth (e.g. (Fowler and Knauer, 1986; Marty et al.,
256 1994; Carroll et al., 1998)). Vertical export flux during this period results almost
257 entirely from regenerated production (Marty et al., 2002). A higher percentage of
258 small-sized phytoplankton is exported out of the euphotic zone because grazing is
259 low (Guidi et al., 2009). The lower vertical export flux recorded in oligotrophic
260 conditions exhibits the highest OC concentrations.

261 The described seasonal pattern of the vertical export flux may be interrupted by
262 occasional bursts, caused by meanders passing the Ligurian current, fall blooms,
263 and intense meteorological conditions. Two examples are given here:

264 1.) Slightly higher vertical export fluxes were observed in July 2005. Episodes of cold
265 northwesterly winds (Mistral) observed during this period (data from Météo-France)
266 have likely mixed the surface layer beyond the mixed layer depth and advected
267 nutrient-rich waters from below (Andersen and Prieur, 2000; Marty et al., 2008).

268 2.) Small increases in the vertical export flux were recorded between October and
269 December. For example, a peak was observed in fall 2005 (Fig. 2), while vertical

270 export fluxes were negligible in 2003 and 2004 during the same period. Strong
271 easterly winds were observed early October 2005 and yielded a decrease of sea
272 surface temperature of 3.6°C (from 20.9 to 17.3°C) within 5 days at the Météo-
273 France buoy ODAS located nearby the mooring line. Such a rapid temperature
274 decrease suggests wave-induced mixing below the surface mixed layer. The mixing
275 with nutrient-rich from below the thermocline may have supplied nutrients to the
276 depleted surface layer and triggered a fall bloom. This fall bloom was probably
277 dominated by nano- and picophytoplankton (Heimbürger et al., 2010a) and resulted
278 consequently only in a small increase in the vertical export flux (Marty et al., 2009).
279 This seasonal pattern suggests that, apart from dense water convection episodes
280 associated in spatially restricted Mediterranean areas (among which is the Ligurian
281 Sea), the vertical export of atmospherically-deposited material is almost entirely
282 driven by the magnitude and variability of primary production. This statement is in
283 agreement with many studies that pointed out the prominent role of primary
284 production in the removal of mineral material (e.g. (Fowler et al., 1987; Buat-Menard
285 et al., 1989; Jickells et al., 1998; Grotti et al., 2001; Hamm, 2002; Migon et al., 2002).
286 Marty and Chiavérini (2010) stated that the efficiency of the vertical transfer under
287 mesotrophic conditions directly depends on the intensity of the water column mixing
288 and the subsequent diatom bloom. However, several recent papers (e.g. (Armstrong
289 et al., 2002; Francois et al., 2002; Klaas and Archer, 2002; Armstrong et al., 2009;
290 Lee et al., 2009; Ternon et al., 2010) have postulated that mineral particles,
291 originating mainly from atmospheric dust deposition, control the sedimentation rate
292 of biogenic material by ballasting biogenic matter, particularly when zooplankton
293 fecal pellet production is low (Lee et al., 2009). This process presumably increases
294 the density of OC aggregates and, therefore, their sinking rates. It was also
295 suggested that mineral particles protect OC from oxidation and remineralization (De
296 La Rocha and Passow, 2007).

297 The present paper contributes to the ongoing debate of whether atmospheric
298 deposition or primary production/dense water convection controls the marine vertical
299 export flux. We examined sediment trap samples from the DYFAMED site, that have
300 been analyzed previously for OC and Al, but not for the anthropogenic and natural
301 metals presented here (Ternon et al., 2010). The authors concluded that
302 atmospheric deposition events drive the marine vertical export flux. The outstanding
303 feature of the present dataset is that nearly all metals, whether of crustal or

304 anthropogenic origin, are highly correlated (Table 3). This suggests that all metals
305 are exported to depth at the same time, independently of their different depositional
306 seasonal pattern. However, this does not hold true for Cd, Zn and Cu, which
307 suggests that these metals are less efficiently associated with sinking particles.
308 Metal solubility can be proposed as an explanation: Despite possible adsorption onto
309 lithogenic material such as metal oxide surfaces at seawater pH (Fu and Allen,
310 1992), Cd is among the most soluble metals studied here (Migon, 2005). This also
311 applies to Zn (Kersten et al., 1991). The ability of Cu to complex with dissolved
312 organic ligands (Muller, 1996) might also lead to lower contribution to the pool of
313 sinking particles. The solubility of those three metals might explain losses in
314 sediment traps.

315 An alternative explanation could be related to the processing of the sediment trap
316 samples. Rinsing the particles by deionized water may have led to osmotic bursting
317 of planktonic cells, thereby releasing metals within the cytoplasm of algal cells. Zinc,
318 Cu, and Cd reside in phytoplankton cytoplasm to a significantly greater extent than
319 most of the other metals that were assessed (these other metals are typically bound
320 to cell walls and membranes), thus bursting of planktonic cells could lead to an
321 enrichment of Zn, Cu and Cd.

322 However, despite its high solubility, Pb is actually significantly correlated with Al, V,
323 Cr, Mn, Fe, and Ni. This is presumably due to its strong affinity for suspended
324 particulate matter, principally Al, Fe and Mn oxides, organic matter, carbonates and
325 clay (Kersten et al., 1991). Among the seven highly correlated metals (Al, V, Cr, Mn,
326 Fe, Ni, and Pb), one can find crustal (Al, Fe), intermediate (Cr, Mn), and
327 anthropogenic elements (V, Ni, and Pb). Natural and anthropogenic metals depict
328 distinct seasonal deposition patterns related to their different emission sources
329 (Heimbürger et al., 2010b). For example, it is well known that the deposition of
330 crustal metals is strongly associated with Saharan dust episodes (Bonnet and Guieu,
331 2006; Heimbürger et al., 2010b; Ternon et al., 2010). Saharan dust events are
332 generally observed in spring and summer in the western Mediterranean (Moulin et
333 al., 1997; Heimbürger et al., 2010b). Atmospheric deposition of anthropogenic
334 metals does not exhibit this pulsed character, and most of the anthropogenic inputs
335 occur in winter, when polluted air masses from Northern Europe influence the
336 Ligurian Sea (Barnaba and Gobbi, 2004; Duncan and Bey, 2004; Heimbürger et al.,
337 2010b). Anthropogenic metals have various emission sources which are temporally

338 variable. This may also lead to different seasonal patterns of their atmospheric
339 deposition. For example, V and Ni emissions result mainly from oil combustion,
340 whereas major Pb emissions results from steel metallurgy plants, mining complexes
341 in Eastern Europe or Kazakhstan, leaded petrol carried by long-range atmospheric
342 transport from North Africa, Middle East or Eastern Europe (Bollhöfer and Rosman,
343 2001; Migon et al., 2008). Individual metal deposition to the Northwestern
344 Mediterranean Sea surface is temporally variable, according to the nature and the
345 individual seasonal patterns of their emission sources (Heimbürger et al., 2010b).

346 Different seasonal variations in the supply of atmospheric deposition to surface
347 waters and the rate of particle removal from surface waters result in a rather
348 constant vertical export flux of metal through the year. Similar observation was made
349 for dust deposition at the BATS time-series (Jickells et al., 1998). As mentioned
350 above, the Northwestern Mediterranean Sea receives much higher loads of
351 atmospheric metal deposition and the water column is mixed every winter by dense
352 water convection. Vertical export flux in the Mediterranean Sea is driven by dense
353 water convection in winter (flush-down effect) and by primary production in spring
354 (Miquel et al., 1994; Migon et al., 2002; Miquel et al., 2011).

355 We hypothesized that atmospheric metal deposition accumulates in the marine
356 surface layer in the absence of dense water convection and low biological activity
357 (under stratified oligotrophic conditions). Indeed, individual dust particles have,
358 based upon Stokesian calculations (Stokes, 1901), a negligible settling velocity
359 ($<5 \text{ m.d}^{-1}$; (Buat-Menard et al., 1989)). Therefore, the transfer of particulate metals
360 from the sea surface to 1000m-depth without the driving force of hydrology or biology
361 would require at least 200 days. This is consistent with particulate metal residence
362 times calculated at the BATS time-series site (Jickells et al., 1984). This time being
363 longer than the oligotrophic period (on average, ~ 5 months in the Northwestern
364 Mediterranean Sea), atmospheric deposition (dissolved matter and particles that do
365 not dissolve) cannot be removed from surface waters without packaging onto large
366 organic particles or aggregates, incorporation into fecal pellets (Fowler and Knauer,
367 1986; Wang and Fisher, 1998), or adsorption onto planktonic debris and fecal pellets
368 during their sinking (Fisher et al., 1991).

369 In spite of Stokesian considerations, we investigated if field observations could
370 suggest that atmospheric deposition of mineral loads is capable of causing vertical

371 export fluxes, either by direct sinking of mineral particles, or indirectly by atmospheric
372 fertilization of surface waters.

373 Ternon et al. (2010) concluded that atmospheric deposition events drive the marine
374 vertical export flux at the DYFAMED time-series site. Their interpretation is based on
375 the fact that "...for this 4-years time-series, high OC fluxes were related to high
376 marine lithogenic fluxes (their Fig. 8), forming high export events...". Both variables,
377 OC flux and the marine lithogenic flux, are calculated as the product of the marine
378 vertical export flux and the concentration of OC and Al, respectively. That means that
379 both flux variables contain a similar variable, and are therefore not independent.

380 If we examine the atmospheric data closely we can identify 4 Saharan dust events
381 (atmospheric flux of $>1000\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$). Only one single Saharan dust event actually
382 resulted in significant marine vertical export flux, taking the same threshold value.
383 This exceptionally strong input of mineral dust observed over the Ligurian Sea
384 occurred in February 2004, when $22,210\text{ mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ were deposited during a single
385 event (Bonnet and Guieu, 2006). Marine vertical export fluxes increased during this
386 period (Ternon et al., 2010). This Saharan dust event occurred during the dense
387 water convection period and the marine vertical export fluxes remained elevated for
388 the entire dense water convection period (Heimbürger et al., 2013). It is thus difficult
389 to clearly determine what was the driving force (hydrology or atmospheric deposition)
390 for this vertical export flux event. None of the 3 other Saharan dust events that
391 occurred during our sampling period (Ternon et al., 2010) actually resulted in
392 significant marine vertical export flux. For instance, a significant atmospheric dust
393 episode that occurred during oligotrophic stratified conditions, in summer 2006 over
394 the Ligurian Sea (Heimbürger et al., 2010b; Ternon et al., 2010) did not yield
395 increased marine vertical export fluxes.

396 To further investigate the relationship of atmospherically-deposited particles and the
397 marine vertical export flux we chose to study their chemical composition using EFs.
398 Anthropogenic sources can be distinguished from natural ones using EFs. We
399 calculated EFs for each metal relative to the Al concentration ($M_{\text{sample}} / Al_{\text{sample}}$) and
400 normalized to the ratio ($M_{\text{background}} / Al_{\text{background}}$) of Earth's continental crust
401 (Wedepohl, 1995). Summary statistics of EFs and EF of Mediterranean aerosols are
402 given in Table 4. EFs of all metal of the marine vertical export flux (1.23 to 8.93) are
403 much lower compared to those of Mediterranean aerosols (2.59-597) (Heimbürger et
404 al., 2010b). This, and the fact that vertical export flux EFs show only very low

405 variability, suggests again a common transport mechanism for all studied metals and
406 that intense deposition events are smoothed out.

407 We applied principal component analysis after z-score transformation and Varimax
408 rotation to extract the geochemical signatures of the chemical composition of the
409 vertical export flux and to get insights into the underlying factors accounting for them.
410 The square of the factor loadings was used as an estimation of the proportion of
411 variance of each variable for each principal component (Table 5). Factor 1 explains
412 58 % of the variation with the main contribution of OC and all metals except Cu, Zn
413 and Cd. The negative OC value explains the relative dilution effect of the OC
414 contribution to metal concentrations of the vertical export flux. Factor 2 explains
415 21 % of the variation and is principally determined by OC, Cu and Zn. This confirms
416 once more that all metals (except Cu, Zn and Cd, see discussion above) are
417 accumulated in the surface waters, homogenized and exported to depth at the same
418 time.

419 Aggregation and coagulation processes, combined with sedimentation, strongly
420 impact the amount of mineral matter that is packaged with biogenic material. They
421 also impact the sinking velocity of exported particles and, therefore, the fate and
422 biogeochemical cycling of inorganic material (including metals) in the water column
423 (Armstrong et al., 2002; Burd and Jackson, 2009). Those processes presumably
424 occurred at the DYFAMED station only when biogenic material was present in
425 sufficient concentration. However, our results suggest that dense water convection is
426 the major driver of metal vertical export flux and that aggregation cannot occur
427 without a minimal concentration of organic matter. This is consistent with the role of
428 biological production as a factor that determines the occurrence of vertical export
429 fluxes after spring bloom, while atmospheric deposition is likely to supply pelagic
430 waters with mineral material, but seems unable to trigger significant vertical export
431 fluxes.

432

433 **4. Conclusions**

434 Our results suggest that the marine vertical export flux of metals is controlled by
435 hydrology and biology, and not by atmospheric deposition. This statement is in
436 agreement with studies by (Deuser et al. (1983); Jickells et al. (1984); Buat-Menard
437 et al., 1989; 1998; Passow (2004)) and De La Rocha and Passow (2007). For
438 instance, Deuser et al. (1983) noticed early on the decoupling of atmospheric

439 deposition and marine vertical export flux at the BATS time-series site. At the BATS
440 time-series site, the removal of mineral particles from the surface ocean was
441 controlled by biology. We show that the vertical export flux at the DYFAMED time-
442 series site is controlled by both, hydrology and biology. The hydrology of the
443 Northwestern Mediterranean Sea is strongly constrained by meteorological
444 conditions (winter temperature, wind events, rain events) and it conditions biology
445 (Marty and Chiavérini, 2010). As a consequence, the marine vertical export flux in
446 the Northwestern Mediterranean Sea is strongly dependent on climatic and
447 meteorological conditions as well. Therefore, the understanding of the
448 interannual/decadal variability of vertical export fluxes of elements in relation with
449 climatic and meteorological changes requires i) reliable measurements of vertical
450 export fluxes, including the use of proxies such as ^{234}Th and ^{230}Th to minimize
451 possible bias in the measurements (Rutten et al., 2000; Roy-Barman et al., 2009),
452 and ii) good knowledge of physical (climatic and meteorological) parameters that
453 determine the magnitude of dense water formation, as well as their
454 interannual/decadal variability (Stabholz et al., 2013). This is important in terms of
455 ongoing global change, because any alteration of the climatic/meteorological
456 conditions would significantly impact the marine vertical export flux, and this would
457 ultimately determine the evolution of metal cycling in the Northwestern
458 Mediterranean, independently from changes in the atmospheric (metal) deposition.
459 Furthermore, we recommend comparing elemental concentrations rather than
460 elemental fluxes in marine vertical export studies.

461

462

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471 **Tables**

472 **Table 1** Certified reference material (CRM) validation results, expressed in $\mu\text{g.g}^{-1}$.
473 The median relative standard deviation (RSD, in %) is calculated from full replicates
474 including the mineralization step, 10 for GBW, 5 for BCSS-1 and PACS. The median
475 recovery observed between certified and measured values is expressed in %.
476 Values noted * are close to the detection limit. Mean RSD values can be used to
477 determine the uncertainty of the analytical method.

478

479 **Table 2.** Mean metal concentrations and fluxes at the DYFAMED site and various
480 other moorings in the Mediterranean and Black Sea. Variability of metal
481 concentrations is relatively low compared to the variability of vertical export flux.
482 *values have been estimated from the available data

483

484 **Table 3.** Pearson intercorrelation matrix of the z-scores of OC and metal
485 concentrations of sediment trap material from 2003-2007 (number of variables 11,
486 number of observations 91, missing values have been pairwise deleted). Values in
487 bold are different from 0 with a significance level $\alpha=0.05$.

488

489 **Table 4.** Enrichments factors of all metals of the vertical export flux and EFs of
490 Mediterranean aerosols (Heimbürger et al., 2010b).

491

492 **Table 5.** Factor loadings after Varimax rotation. Factor 1 explains 58 % of the
493 variation with the main contribution of OC and all metals except Cu, Zn and Cd. The
494 negative OC value explains the relative dilution effect of the OC contribution to metal
495 concentrations of the vertical export flux. Factor 2 explains 21 % of the variation and
496 is principally determined by OC, Cu and Zn.

497 **Figure captions**

498 **Figure 1** Map of the Northwestern Mediterranean Sea and the location of the time-
499 series sampling station DYFAMED.

500

501 **Figure 2** Seasonal and interannual variability of vertical export flux and particulate
502 metal concentrations of a sediment trap moored at the DYFAMED site during 2003-
503 2007. Vertical export flux (column, right axis) and metal concentrations (black line
504 with dots) are expressed in $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$ and $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$, respectively.

505

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